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Contents

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

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ABSTRACT

The self development of adolescents takes place in the framework of their self perception at "real me and "ideal me" levels and their environmental perception at the "family "and "school "perceptual levels. The present study sought to find out the degree of affectivity of cognitively advanced adolescents and the less cognitively advanced adolescents. Two groups were formed on the basis of their performance on two Piagetian Tasks purported to assess the formal operations stage or otherwise. A comparative analysis showed that the formal operationals (i.e cognitively more advanced adolescents) showed less discrepancy between their "real me" and "ideal me" estimation of themselves. This gap was less than those of the less cognitively advanced adolescents whose gap between the two pictures of themselves was more than they could cope with. This finding was in conformity with the discrepancy theory advocated by William James.

The study also empirically tested the hypothetical theoretical assertion of Piaget that the cognitive and affective domains are parallel and influence each other. The findings of this study have shown the differential development of affective and domains of formal operationals and nonformal operationals and these are not only parallel but are also concomitant.

Introduction

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

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

The Statement of The Problem

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

Objectives of Study

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

2. To study how do formal operationals, and nonformal operationals differ in their environmental perception and self perception.

Formulation of Hypotheses

$$H_O: M_A - M_B = O \quad ; \quad H_A: M_A - M_B \neq O$$

1. There is no significant difference between mean scores of formal operationals and nonformal operationals on the combined scores on <u>family perception and school perception</u> which together constitute the environmental perception.

2. There is no significant difference between mean scores of formal operationals and nonformal operationals on <u>family</u> perception.

3. There is no significant difference between mean scores of formal operationals and nonformal operationals on <u>school</u> perception.

4. There is no significant difference between mean scores of formal operationals and nonformal operationals on <u>evaluative</u> factor of <u>family</u> perception.

5. There is no significant difference between mean scores of formal operationals and nonformal operationals on <u>activity–potency</u> factor of family perception.

6. There is no significant difference between means scores of formal operationals and nonformal operationals on <u>evaluative</u> factor of school perception.

7. There is no significant difference between mean scores of formal operationals and nonformal operationals on <u>activity</u>-potency factor of school perception.

8. There is no significant difference between mean scores of formal operationals and nonformal operationals, and on "<u>real</u> me" and "<u>ideal</u> me" discrepant scores of self perception.

9. There is no significant difference between mean scores of formal operationals and nonformal operationals on "<u>real</u> me" self perception, <u>comprising evaluative and activity potency factors.</u>

10. There is no significant difference between mean scores of formal operationals and nonformal operationals on <u>evaluative</u> factor of "<u>real</u> me" self perception.

11. There is no significant difference between mean scores of formal operationals and nonformal operationals on <u>activity-potency</u> factor of "<u>real</u> me" self-perception.

12. There is no significant difference between mean scores of formal operationals and nonformal operationals on <u>evaluative</u> factor of "<u>ideal</u> me" self-perception.

13. There is no significant difference between mean scores of formal operationals and nonformal operationals on activity-potency factor of the "<u>ideal</u> me" self perception.

14. There is no significant difference between mean scores of formal operationals and nonformal

operationals on <u>evaluative activity-potency</u> factors of "<u>ideal</u> me" self perception.

Significance of the Study

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

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

Sample

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

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

Instruments Used

(a) Cognitive Domain Piagetian Tasks

In the cognitive domain two Piagetian tasks namely liquid and pendulum tasks were selected from Inhelder and Piaget's book (1958) entitled "The growth of logical

thinking from childhood to adolescence". The Pendulum task measures inferential thinking and the liquid task assesses the hypothetico-deductive thinking. The hall marks of hypothetico-deductive thinking is the ability to take into account all possible combinations of events in a systematic way. This involves combinational operations which distinguishes formal operationals from nonformal operationals. A group of formal operationalists was isolated from the nonformalists. The formalists were considered fit if their combined score on both the Piagetian tasks was of acceptable limit, already determined by Munawar Mirza (1975).

(b) Affective Domain on Osgood Scale

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

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

Two main criteria were kept in mind while determining the selection of pairs of opposing adjectives: their factorial representativeness (i.e whether they related

strongly to evaluative, potency or activity factors) and adequate coverage of physical cognitive and psycho-social aspects of each concept.

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

Validity of Semantic Differential Scales

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

Reliability of Semantic Differential Scales

To find the reliability of the two scales, one for eliciting self perception and the other environmental perception the same scales were administered twice after a gap of 10 weeks; for the "family" perception the test-re-test reliability was .86 (N=70) and for "school" perception was

.65. For the "real me" perception it was .70 (N=70) and the "ideal me" perception it was .89. All the correlations were reasonably high and are very close to those reported by Osgood and Tannenbaum (1967) for the semantic differential scales.

Factorial Representation for measuring Environmental Perception

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

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

(b) Activity and potency factors were represented by the adjective pairs

tense-relaxed; secure-insecure; loving-imposing; heartening-disheartening; controlling-free ; reflective -unreflective; eventful-uneventful; calm-noisy; democratic-autocratic; stimulating-unstimulating.

Factorial Representation for measuring Self Perception

(a) Evaluative factors contained the adjective pairs,

ugly-beautiful; dirty-clean; silly-intelligent; good coordinator-bad coordinator; successful-unsuccessful; knowledge seeker-knowledge shirker; restrictive-permissive; kind-unkind; human-inhumane; happy-sad.

(b) Activity and Potency factors contained the adjective pairs:

weak-strong; active-passive; ease loving-hard working; dull-sharp; productive-unproductive; stupid-promising; lenient-tough; emotionally alive-apathetic; cold-warm; encouraging-discouraging.

Scoring

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

Testing of Null Hypotheses

t-Test was applied to study the significance of difference between the mean scores of formal operationals and nonformal operationals on self-perception and environmental perception. The level of significance for rejection / accordance was placed at. 0.05 level.

Statistical Analysis of Hypotheses H_o 1; H_o 2; H_o 3

It should be pointed out that the higher means on perception represent more positive perception. Lower means indicate less positive image.

Formal operationals are those who have passed both the cognitive tasks and secured scores between 28-43. Nonformal operational are those who have passed either of the two tasks and scored between 0-27 (this criterion was developed by Munawar Mirza (1975).

The means and SD of family perception, school perception and the total of the two which is environmental perception are given in Table 1 for formal operationals and nonformal operationals. It also includes the *t* values and probability. One tailed test was used.

Table1: Mean scores of formal operational and nonformal operational on family perception, school perception and environmental perception.

$$H_O = M_A\text{-}M_B = O \qquad ; \qquad H_A = M_A\text{-}M_B \neq O$$

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

df   68: .01 = 2.65

df   68: .05 = 2.00

The means of the formal operational group and nonformal operational group family perception and the total of family and school perception i.e environmental perception are significantly different at .01 level, whereas the mean of the formal operational group on school perception is significantly different at .05 level from nonformal operational group. Therefore first three null hypotheses stand rejected. We can affirm that the formal operationals seem to possess better perception of the environment constituted by two elements namely their schools and families, than the nonformal operationals. The affective level of formal operationals is significantly different and higher than those of nonformal operationals.

Analysis of hypotheses H_o 4; H_o 5

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

Table2: Mean scores of formal operational and nonformal operational on evaluative and activity potency factors of family perception.

Variable	Formal Operational N = 43		Nonformal Operational N = 27		SEM	t	p
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD			
H_o-4 Evaluative	61.44	4.75	56.15	5.59	1.30	4.07	< .01
H_o-5 Activity Potency	43.30	5.17	42.67	5.34	1.30	.48	ns
Total	104.74	6.46	98.81	6.49	1.59	3.73	< .01

df 68: .01 = 2.65

df 68: .05 = 2.00

The means of the formal operational group are higher on evaluative and activity potency factors of family perception than those of the nonformal group.

The means of evaluative factor of family perception and combined evaluative and activity potency factors of the formal operational group and nonformal operational group are significantly different at .01 level; whereas the mean of activity potency factor of family perception of the formal operational group is not significantly different from that of the nonformal operational group. Therefore it is evident that null hypothesis No 5 stands rejected and it is reasonable to assert that formal operationals perceive the evaluative factor of their family environment higher than the non formal operationals and are more affectively attached with families and null hypothesis no 4 stands rejected. This highlights the significant value of the evaluative factor in family perception of formal operationals and the non- formal operationials. They differ in their overall perception of family environment only on account of the evaluative factor of their perception of family environment. Why the two groups held almost identical perceptions about the impact of activity potency factor of family environment needs an explanation. One

conjecture might be that both the groups hailed from homogeneous families of middle class government servants who kept tight control over household life. This hypothesis needs looking into, through an ethnographic research.

Analysis of hypotheses H_0-6; H_0-7

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

Table 3: Mean scores of formal operational and nonformal operational on evaluative and activity potency factors of school perception.

Variable	Formal Operational N = 43		Nonformal Operational N = 27		SEM	t	p
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD			
H_0-6 Evaluative	51.63	11.37	47.70	13.45	3.11	1.26	ns
H_0-7 Activity Potency	45.25	4.61	42.11	5.81	1.32	2.38	<.01
Total	96.70	13.41	89.89	14.08	3.39	2.00	< .05

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

The means of the formal operational group on evaluative and activity potency factors of school perception and the total of the two are higher than those of the nonformal group.

The mean of activity potency factor of school perception of the formal operational group is significantly different at .01 level from that of the nonformal operational group. The mean of combined evaluative and activity potency factors of school perception is significantly different at .05 level from that of nonformal operational group. Therefore it is evident that the overall school perception of formal operationals is different and higher

than that of the nonformal operationals but they do not show significantly different affectivity with school. The probable reason of it may be their identical perception of belongingness to school, a feeling of attachment and identity as students of school. Null hypothesis No 7 stands accepted but hypothesis No 6 stands rejected.

Analysis of H_o 8; H_o 9

In Table 4 are given the means and SD of "real me" "Ideal me" and the discrepant scores between the two for formal operationals. It also includes the values and probability. One tailed test was used.

Table 4: Mean scores of formal operational and nonformal operational on "real me", "ideal me" and discrepant score.

Variable	Formal Operational N = 43		Nonformal Operational N = 27		SEM	t	p
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD			
H_o-8 real me	110.95	8.65	101.96	9.15	2.2	4.09	<.01
ideal me	118.28	8.02	106.55	8.71	2.08	5.64	<.01
H_o-9 discrepant score	19.09	10.13	27.59	13.44	3.01	2.82	< .01

df 68: .01 = 2.65

df 68: .05 = 2.00

The means of the formal operational group on "real me" and "ideal me" are significantly different from those of the nonformal operational group.

The mean of the formal operational group on discrepant scores between "real me" and "ideal me" is significantly lower than that of the nonformal operational group. The null hypotheses No 8 and 9 are therefore rejected and it can be affirmed that the total self perception of formal operationals and nonformal operationals is significantly different and commensurate with their development in the cognitive domain. Their cognitive and

affective domains are at commensurate development levels: the higher the cognitive level, the higher the affective level and the lower the cognitive level, the lower the affective level. The formal operationals show less gap between the "real and ideal me" and nonformal operationals show a big gap between "the real and the ideal me" perception. Their self image is also different at evaluative and potency activity levels of their self perception of the "real and ideal me". William James (1892) put forth his theory of discrepancy between the "real and ideal me". He stated: "My self worth is a direct function of the difference between what I would like to be and what I think I am. The closer my actual self (I perceive myself) is to my ideal self (the way I would like to be) the more I will like myself ". The present finding is in line with his theory of discrepancy.

Analysis of H_0 10; H_0 11

In Table 5 are given the means and SD of evaluative and activity potency factors of "real me" perception of formal operationals and nonformal operationals. It also includes the t values and probability. One tailed test was used.

Table 5: Mean scores of formal operational and nonformal operational on evaluate and activity potency factors of "real me" perception.

Variable	Formal Operational N = 43		Nonformal Operational N = 27		SEM	t	p
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD			
H_0 10 Evaluative	60.28	4.73	55.26	6.56	1.45	3.46	<.01
H_0 11 Activity Potency	50.86	5.99	46.70	6.71	1.58	2.63	<.01
Total	110.95	8.65	101.96	9.32	2.23	4.03	<.01

df 68: .01 = 2.65

df 68: .05 = 2.00

The means of the formal operational group on evaluative and activity potency factor of "real me" and "real me" perception are significantly higher than those of nonformal operational group.

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

Analysis of H_0 12; H_0 13; $H_0 14$

In Table 6 are given the means and SD of evaluative and activity potency factors of "ideal me" for formal operationals and nonformal operationals. It also includes t values and probability. One tailed test was used.

Table 6: Mean scores of formal operational and nonformal operational on evaluative and activity potency factors of "ideal me"

Variable	Formal Operational N = 43		Nonformal Operational N = 27		SEM	t	p
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD			
H_0 12 Evaluative	64.84	4.12	58.63	6.66	1.43	4.62	<.01
H_0 13 Activity Potency	53.44	5.83	47.93	4.49	1.24	4.44	<.01
H_0 14 Total	118.28	8.02	106.55	8.87	2.1	5.59	<.01

df 68: .01 = 2.65

df 68: .05 = 2.00

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

Conclusion

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

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

Recommendations for Further Research

1. Longitudinal studies from age 15 to 20 years may be undertaken to gain more insight into the relationship of cognitive and affective domains.

2. Studies should be replicated on female samples of different age groups and undertaken on the suggested cognitive affective interaction model.

3. The elements of affective domain may be enlarged by including views of 'significant other' like mother and father about the individual.

4. The elements of affective domain may also be enlarged by including peer relations.

5. Groups from rural areas may be included to see whether rural-urban differences exist within the cognitive affective framework.

6. Further research may be conducted to see why the nonformal operationals seem to be more favourably conscious of the dynamic aspect of their school environment than the formal operationals.

7. Further research may be conducted to see why the formal operational seem to be more favourably responsive to the appreciative aspects of the residential and non-residential students.

8. Residential institutions be taken to see whether differences exist between school perception of residential and non-residential students.

Recommendations for the Teacher

The present study indicates that formal operational students possess less gap in discrepant scores between "real me" and "ideal me" perception and that nonformal operational students have a wide gap between real me perception and ideal me perception. In the light of this finding it is suggested that:

a. The teacher should try to narrow down the wide discrepancy between the 'real me - ideal me' perception by assigning easy tasks to students to build up their self esteem. Students would realize that they can do in the present whatever is expected of them in the future. Teachers can do this by matching the tasks with the capacities of the children.

b. The teacher needs to make the school environment work-oriented demanding action and stressing the dynamic aspect of the school environment. At the same time love for the institution and its activities needs to be developed. The students should identify themselves with their school through feelings of mutual respect and confidence.

c. The teachers should not lower the self-esteem of children by their practice of nagging, nick-naming, ridiculing, sarcasm or faultfinding.

Recommendations for Parents

1. The basic psychological need of children is security, belongingness and emotional adjustment within the family. The parents should pay special attention to the child's feeling of acceptance of the home environment.

2. The parents should not unnecessarily pester the children by their practices of nagging, idle remarks on their sense of duty and purpose, censure of minor mistakes and indifference, because these practices tend to lower the self esteem of the children.

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Classroom Management Technique

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ABSTRACT

When I look back at my teaching career, I am still surprised at how I got through the initial few months. I had to rely on my own experience of how I had been taught at school and college level. The teaching aspect was not as difficult as managing the class. I had a few role models in mind, the teachers I had admired during my student days. I tried to follow those who were strong disciplinarians and were very strict. This had its advantages and disadvantages. That was then, times have changed now. Classroom management has taken on new dimensions, with the emergence of new teaching theories.

As a teacher trainer the questions, which I often face, are about classroom management. Beginning teachers report that the most difficult aspect of their teaching is classroom management. They feel insecure about managing their first classrooms, and often spend sleepless nights worrying about this issue.

This is not a strange phenomenon. Such anxieties are felt by all people no matter what field they are in, when they assume a position of leadership and get an opportunity to exert influence for the first

time. The only difference is that in certain services they go through pre-service training. Teaching is one such profession into which one can go without any training. One has hardly finished one's studies when one is inducted into the teaching profession. What else can one expect from these raw beginner teachers but anxiety and recurring nightmares about how they are to handle the class? The question in their mind is, how firm lax or friendly should they be.

In order to lessen their nervousness, a repertoire of basic classroom management understandings and skills will be of help in reducing the anxiety that naturally accompanies one's first classroom assignment. In this paper an attempt will be made to show that effective classroom management exists within the context of democratic learning communities.

1.1   Perspective on Classroom Management

It goes without saying that effective management is connected with the teachers' ability, knowledge about her subject, level of preparation, organization of her lesson, focus and direction. That is, to have effective instructional strategies, and be able to make lessons interesting for their students. As can be seen from this preamble, there is more than one perspective on effective classroom management.

Keeping in mind some observations made by my trainee teachers, an attempt will be made to give multiple perspectives and approaches so that teachers can choose the approach, which best suits their system. Some schools, will have a very definite behavioural approach to classroom management; all teachers will be expected to follow those rules and procedures in their classrooms. Other schools will foster more humanistic child-centered approaches to classroom management.

Needless to say the most effective classroom managers are those who have strategies and approaches that can be used with students as particular situations dictate. Central to this issue is understanding the fact that the teacher's biggest job is to develop a democratic learning community where all students are valued, respect one another, and are motivated to work together. Equally important is the idea that good classroom management requires teachers who can create good rapport with their students and show them that they care. Besides there are two more factors that can provide insights into classroom management.

First, classroom management is the most important challenge that beginning teachers face. A new teacher's ability is ascertained by his/her colleagues, school authorities and students by how well he/she handles the class. That is by the managerial function of teaching,

especially creating an orderly learning environment and dealing with student behaviour.

The teaching community is well aware of the fact that Principals and Heads of Departments put too much stress on order as compared to learning. This attitude of the administration might appear unfair to the teachers. Nonetheless, it is a known fact that a teacher's leadership ability is tested in the areas of management and discipline, and if a teacher mishandles a situation in class, it becomes a matter of gossip more quickly than other aspects of teaching. Without adequate management, little else can occur. Dunkin and Biddle (1974) pointed this out over two decades ago when they wrote that management of the classroom forms a necessary condition for cognitive learning; and if the teacher cannot solve problems in this sphere, we can give the rest of teaching away[1] (p.135). Second, classroom management and instruction are highly interrelated. Classroom management is not an end in itself. It is an integral part of a teacher's overall leadership role. Classroom management cannot be separated from other things that teachers have to pay attention to e.g. plan carefully for lessons or allocate time to various learning activities. They do this to ensure good classroom management. In addition, all the strategies for building productive learning communities such as helping the classroom develop as a group, attending to student motivation, and facilitating honest and open discourse are also important components of classroom management. The teacher's choice of subject matter to be taught to the class places its own demands on how to manage the class e.g. the instructional tasks associated with giving a lecture will require different kind of behaviour from the students. Similarly, behavioural demand from students who are learning a new skill will be different. In the same way, students working at a group task need to be given different

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[1] Richard L. Arends Learning to Teach, P. 157

instructions from those working alone. Instructional tasks are integrally related to the problems of order and management.

It is a proven fact that teachers who plan appropriate classroom activities and tasks, with an eye on time management and who are well equipped with instructional strategies will be able to build a learning environment that secures student cooperation on learning tasks and will be faced with fewer discipline problems.

If children are treated in school humanely and respectfully students develop not only academically but also socially and emotionally.

1.2   Theoretical Framework

As has been remarked earlier most teaching approaches are based on learning theories. Similarly three traditions have guided the theory and research on classroom management: reinforcement theory, ecological and group processes perspective, and child-centred views.

Reinforcement Theory

Reinforcement theory and behavioural theory eliminated thinking about motivation, in the early part of the twentieth century. In turn, it has had a strong influence on classroom management. Reinforcement theory emphasizes the centrality of external events in directing behaviour and the importance of positive and negative reinforces (Skinner, - 1956). Teachers who follow behavioural principles to classroom management apply the carrot and stick policy, using reward in the forms of grades, praise or privileges to reinforce desired behaviour and punishments such as bad grades or reprimands to discourage undesirable behaviour. Behavioural approaches often emphasize how to control behaviour of individual

students as compared to considering the classroom group and overall learning situation.

This approach has mainly been led by clinical and counselling psychologists such as Dreikurs and Grey (1968) and behavioural psychologists such as Canter and Canter (1976-1997). They have focused on such psychological causes such as insecurity, need for attention, anxiety and lack of self-discipline as well as on sociological causes such as parents overprotection, bad peer relationship or disadvantaged backgrounds. Recommenda-tions to teachers, as an outcome of this research, emphasize ways to help individual students through counselling or behaviour modification and show less concern for managing the classroom group. Although many of the behavioural-oriented programmes have shortcomings, yet beginning teachers should be knowledgeable about them.

1.3   Classroom Ecology and Group Processes

The ecological perspective addresses directly the problem of classroom control and group management procedures. It is the outcome of such researchers work as Baiker (1968), Doyle (1979, 1986), Gump (1967) and Kounin (1970).

Researchers in the ecology and group process tradition are interested in how student cooperation and involvement are achieved in group settings. The major function of the teacher, is to plan and orchestrate well conceived group activities that flow smoothly. Misbehaviour of students is conceived as actions that disrupt the flow of activities. Misbehaviour on the part of a student can be talking when he/she is required to pay attention and silence is demanded, or movement in the classroom when he/she is required to remain in his/her seat and complete an assignment.

Teacher's intervention in regard to student misbehaviour should be quick, often minor, and aimed at

keeping the flow of learning activities and tasks on the right track.

Hence it can be said that good classroom managers actually prevent problems from occurring through the way they plan for and time their lessons and the means they use to nip misbehaviour.

1.4 Preparing for Effective Classroom Management

Many problems associated with students' misbehavior can be dealt with by teachers, provided they are familiar with preventive approaches. In the classroom, a large number of problems can be prevented by planning rules and procedures beforehand classroom rules specify what students are expected to do and what they are not to do. These rules are seldom written down, but effective classroom managers spend considerable time teaching procedures to students in the same way they teach academic matter. Student movement, student talk and what to do with downtime are the most important activities that require laid-down rules in order to govern student behaviour, so that work can be done efficiently.

We as teachers at times tend to overlook these aspects of classroom management, focusing all our attention towards academic matters. Student movement, student talk and downtime might appear to some teachers as aspects of classroom procedures which the students should be familiar with, and thus specifying them for the students, a deviation from their lesson plan. However, explaining to students what is excepted from them while performing routine tasks and coordinating student talk and movement, will help in managing a class better.

Effective classroom managers devise ways by which needed movement by students can flow smoothly. They organize queuing and distribution procedures that minimize disruptions. Examples of rules include limiting the number of student moving at any one time and

specifying when to be seated. How to line up, move in the halls, and go unattended to the library are procedures that assist with student movement.

Another factor that trainee teachers find hard to control is "student talk". Students have a tendency to talk at inappropriate times, or ask questions, which can slow down the pace of the lesson. This problem ranges from a loud, generalized clamor, to an individual student talking to a neighbour, when the teacher is explaining an important point. Effective classroom managers have a clear set of rules to avoid this situation: most teachers explain before an activity when no talking is allowed, for example when a teacher is delivering a lecture or explaining an idea, the teacher can instruct the students not to talk. In the same way, the teacher can encourage low talk during small group work or pair work. Other procedures that can make classroom discourse more satisfying and productive are to instruct the students to take turns during a discussion, listen to other people's ideas, and take their turn by raising hands, etc.

The third area of interest to beginning and student teachers is how to manage downtime. Downtime occurs when lessons are completed early or when students are waiting for upcoming events, such as moving to another class. Good classroom managers formulate rules to direct student talk and movement during such times. Students can be instructed to read a book until the others finish the task assigned to them. Before showing the film they can be told that while they wait for the film to start they can talk softly to their neighbour, but cannot move around the room. They can also be told to help their neighbour with his/her task if they have completed their work.

Such procedures can reduce inappropriate behaviours, and thus help the teacher to manage his/her class more effectively.

1.5   Teaching Rules and Procedures

As with any other subject, rules and procedures must be taught to students. Otherwise they will be of no value if participants do not learn and accept them. Teachers mostly follow only a few rules and procedures, which they have carefully taught their class, and, through constant use, have become a routine.

Teachers from their own personal experience will be aware of the fact that only a few rules are needed. What is important, however, for the teacher is to make sure that students understand the purpose behind each rule and its practical underpinnings. For example, when it is explained that loud talk will disturb students in the neighbouring class who are still working, the students will try not to do so. However when teachers are explaining rules especially to adult students they should avoid sounding patronizing or overly moralistic.

No matter how carefully classroom rules have been drafted, for effective functioning, it is necessary that consistency is maintained in their implementation. We have all observed that if we are inconsistent in implementing rules that are laid down for the smooth functioning of our departments or homes for that matter, soon everyone will start disregarding them. This is a troublesome aspect of classroom management. It is difficult for beginning teachers to maintain consistency in applying rules for two reasons. One reason that too many events are going on simultaneously and a trainee teacher cannot always be totally aware of the complex classroom environment and therefore misses out on what is occurring. The second reason and perhaps the more valid one is that it requires personal courage to enforce rules. Many teachers find it easier to ignore some students' behaviour rather than confront them. What beginning teachers need to understand is that ignoring the situation is not the solution, it only leads

to more problems later. Consistent behaviour should also be adopted to get students complete the academic tasks assigned to them in time. Beside maintaining consistency in applying rules and procedures in the classroom, for the lessons to go on in a smooth fashion, teachers need to avoid doing things that interfere with the flow of activities. A teacher should not start an activity and then leave it in the middle. Neither should a teacher start an activity, then stop and start another one and again return to the original one, nor should the activity be broken into overly small units.

To summarize the main points on classroom management, it can be said that classroom management is not an end in itself, but a part of the overall role of a teacher as a leader, facilitator and guide. How the teacher manages his/her class and instructs her students are closely related as effective teaching can only take place in a conducive classroom atmosphere. Effective managers have well defined procedures that govern student behaviour. They develop systems for holding students accountable for their academic work and classroom behaviour.

They also adopt an attitude of flexibility about classroom management because they know that every classroom is different and procedures must be adjusted to particular circumstances.

Effective classroom management is only one aspect that a beginning teacher should be aware of. The other aspects closely related to being an effective teacher are how to present the course and what classroom techniques to employ, in order to meet student's needs.

1.6   The Interactive Aspects of Teaching

Presentations by the teacher consumes the major portion of classroom time. In the recent years some educators have argued that too much time is taken up by teacher talk, and over the years, efforts have been made at creating models which will decrease the time of teacher

talk and make learning more student-centred and interactive. Despite criticism, presentation or lecture maintains its popularity among teachers. Formal presentation of information remains the most popular model of teaching and the time given to it has remained more or less stable. This is not surprising, as the most widely held objectives for education at this point in time are those, which are related with the acquisition and retention of information. Presentation is closely associated with the evaluation system and since many exams that students take, test primarily information, this system still survives. Experienced teachers are familiar that exposition is an effective way of passing on information that society believes it is important for the students to know.

1.7   Presentation Teaching

The appropriate use of the presentation model is situational; that is, its use depends on the objectives the teacher is trying to achieve and the particular students in the class.

The presentation model being described in this part is sometimes called the advance organizer model.

This model requires a teacher to provide students with advance organizers before presenting new information and make special effort during and after a presentation to strengthen and extend student thinking. This model aims at accomplishing three learner outcomes; assimilation of new information, conceptual structures and developing in the students a habit of listening and thinking.

> Richard says[2]: "This approach was chosen for two reasons. One, the approach is compatible with current knowledge from cognitive psychology about the way in which individuals acquire process and retain now information. Two, various components of

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[2] Richard L. Arends <u>Learning to Teach</u>, McGraw Hill, 2000

the model have been carefully studied over the past thirty years, thus giving the model a substantial, if not always consistent, knowledge base."

Presentation is a teacher centred model in which the lesson proceeds from the teacher's initial attempt to classify the aims of the lesson, and to prepare the students to learn through such pointers which build a base for the students to receive new information, to the end of the lesson with interactions which are directed at checking the students understanding of the new information and developing their thinking skills. He further states that while using the presentation model the teacher strives to structure the learning environment tightly. But for the final phase it is the teacher who is an active presenter and the students are active listeners. This model requires a physical learning environment that is conducive to presenting and listening, including appropriate facilities for use of multimedia technology.

This model enjoys theoretical and empirical support on three complementary sets of ideas:

(1)   The concepts of structure of knowledge

(2)   The psychology of meaningful verbal learning and

(3)   Ideas from cognitive psychology on how the human memory system works and how knowledge is represented and acquired.

1.8   Structure of knowledge

Knowledge of the world has been organized around various subject areas called disciplines. Disciplines dictate the resources on which teachers draw while making decisions about what knowledge should be taught to students. These disciplines are not just encyclopaedic collections of facts to be memorized but rather they are an active effort to make sense out of some portion of the world or of life (Ford and Pugno, 1964, p.u)

The implications of structuring of knowledge are that key ideas supporting each discipline should be taught to students instead of bits of information. In short it is the total concept attached to a discipline that is significant and important e.g. it is not enough that a student should know what linguistics is but also have an idea of the sub ideas attached to this discipline.

1.9 Meaningful verbal learning

David Ausubel (1968) an educational psychologist has given the concept of meaningful learning in general and meaningful verbal learning in particular. Meaningful learning is learning that is understood by the students and that he can relate to his previous knowledge. Ausubel states that "providing guidance to the learner in the form of verbal explanation of the underlying principles almost invariably facilitates learning and retention and sometimes transfer as well".

Ausubel was particularly interested in the way knowledge is organized hierarchically and how the human mind organizes ideas. He was of the opinion that at any point in time a learner has an existing "organization.... and clarity of knowledge in a particular subject. He called this ability "cognitive structure". It is this structure that determines a learner's ability to deal with new ideas and relationship. Hence meaning can emerge only when one builds on existing knowledge and connects new ideas and relationships with prior learning. The principal function of pedagogy according to Ausubel (1963) is:

> The act and science of presenting ideas and information meaningfully and effectively so that clear, stable and unambiguous meanings emerge and .... [are] retained over a long period of time as an organized body of knowledge". (p.81)

For meaningful learning to take place Ausubel advocates the strategy of advance organizers, such

organisers provide a device to help learners link new information to prior knowledge. It is the job of advance organizers to describe in detail, clearly, precisely and explicitly the similarities and differences in the ideas in the new learning and the existing related concepts in the new learning.

1.10 Cognitive Psychology of Learning.

Cognitive psychologists focus on three types of knowledge based on learning theories; Declarative knowledge, Procedural knowledge and Conditional knowledge.

Declarative knowledge is knowing about something, e.g. rules of a game, on the other hand procedural knowledge is knowing how to do something e.g. using a word processing programme. Conditional knowledge is knowing when and why to use particular declarative or procedural knowledge e.g. when to dribble, or when to highlight. Knowledge can also be classified according to levels of complexity.

At the elementary level it is straightforward factual information, that is simply declarative knowledge that one acquires, but may not use. Memorizing the rules of grammar is one such example of factual knowledge. At the higher levels of knowledge, it requires using knowledge in some way for example the application of rules of grammar in writing tasks or for linguistic analysis etc. Teachers are required to give their students all three kinds of knowledge. Their students should acquire large bodies of basic declarative knowledge; they also want them to be aware of important procedural and conditional knowledge. A combination of these three types of knowledge will lead to doing things effectively.

1.11   Processing of information

New ideas and information enter the mind through one of the senses for example sight or hearing. They are noted by the learners working or short term memory. Short term memory is the place in the mind where conscious mental work is done. Information in short term memory may soon be forgotten unless it is stored more deeply in long term memory.

Arends states that (2000)

"Long term memory is the place in the mind where information is stored ready for retrieval when needed. He explains that information must first be coded before it can be stored. Even if it has been stored for a life time it cannot be retreaved unless given some hints". (p.239)

Cognitive psychologists also explain how information is stored and how it is retrieved. The term used by them for the way information is organized and stored in the memory is "scheme". It can be defined as the way people organize information about particular subjects and how this organization influences their processing of new information and ideas. Individual differences can be observed in this. Prior knowledge about various topics helps the learner to gather new information and to connect it with his previous knowledge. The more sound a person's prior knowledge and scheme are for a special topic, the easier it is for him to process new information and to link more abstract relationships. Even though there is a difference of opinion between cognitive psychologists as regards how knowledge is organized in the memory system. Nevertheless they do agree that prior knowledge does help in filtering new information and hence determines how well new information will be received and integrated by a learner.

Teaching principles which grow out of ideas from cognitive psychology are important for teachers in three ways;

a. Sequencing learning materials in an orderly manner in a skilful way.

b. Guiding students with advance organizers, which will help them integrate new learning.

c. Giving them clues to draw out information from their long term memory to their working memories.

Knowledge based on presenting information to learners on the basis of prior knowledge is more meaningful and students can retain it better. A technical term used for such a teaching procedure is called "induction or establishing set". This technique prepares students to learn and establish a communicative link between the learners and the information about to be presented by establishing a set, teacher helps students retrieve appropriate information from long term memory and get ready to use that information as new information and skills are taught.

1.12 Advance organizers

These are more or less are similar to induction as they too help in making information more meaningful to students by relating prior knowledge to new information.

Ausubel saw the relevance of these advance organizers in meaningful learning. These organizers consist of statements made by teachers before the actual presentation of the learning materials. Through them teachers can link the student's prior knowledge to the information which is to be imparted. Since Ausubel first published his results in (1960) other researchers have found individual differences in study habits, the findings of other researchers also support his theory that the advance

organizers can be used as an effective tool when presenting new information to students.

Teachers will need to go back in time to appreciate the validity of the fact, a plus point for any teacher is the style of her presentation. Clarity plays an important part, as it determines how much her students will learn. The variables that play an important role in "teacher clarity" are verbal fluency, amount of information presented, knowledge structure cues, maintaining interest as opposed to vageness.

For trainee teachers it is vital to know that lack of clarity in a presentation indicates that the speaker does not have the required information or does not have the ability to transfer it to the students or has forgotten the key points. What can a teacher do to avoid such a situation. The most obvious is to prepare well for the lesson to be presented in class that is to make sure that the content is fully comprehended and the key points are committed to memory. Check out a lesson plan and follow the written notes carefully. This might appear time consuming initially but in the long run it pays and saves the teacher from embarrassment in the class. Besides it boosts the teacher's confidence. It has been proved beyond doubt that "teacher clarity" has an impact on student achievement.

Another variable which influences presentations is the teacher's enthusiasm. If the teacher seems to be enjoying what she is teaching, the class catches on this spirit, and this in turn leads to meaningful learning.

Arends (2000) in learning to teach (p.252) gives the following aspects of class presentations.

1. Be clear about aims and main points.

   a) State the goals of the presentation

   b) Focus on one main point at a time.

   c) Avoid digressions.

    d) Avoid ambiguous phrases.

2. Go through your presentation step by step

    a) Present materials in small steps.

    b) Present Students with an outline when material is complex.

3. Be specific and provide several examples.

    a) Give detailed explanations for difficult points.

    b) Provide students with concrete and varied examples.

    c) Model or illustrate the idea whenever possible, and remember a picture is worth a thousand

4. Check for students understanding

    a) Make sure students understand one point before moving on to the next.

    b) Ask questions to monitor students comprehension.

    c) Ask questions to summarize or paraphrase main points in their own words.

    d) Reteach whenever students appear confused.

1.13 Assessment and Evaluation:

After having instructed the students the next step is to see, how well they have comprehended the ideas presented. Students learn what is expected of them, therefore it is important to test for major ideas. If testing is limited to testing the students' memory, they will cram the text. If their concept about particular ideas is tested, they will learn to do that.

It is important for the teacher to instruct the students as regards what they will be tested on.

1.14   Importance of Assessment and Evaluation:

The Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary (1997) defines assessment as carefully considered opinion or judgement. However in the backdrop of the teaching/learning situation assessment is related to the full range of information gathered by teachers about their students and their classrooms. Information about the students can be gathered in formal and informal ways. Informally the teacher can obtain information about a student through observation and verbal exchange. Formally information about the student can be gathered through homework, tests and written reports.

Evaluation in this perspective refers to the process of making judgements, assigning value, or deciding on the worth of a particular program or approach or of a students' work. For example a test is an assessment technique to collect information about how much a student knows about a particular subject and assigning a grade is evaluating that test. Through this act the teacher places a value on the information which was gathered through the test.

1.15   Evaluation is of two types:

Formative evaluation, which is collected before or during instruction. In this, information about students prior knowledge is collected. Information collected is used to assist the teachers' decision making, in student grouping, unit and lesson plans and to devise strategies about how to impart instructions.

Summative evaluation, which is collected after instruction and is related to information about student or teachers performance. This helps in making judgements

about students or teachers accomplishments. Information obtained from summative evaluations is used by teachers to determine grades and to explain the reports sent to students and their parents.

Assessment information should have two qualities, that of reliability and validity. A test has reliability if it produces consistent results over several administrations. A reliable test, thus, is one that measures a students' ability on some topic or trait consistently overtime. Such a test gives teachers accurate and dependable results. A test is said to be valid when it measures what it claims to be measuring.

If a test claims to be measuring students' attitude, towards English and ends up by measuring their attitudes towards the English teacher it is said to be invalid. The results of such a test will have no relevance for the teacher in decision making.

1.16   Effects of Grades on students:

Human nature is the same all over the word. It is not only in Pakistan that students' ultimate goal is to get a good grade. Knowledge is not pursued for enrichment of personality, but to get paper degrees. A person's worth is measured by the grades he gets. In this type of educational environment it is obvious that grades can be used as a tool to motivate students to work towards achieving their goals. An assignment which is not graded will not motivate students. If home assignments do not form a part of the assessment scheme students will take them lightly. It has been my personal experience that if I tell students that their class performance will be evaluated and a certain percentage will be included in their end-term results, it acts as a positive incentive. However here I would like to caution the trainee teachers, grades can be strong incentive yet other factors besides grades can affect performance. One major factor is how interesting or intrinsically motivating the assignment is in the first place. It is not

always that extrinsic rewards act as a motivating factor. If the assignment is interesting students will work at it, even if no rewards are promised. Personality factors also play an important role in how grades are perceived by the student himself. Students who value education and are aware of the importance of good grades in the job market, will try hard to perform well and secure good grades and a position in class.

Some students attribute their success or failure to their own hard work or lack of it, others attribute it to luck. The grade and what it means will obviously be interpreted differently by each type of student. Students "self concept" that is their self image, is another factor at how he looks at grades. Students who have a history of receiving high grades, develop a positive view of themselves and will continue to work hard to maintain their position. On the other hand students who have histories of low grades see themselves as failures and another low grade only confirms this perception. Students' attitude towards grades is also influenced by the status parents and close friends attach to grades.

Experienced teachers often complain that students are more concerned about their grades than self actualization and grooming of their personality through education. However it is not entirely their fault, teachers and parents are also responsible for developing this attitude towards grades. Grades are important but not at the cost of their overall development.

1.17 Effect of Testing

Testing is a widespread form of assessing progress. It is generally believed that if test scores are high, the institution and its teacher are effective. In a number of schools and colleges this is true. However, for a variety of reasons the effects of tests may not always be as positive as some would believe. One reason is that in our examination

system only a small range of abilities is tested. The stress is on memory testing especially in open ended questions. The portion which tests the concept is only 25% of the whole paper. Students who posses artistic, interpersonal abilities are at a disadvantage as their abilities are not measured properly in the present system.

In assessment and grading another important factor deals with the teacher's attitudes towards students. It is extremely important for a teacher to be perceived as fair and impartial when judging students' work and assigning grades. The fear in essay type questions is that the teacher will be influenced by numerous subjective factors, such as the students' hand writing, and whether or not the opinions expressed agree with those of the teacher and the expectations teacher has from a particular student's work. Regardless of the approach a teacher chooses to use in assigning grades, exact procedure should be written down and communicated clearly to students and parents. This is one way of helping students accomplish the work which is expected of them and is also a means of getting students to see the fairness of the grading system.

Another major component of classroom management is presentation. Trainee teachers can be asked to recall the lectures they heard in their student life. They will be able to conjure up some which were very stimulating urging them to gather more information about that topic. Others might have been so boring through which they must have been hard pressed to keep aware. Some might have been very humorous yet they did not learn much from them.

This leads us to the questions: what characteristics did the best lecture possess? What did their teacher do to develop the best lectures? And what the others did not do that produced poor lectures. The answer to these questions will be found in the ongoing argument. Despite criticism presentation or lecture maintains its popularity among

teachers. Presentations or lectures comprise one-sixth to one-fourth of all classroom time. The amount of time devoted to explanation increases at the higher-grade. It is because of this that some educators have criticised that too much time is taken up by the teachers talking. In the recent past considerable effort has been put into models which aim at making the instruction more student centered. Nonetheless formal presentation of information has not changed and the time devoted to the lecture system has remained stable over time. This is not surprising, since the basic objective for education is associated with the acquisition and retention of information. School curricula is structured towards gathering information about science, mathematics, English and social studies. As a result, the tests and text books also cater to these needs. Exams are also structured around testing information.

It is important for a beginning teacher to know the appropriate use of the presentation model which varies depending on teacher objectives and the particular students in the class.

A teaching model has three features:

a. The type of learning outcomes it produces.

b. Its syntax or overall flow of instructional activities.

c. Its learning environment.

This model is an adaptation of what is sometimes called the advance organizer model. The teacher is required to provide students with advance organizers before presenting new information and to make special efforts during and after the presentation to strengthen students' thinking. The reason for preferring this approach was that it is compatible with current knowledge from cognitive psychology about the way individuals acquire, process and retain new information. The model has been studied over the past thirty years, thus giving it a substantial knowledge base.

The objectives of the presentation model are simple and clear: to help students acquire, assimilate and retain new information, expand their conceptual structures and develop particular habits of thinking about information.

Presentation is a teacher centered model. It focuses on four major phases. The presentation begins with the teacher's initial attempt to clarify the aims of the lesson and to prepare students through advance organizers to gather new information through interactions aimed at checking students understanding of the information received and strengthening it by reinforcement and development of their thinking skills. In this model the teacher tries to structure the learning environment tightly. However in the final stage of the presentation the teacher is an active presenter and expects the students to be active listeners. The theoretical and empirical support which this model has received is from three ideas which are interlinked. They include the concept of structure of knowledge, the psychology of meaningful verbal learning and ideas from Cognitive Psychology on how the human memory system works and how knowledge is presented and acquired.

It is important for trainee teachers to understand these topics as they form the basis on which teacher organizes how to present information to their students.

1.18　How knowledge is structured and organized.

Knowledge of the world has been organized around various subject areas called disciplines, for example biology organizes information and ideas about living things and physics deals with things related to the physical world.

The disciplines constitute the resources on which most teachers and curriculum developers draw in making decisions about what knowledge should be taught to students.

During the 1950s, several scholars and curriculum theorists started to study how disciplines were organized and what that organization meant to instruction. The inquiry produced the idea that each discipline has a structure consisting of key concepts that define the discipline.

The teaching implications of the structuring of knowledge are clear. The key ideas supporting each structure should be taught to students instead of lists of disparate facts or bits of information. Teacher should aim at giving the concept to the learners rather than a collection of bits and pieces of unrelated information about the topic.

Just as teachers instruct students to follow a pattern in paragraph writing or essay writing and develop their ideas in a logical manner in the same way in their presentation there should be a logical progression of ideas which facilitates learning.

To conclude, the writer would like to point out that effective classroom management is an amalgam of all the aforementioned aspects and steps. If trainee teachers are trained to take care of these steps they would be good managers and hence good teachers.

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Assessment of Secondary School Curriculum in Pakistan

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ABSTRACT

This study was conducted to assess the Secondary School Curriculum in Pakistan and to evaluate the efforts made in this direction up to 1998. The main purpose of the study was to evaluate the curricula of class VI to X, to investigate the weaknesses of these curricula and to develop a set of recommendations for the post 1998 period. In this way the findings of this study provided a base for Education Policy 1998-2010, through the Unesco office in Islamabad. Curriculum experts at national level were contacted for data collection through structured interview schedules and the data thus collected were analysed in order to arrive at the findings of the study and to develop concrete research studies in the curricula of Science and Mathematics for classes IX and X in Pakistan.

Introduction

Secondary education is the backbone of an education system. It has been a subject of deep concern throughout. Reforms have been suggested time and again but only a few have been carried out. The tradition of 'literacy type' secondary school has been so strong among the masses as well as among the educators that resistance to change has frustrated the intention of nearly all reforms. The result is that in many important respects these secondary schools retain a number of unwelcome characteristics.

However, this stage in the educational ladder is universally recognized to be the most critical one in determining the effectiveness of a national system of education. It is the stage where most of the skilled manpower of a nation is trained, where the quality of future university students is to be determined and where character building and the qualities of leadership can best be developed. It comes at a time where the individual is in his/her adolescence, when the features of the future man, woman and citizen are beginning to appear and require encouragement in their development. The education and curriculum offered should provide for the development of all the individual talents and social values. These objectives can be pursued successfully only if the secondary school stage is given special attention with respect to the curriculum offered. It is with this background that there is a need to assess the secondary school curriculum in Pakistan.

The Statement Of The Problem

The study was to evaluate the curriculum of classes VI to X specially in the context of the historical background, objectives of education and content and to assess the system in such a way as to come up with the proposals for action research in the field of curriculum in secondary education in Pakistan.

Objectives Of The Study

I.   To evaluate the curriculum of classes VI to X with respect to:

    1. its objectives and objectives of education.

    2. content/subject matter.

    3. continuity with the previous cycle, that is, primary school education.

    4. its relationship with the professional training of the teachers.

    5. its distribution (that is, the distribution of curriculum booklets) among teachers and schools.

II.   To investigate the main problems in the curricula of secondary school education in Pakistan.

III.   To develop a strategy for the improvement of curricula

Signification Of The Study

Curriculum plays its role in raising the standards of education. If problem areas of curriculum are addressed properly, there is every possibility of developing a productive society and achieving self-sufficiency. It is hoped that the findings of this study will be of use in the desired direction.

Methods and Procedure of the Study

The procedure of the study aimed at the following phases:

I.   Document Analysis.

II.   Interviewing

III.   Data Analysis.

An effort was made to collect the information from the related literature that is both from the research studies in the field and articles produced by persons of prominence in this area. Government documents and reports by various agencies were also studied in order to arrive at weaknesses and bottlenecks in the curriculum.

II.   In the process of interviewing, two main types of interviews were conducted:-

a.   Interviewing the authorities of:-

i.   Curriculum Wing, Ministry of Education, Islamabad.

ii.   Teachers of selected schools in Rawalpindi and Islamabad.

b.   Interviewing the groups:-

i.   through a seminar of M Phil students of education.

ii.   through a seminar of teachers.

The data thus collected were analyzed and the findings were used to arrive at the conclusions and developing strategies for the improvement of curriculum.

Main Features of Curriculum in Secondary Education

Before going further in the discussion of the survey part of the study, it looks appropriate to mention in brief, the main features of the curriculum development at classes VI to X in Pakistan.

1.   The Curriculum Wing of the Ministry of Education initiates curriculum development from classes VI to X by convening different curriculum committees at national level. This process is done whenever the Government makes decisions to make curriculum changes on the basis of new policies in Education.

2. The aims of education are translated into the objectives of the courses and the course outlines are developed on the basis of the needs accessed and objectives classified into different domains. The course outlines are thoroughly discussed at various levels in the course committees consisting of subject experts, working teachers and authorities responsible for the curriculum development.

3. After due consideration the detailed course outlines are approved by the Ministry of Education and are forwarded to the provinces for the development of text books through their Text-Book Boards.

4. The Text-Book Boards select experts in the school subjects and assign the job of writing the textbooks within the framework of the approved course outlines.

5. On the preparation of the first draft, reviewers are assigned the job of going through the drafts and making necessary changes.

6. The task of printing the textbooks is given to private printers.

7. The distribution and sale of textbooks is also done through private booksellers.

8. Theoretically there is experimental launching of each text book and revision of text books takes place on the feedback received from the teachers and subject experts.

9. An effort is made to have a balance between the quality of the text book and the cost of the text book

10. Review and revision of the textbooks from classes VI to X is the liability of the Provincial Governments whereas the Federal Government proposes and modifies the course outlines through the Ministry of Education.

Survey Part Of The Study

This part of the report deals with data collected through the interviews of (a) the experts in curriculum (b) teachers and principals. For this purpose different interview schedules were prepared and interviews were conducted. The data were analyzed and the main findings are presented in this part of the report.

Main Findings

The following are the main findings of the interviews.

1. On the question of translating policies into objectives, it was noted that only the policies of 1972 to 1979 were approved by Government bodies and were properly implemented. One of these was "The New Education Policy, 1972-80" and the other was "The National Education Policy" of 1978-79.

Before these two policies, the Report of the Commission on National Education was the main government document, which set the pace for curriculum development. It was on the basis of this Report that the detailed work on curriculum development was made and subject-wise detailed objectives and contents of the secondary school courses were prepared and properly approved before the work on the development of text book could be taken up. The recommendations of the 1959 report were properly translated into the objectives of secondary education and the subject committees worked at national level before the detailed contents were proposed for the textbook writers under the supervision of the Text-Book Boards. This policy aimed at designing curricula keeping in view the changing social and economic needs compatible with the ideology of Pakistan and providing a shift from general education to purposeful agro-technical education.

A similar exercise was also made at national level for the implementation of the new Education Policy, 1972. Subject-wise committees were constituted for all the subjects offered at secondary school level i.e. for classes VI to XII and these committees worked from 1974 up to the end of late seventies. The objectives of policies were properly translated   into the objectives of the disciplines. Detailed and classified objectives of each school subject were laid down in the form of cognitive, psychomotor and affective objectives. Subject-wise booklets were prepared and widely circulated for the guidance of educationists, textbook writers, classroom teachers and general school managers. The textbooks for secondary education were also developed through the Text-Book Boards on the basis of these course outlines.

"The National Education Policy" 1979 emphasized the Islamization of the curricula and this objective was also translated into the curricula and all the text books of secondary school level were revised keeping in view this main objective of the Education Policy of 1979. This work continued in the eighties.

In this way the work of translating policies into the objectives of education and course contents continued during (i) sixties (ii) seventies and (iii) eighties on the basis of (a) the Report of the Commission on National Education 1959 (b) the Education Policy, 1972 and (c) the National Education Policy 1979 respectively. Sincere efforts were made in all these three cycles. The main difference between these efforts was that in 1960's the effort was to develop general objectives, in 1970 the effort was to classify the objectives on the basis of Bloom's Taxonomy and in 1980's the effort was to give an Islamic and religious touch to the objectives and contents of the curricula,

2.   In response to questions on the relationship of social needs of the curricula, it was revealed that the social needs were certainly kept in view while developing the curricula.

Emphasis was given on immediate and long-range needs of the society. The respondents pointed out some of the needs of the society i.e. development of moral values, character building, agro-technical bias of the society, improving literacy rate and such other needs. For the purpose of inculcating such values among students, there is need to emphasize the affective domain. Mostly, moral values are stated in the contents of the course but during the process of teaching, no special effort is made to develop these values. Teacher training should, therefore, be one of the main focuses of education.

3.   In the area of curriculum development it was observed that the Curriculum Wing had very little liaison with sister organizations like Provincial Bureaus of Education or CRDC. (Curriculum Research and Development Centre). No doubt that some formal meetings are held wherein the heads of departments participate but there is a lack of joint academic activities in curriculum development and there are almost no research studies conducted which can help in the process of the curriculum development. Ministry of Education needs to ensure the liaison and monitor the process of curriculum development at different stages.

4.   As a matter of principle, there should be continuous research on the curriculum and textbooks and the revision of courses should be made on the basis of the feedback from such research studies, but the existing state of affairs is not encouraging. Some courses are presented on experimental basis. For example it was pointed out that the integrated curriculum in primary education was launched on experimental basis and planned researches were conducted to judge the outcomes of this curriculum. The feedback was planned to be used for the revision of the curricula but such examples are very rare in the curriculum of secondary education. Some respondents from the Allama Iqbal Open University (AIOU) pointed out that in this

University, the Matric courses were continuously revised and amendments made on the basis of the feedback from students and tutors. For this purpose the Research and Evaluation Centre of the AIOU sends questionnaires to randomly selected students of the courses and to the tutors of these course. The responses are analyzed and recommendations and changes are duly incorporated in the next printing of the courses. Similar efforts need to be made in the revision of courses launched on experimental basis in classes VI to X.

5.   Academically it is believed that when some new textbooks are prepared, there is a need to have pilot testings, but practically this does not happen. In some foreign sponsored programmes, there are some pilot testings, but as a general practice it does not happen. However, in-service teacher training for the teachers does take place at limited levels when new concepts are introduced. For example, the concept of Set Theory was introduced in the secondary school curriculum in 1970's, and the teacher-training component was also introduced through the in-service teacher training institutions. Similar examples were quoted by the respondents in the Primary Education Project but again such examples are rare in the area of secondary education.

6.   As regards the involvement of teachers in the activities of curriculum development, experimental launching of the courses and conduct of researches for the feedback in the process of curriculum revision, some examples have been quoted by the experts interviewed. They have given examples of curriculum committees of 1970's wherein working teachers were members. They also quoted that in the conduct of research studies teachers are involved in one way or the other. But such involvements are limited to professional workshop participants. It is proposed that teachers may be involved in greater numbers so that they may own the process of curriculum

development and get training. Extensive involvement of working teachers in curriculum development and allied activities is recommended.

7.   Discussing the phenomenon of consistency in the policies of 1972, 1979 and 1992, it has been pointed out by some highly placed experts that the gradual development of concepts in curriculum is itself an example of this consistency. For example the existence of general objectives in the Curriculum Committee Report in 1960, the formulation of objectives of school curricula into cognitive, affective and   psychomotor domains in the curriculum development exercise in 1970's and the Islamization of curricula in 1980's are examples of the consistency of these policies.

8.   Two respondents from the experts stated that the policies have no consistency and they have been prepared on political basis. The biases of the ruling regimes were reflected   in   the   policy   documents.   The   previous experiences were not properly investigated. It was on the basis of the opinions of the members of the biasedly constituted committees that the decisions were made and the policies were written. It was proposed that a system of conducting research studies in the educational and research institutions of higher learning be made and the research findings should be so analysed as to provide feedback for the formulation of the coming policies.

9.   With respect to the development of textbooks, it was revealed that the implementation of the policies was not so weak, because the textbooks were essentially written as a result of the policy guidelines.

10.   Generally there is lack of coordination between different curriculum related institutions. There is immediate need   for   a   continuous   collaboration   between   these institutions and they should function in close liaison with one another. It is proposed that there should be frequent meetings between the heads/authorities of these institutions

as it will bring these intuitions close to each other and will help in the achievement of the national objectives of education.

11.   The respondents agree that the objectives of education provide a base for the determination of objectives of secondary education and the textbooks are clearly written keeping in view this principle. For example the following four main objectives of secondary education are mentioned in the Sharif Commissinon Report of 1959. These are the development of (a) a good worker, (b) a good citizen, (c) a good individual and (d) a good patriot and all these objectives of secondary education are in agreement with the general objectives of education in all the documents of education policies and reports. All the respondents agree that the philosophical, social, religious, economic and psychological foundations of this society are kept in view while developing the curricula. However, they mentioned that these aspects of curriculum development were taken care of after 1970's in a more effective way.

12.   On the question of the curriculum being obsolete, the teachers did not seem to agree. However they confessed that some of the concepts in the secondary school curriculum, especially that of the science textbooks, were out-dated and needed quick revision because of the knowledge explosion in every field of science.

13.   It has also been revealed that teachers in general do not bother about the use of proper methods of teaching in accordance with the content of the subject. The methods most commonly used by teachers is   (a) the lecture or (b) chalk and talk.

14.   The respondents have not pointed out any gaps between the curricula of primary and secondary schools. This shows that the concepts of the textbooks of secondary schools are based on those of primary school textbooks. Some discrepancies may be located academically but the teachers do not point out any discrepancy. Similarly there is

no discrepancy between the curricula of secondary schools and those of higher education stage.

15.   It is a general observation that the quality of textbooks is low both with respect to academic input and with respect to the quality of print and layout of the textbooks. In the field of academics, the books are not updated at regular intervals with respect to content. The interest of the learner is ignored and necessary details are not given in the textbooks. As regards the quality of print and layout, very cheap paper and low quality illustrations are used to bring down the cost of the books.

16.   The main suggestions given by the respondents for the improvement of the curriculum are as under

i.   The teacher training should be duly emphasized so that the teachers are aware of the objectives of education and have the mastery of both the content and pedagogy.

ii.   The textbooks be produced on self-learning style and have such exercises, activities, illustrations and questions that attract the attention of the students and provide them encouragement to study further.

iii.   Besides the prescribed textbooks, there should be suggested readings of the same content available in the library or in the open market.

iv.   Linkage of the objectives of evaluation with the objectives of curriculum and textbook be carefully viewed and ensured. This will help develop overall personality of the individual.

v.   Continuous research studies may be conducted by the CRDC, Bureau of Curriculum and other curriculum research agencies

a.   the improvement of course objectives

b.   improvement of content of the courses

    c.   improving the quality of the text-books with respect to academics and printing and

    d.   improving the system of printing and distribution of the textbooks.

    e.   improvement of all the textbooks of classes VI to X on the same pattern.

   vi. Research studies in the areas of Science and Mathematics for classes IX and X have been suggested by the respondents. There is, therefore, need to design such research studies, which help in the determination of drawbacks in Science and Mathematics curricula and help in the development of new textbooks for these classes.

Future Strategy

The following future strategy is proposed on the basis of responses of the interviewees:

1   For all the school subjects there is need to develop permanent national course committees consisting of subject specialists and working classroom teachers.

2   These committees need to analyse the situation, keeping in view the economic, social, psychological and ideological foundations of curriculum in Pakistan.

3   A thorough review of the existing curricula (subject-wise) needs to be made by these committees.

4   The objectives of these courses need to be seen and rewritten in behavioural terms.

5   Contents of courses need to be reviewed by the subject teachers and deletions and additions in the courses outlines be made by course teams.

6   In the textbooks "self-learning style of writing" may be adopted with the exercises, activities and self-assessment questions placed in the text.

7   The curriculum booklet must be provided to teachers so that they are fully aware of the objectives, content and proposed methods of teaching related with their subjects.

Recommendations For Coming Researchers In The Areas Of Curriculum Development

1   Research studies on a regular basis need to be conducted for the evaluation of the textbooks for classes VI to X. These evaluation studies are made on the basis of the responses/feedback from the students, teachers and experts in these subjects.

2   Research studies in the areas of Science and Mathematics for classes IX to X need to be designed in order to determine the drawbacks in these subjects so that the development of new textbooks may be made.

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The Effects of Semantic Context in the Naming of Related and Unrelated Objects and Faces

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ABSTRACT

This study is a partial replication of the Damian et al. (2001) blocking paradigm and Vitkovitch et al (in press) study, in an attempt to examine whether semantic context effects are different for object and face naming. Thus, predicting an interaction between stimulus type (faces or objects) and semantic context (heterogeneous vs homogeneous conditions). With reference to the Vitkovitch, et al. (in press) study it is predicted that face naming is not vulnerable to semantic competition in the same way that object naming is and homogenous faces will be named quicker compared to heterogeneous faces. While partially replicating the Damian et al (2001) study it is predicted that, naming latencies for objects will be longer in the homogenous condition than in the heterogeneous condition i.e. there will be an effect of semantic context. In this experiment line drawings of homogeneous objects (dog, lamb, and cow), heterogeneous objects (shirt, truck, and apple), homogenous faces belonging to the same occupational category (actors) and heterogeneous faces belonging to different occupational categories (politician, singer, and sportsman) were presented. Reaction time in identifying these categories was noted. The results showed a significant difference between object naming and face naming; the former

being quicker than the latter. This study showed that there was no significant effect of semantic context on object naming; thus not being consistent with the results produced by Damian et al (2001). In relation to face naming the results did not achieve significance, but showed a trend that face naming is not vulnerable to semantic competition in the same way that object naming is (Vitkovitch in press).

Introduction

In recent years a lot of research has been conducted on object and face naming tasks. The idea that semantic memory contains information within structures which are categorically organised is one that dates back to Aristotle (Baddeley 1991).The crux of this idea is that items within semantic memory are connected on the basis of common shared attributes. Activation of one category member spreads to another similar category member, thus facilitating response to those items. Several studies have demonstrated the presence of semantic priming effects in object processing (Barry et al, 1998; Humphrey et al, 1988; Huttenlocher & Kubicek, 1983). It has also been demonstrated that semantic similarities exert an interfering influence in many speech production tasks such as picture naming. The reason for this has been explained by certain theories of language production (Levelt et al 1988).It has been proposed that lexical access to a content word consists of two independent and serially ordered stages. The first stage which is semantically driven, so-called lemmas are retrieved, i.e., lexical items that are specified with respect to syntactic and semantic properties, but do not possess phonological characteristics. In the second stage, "lexemes", are retrieved. This implies that the access to a content word involves an early stage of exclusively semantic activation and a later stage of exclusively phonological activation.

Such models of language production distinguish between levels of presentation and the processes that operate on these representations. One of the basic assumptions in these models is the competitive selection of representations during lexical access (Roelofs, 1992; Starreveld & La Heij, 1995). Thus during speech, semantically related words become lexically activated and compete for selection with the word to be pronounced. When lexical concepts are co-activated so are their lemmas

and these lemmas compete for retrieval. Selecting the target lemma is therefore delayed since a related item is being simultaneously processed. This causes semantic interference and therefore a delayed response.

A number of studies have been conducted using the word- picture task in which a distractor word drawn from the same semantic category as the target word (e.g. target word "dog" distractor word "cat") was shown to inhibit the picture naming response more strongly as compared to an unrelated distractor word (e.g. target "dog" distractor "shirt") (Damian et al, 2001, Vitkovitch et al in press, Glaser 1994, Levelt et al, 1990, Starreveld & La Heij, 1995). This evidence suggests that retrieval of object names involves semantic competition. However the processes involved in face naming are somewhat different.

A comprehensive model of face recognition was proposed by Bruce and Young (1986). This was quite similar to that of object recognition and naming. They proposed that face recognition involved structural encoding, face recognition units, person identity nodes and name generation. However the more recent models of face recognition suggested that there is a difference between objects and face recognition. Valentine, Brennen and Bedart (1996) developed an information processing model that made explicit structural differences in the access to semantic memory and lexical representations between processing faces/names and processing objects. The differences in the structure of access to semantic memory for people and objects described by Valentine et al (1996) was based on an interactive activation and computation model of face processing developed by Bredart, Valentine, Calder and Gassi (1995) from an original model by Bruce, Burton & Johnston (1990). These models predicted that a purely categorical relationship between two items should be sufficient to produce priming in recognition of their faces or names. The rationale being that access to any

information about an individual is only possible via a single "person identity node" (PIN). Each representation of a person has only one PIN and it is the sole point of access between the perceptual system and the semantic system. This is unlike the arrangement of object related semantics (Valentine et al, 1996) which does not rely on a single node to connect perception to semantics and then to the lexical system. The PIN inturn is connected to a number of attributes about a person e.g. occupation, name, nationality etc. Such attributes are stored in the semantic information units (SIU). Units within each level of representation are linked to all other units of the same type. Therefore this model suggests that person identity nodes do not contain semantic information in particular they can have direct links to names without access to semantic information. (Bredart, Valentine & Calder & Gassi, 1995; Burton & Bruce 1992; Valentine et al 1998)

In other words, for recognizing objects there is a need to assign different stimuli to similar functional categories (e.g. dog, orange car). Rosch et al (1976, 1978) call these basic level categories and an empirical evidence points to their primacy in object recognition. Recognition at the basic level in face processing would be simply the presence of a face, whereas what is usually done is to discriminate among faces of people so as to identify specific individuals. There are some semantic properties such as age or sex that can be inferred by looking at a face but properties such as occupation can be relatively independent of appearance. Thus appearance and occupational category membership of faces show some form of independence. In contrast even unfamiliar objects can be sorted into categories e.g. animal or furniture their membership in functional categories can be inferred from their appearances.

Another point to consider is that every familiar face has a name associated to it. Thus one might see evidence of

direct retrieval of names for familiar faces. This kind of evidence seems lacking in object recognition where the retrieval of an object name seems to rely on the use of intervening semantic representations. (Nelson, 1977; Potter et al 1975; Warren & Morton, 1982).

Further support that object recognition and face recognition have different processing requirements came from the fact that difficulties in object recognition and difficulties in familiar face recognition are seen to be dissociable in patients with cerebral injuries (Blanc 1984, Hecaen 1981).

Therefore we can see that there is plenty of evidence to suggest that although faces might show the same visual properties as other objects but they are processed differently to objects.

The current study is a partial replication of the Damian et al (2001) blocking paradigm in objects, and Vitkovitch et al (in press) study for face naming .The purpose is to examine whether semantic effects are different for object and face naming. By using line drawing of homogeneous and heterogeneous objects and faces the prediction is to replicate the effect Damian et al (2001) found for objects i.e., naming latencies slower for homogeneous objects compared to heterogeneous objects. On the other hand, Vitkovitch et al (in press) found homogeneous faces of people belonging to the same occupational category were named quicker as compared to naming faces from different occupational categories. The rationale of this study being that the effect of semantic context is different for objects and faces and that there is an interaction between stimulus type (faces or objects) and semantic context (heterogeneous and homogeneous conditions).

Method:

Participants

A total of 20 male participants from the University of East London took part in the study. It was a requirement of the study that the participants were UK residents for the past 5 years so that they could easily recognize the stimuli. The minimum age of participants was 18 and the maximum was 40. The mean age was 28.6.

Design/ Stimuli

This was a two factor within participant design experiment. Factor 1 "stimulus" (faces and objects) and factor 2 "context" (homogenous and heterogeneous). The factors had two levels each homogenous and heterogeneous condition. The dependent variable was the time taken for the participants to name each condition, this was recorded in seconds. Objects and faces being the independent variable. The experiment was conducted in the University of East London psychology department. Each participant was shown a practice sheet.

While conducting the experiment for the object naming condition they were shown:

Homogenous objects (animals) i.e. dog, pig, lamb, donkey and cow.

Heterogeneous objects i.e. shirt, chair, apple, hammer, truck.

While for the face naming condition they were shown homogenous faces (actors) i.e. Antonio Banderas, Tom Cruise, Johnny Depp, Matthew McConaughey and Brad Pitt and heterogeneous faces (appendix 5) i.e. those belonging from different occupational categories were Albert Einstein, David Beckham, Jamey Oliver, Michel Jackson and Tony Blair.

Procedure

When the participants arrived they were told the reason behind the study which was to investigate the cognitive processes underlying object and face naming. Details of the hypothesis and prediction were not given. They were given a consent form in which it was clearly stated that they had the right to withdraw from the experiment at any stage and that their identity will remain confidential. Each participant was tested separately. Verbal instructions of the way in which the experiment would be conducted were given. They were told during the experiment that they will be shown four sheets of paper one at a time. On each sheet there will be either 5 different objects or faces which will be repeated five times on that sheet in a different sequence, on 25 pictures on each sheet. Sheet 1 homogenous objects; Sheet 2 heterogeneous objects. Sheet 3 homogenous faces, those belonging to the same occupational category i.e. actors. Sheet 4, heterogeneous faces i.e. belonging to different occupational categories. The participants were required to name all the stimuli on each sheet. They were asked to work across the rows while naming the stimuli. They were also told that they will be timed once they began naming the very first stimulus to the very last one on the sheet. The participants were asked to give the full name of the homogenous and heterogeneous faces shown to them. These instructions were given to each participant.

To make the process clearer to the participants each was given a practice round and asked to read out the numbers working across the rows. To make sure they identified all the stimuli in the experiment they were also shown each stimuli that was to be used in the experiment. This was done by pasting each object and face picture on separate post cards and the participant was asked to name them. To counter balance the order in which the participants completed the task 50% of the participants

were assigned the face naming task first and the object naming task later; while the other 50% were asked to name the objects first and the faces later.

Two experimenters conducted the experiment. One experimenter used a stopwatch to measure the time it took the participant to go through each homogeneous heterogeneous face/object condition. They were timed from the moment they named the first object/face till the last one on the sheet.

The other experimenter noted down the errors committed. A wrong response was treated as an error.

Once the experiment was completed each participant was thanked for his or her participation.

Results

The data was analysed with a two factor within participants' ANOVA. There was a main effect of the stimulus factor $F (1, 19) = 38.08$, $p = <0.001$ (marginal means for objects = 27.63, marginal mean for faces = 50.1). Faces were overall named significantly slower than objects.

There was no main effect of the context factor $F (I, 19) = 2.2$. $P = 0.15$ (marginal means for the homogenous conditions = 37.03 and for heterogeneous conditions = 40.7).

Test for the interaction between stimulus and context factors $F (1, 19) = 3.99$, $p = 0.06$ indicated a significance level that required further investigation. Figure 1 graphically showed the interaction between the object and face conditions.
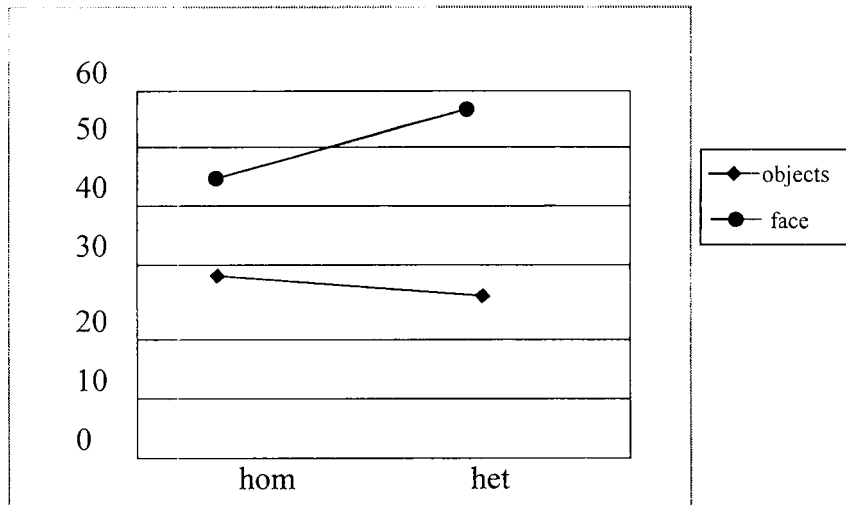
Figure I: *Graph displaying mean response time for homogeneous and heterogeneous conditions for objects and face stimuli*

Further examination of the interaction between the stimulus and context factor was done by conducting a related t-test. Result of the object condition was t (19) = 1.06, p= 0.323 Mean reaction time of the homogenous face condition being 28.2 and that for heterogeneous objects being 26.5.This result was not significant.

The face condition showed t (19) = 1.9, P =0.068. Mean reaction time for homogenous face naming 45.2 and that for the heterogeneous condition 55. This result indicates a trend of context effect in the face naming condition.

By examining the mean reaction time, SD and mean errors of all the conditions displayed in Table 1 it is obvious that the heterogeneous face condition had the most amount of errors (Mean error = 3.5) and the highest reaction time (Mean RT 55), while the heterogeneous object condition had the lowest reaction time Mean RT = 26.5) and lowest amount of errors (Mean error = 05). Overall the naming latencies of faces were slower and they

incurred more errors compared to objects.

Table 1: Mean response time, standard deviation and number of errors for each condition in the object and face naming experiment.

	Obhom	Obhet	Facehom	Facehet
Mean RT	28.8	26.5	45.2	55
SD	7.8	8.8	17.16	20.07
Mean Errors	1	0.5	2.5	3.5

Discussion

The results of the main effect of stimulus demonstrated that faces were named significantly slower than objects. Naming latencies for face naming were slower and more errors were made compared to the object condition. Thus indicating that objects were easier to name than faces.

However results of the main effect of the context factor showed there was no effect of semantic context i.e., there was no significant difference between the homogeneous and heterogeneous conditions, despite a slight trend in the means for the heterogeneous stimuli to be named slower.

Test of the interaction between stimulus and context factors exhibited a trend but did not achieve significance; this required further examination of the data. The means of face naming condition did show a trend in the direction of an interaction between context and stimulus. However again it did not achieve significance.

While examining the means of the object condition there was no significant effect of semantic context in object naming.

Observing the descriptive further suggested that heterogeneous face naming was slower and had more errors compared to homogenous faces while homogenous object

naming was slower and incurred more errors compared to heterogeneous object naming. Overall the naming latencies of faces were slower and they incurred more errors compared to objects.

Although the results did not achieve significance this study suggested a trend in the direction of the prediction that face naming is not vulnerable to semantic competition in the same way that object naming is. (Vitkovitch in press).

A lot of research has been done proving that object names involve semantic competition. In speech production tasks such as picture naming it has been seen that semantic similarities exert an interfering influence. (Damian 2001). Interfering effects of semantic context have been reported by Kroll and Stewart (1994) in picture naming and word translation. In one experiment, participants were required to name pictures from various semantic categories. The results showed that an item within the context of the same category was named slower than within other categories. Wheeldon and Monsell (1994) had shown that retrieving an object name from a definition can slow picture naming latencies when a semantically related picture is presented three or more trials later. Vitkovitch and Humphreys (1991) found that when participants named a block of target objects under speeded naming instructions, they frequently made errors which corresponded to semantically related primes which had been named in a previous block. These results fit with the conclusion in the literature that object name retrieval is subject to semantic competition. (Humphreys, Lloyd-Jones & Fias, 1995). Abundant research points to the fact that an earlier named object interferes in particular with target name retrieval this is thought to be due to the strengthening of an aspect of the prime's representation in memory, or making it an especially strong competitor when it is presented in parallel to other similar presentations. (Humphreys, Riddoch &

Quinlan, 1988; Wheeldon & Monsell, 1994). However, this current study does not support Damian et al's (2001) results of the interfering effects of semantic context in object naming. This could be due to a number of reasons. The most significant of which is that the stimuli used in this study belonged to just one category while Damian et al (2001) used 5 picture stimuli from 5 categories. This procedural difference in the study could have caused lack of sensitivity. There could also have been a power issue. The study conducted by Damian (2001) had only 16 participants, however while conducting a replication of the study an increase in the sample size could have produced different results. On the other hand, results of the face naming task, although, not highly significant showed a trend in the direction that face naming is not vulnerable to semantic competition.

It is assumed that name representations are either stored alongside semantic codes (Burton & Bruce, 1992) or in a module separate from semantic representation (Bredart, Valentine, Calder, & Gassi, 1995). The absence or presence of semantic context effects was further investigated by Schweinberger et al (2001). According to Schweinberger et al (2001) prime words that were visually presented prior to face onset and that provided partial semantic information (i.e. indicating persons occupation, dead or alive) had no effect on naming latencies. In contrast, two types of phonologically related primes that either provided partial information about the name significantly facilitated the syllable judgement. These results favoured a model of parallel rather than sequential access and suggested some degree of independence in the access to personal semantics and names.

The lack of semantic competition does not however go hand in hand with certain models of language production such as the WEAVER ++ model (Levelt at al, 1999). This model of language production hypothesizes

that lemmas are both syntactically and semantically specified lexical representations, which are automatically activated in parallel and compete during name retrieval. This could mean that during face naming the activation of such lemmas is not automatic and in parallel or there are no lemmas activated on the basis of occupation. So one possibility of the distinction between face naming and object naming could be that, in face naming serial and parallel activation of lemmas might be different compared to that of object naming.

It could be possible that the transmission of information from semantic to name representations might be discrete; namely name representation is not activated until semantic activation is complete and the correct person identity node has reached the threshold. (Vitkovitch in press).

One reason as to the face naming being easier when several faces from the same category are named could be because shared semantic representation (homogenous condition actors) may stay activated over unrelated trials and would not cause lexical competition. In addition to this facilitatory priming, effects could be understood in terms of automatic pre-activation of target representations as a result of prime processing for the serial or various parallel accounts of face processing. (Vitckovitch in press).

There is also some neuropsychological evidence to suggest that knowledge of familiar people is represented by a separate neural subsystem from that which represents knowledge of objects (Kay et al, 1999; Lyons, 2002; Miceli et al, 2000).

The results of this current study suggested a trend towards the lack of semantic effect in face naming. However the results did not achieve a level of significance. This could be due to certain reasons. An increase in the stimuli (heterogeneous faces and homogenous faces) could have helped in obtaining more conclusive results. Similarly

the sample size could be increased. It might also be more appropriate to analyze errors along with naming latencies as a dependent variable.

There was a significant main effect of the stimulus. Naming latencies for face naming were slower and more errors were made compared to the object condition. However one important point to consider was that the participants were required to give the full name of the faces which meant pronouncing a number of syllables, however, while naming objects the syllables were much shorter. This might have affected the reaction time.

While conducting further experiments testing a similar hypothesis it would be beneficial to increase stimuli, treat errors as a dependent variable, increase the sample size and try to narrow down discrepancies between name and object syllables.

In conclusion the current study indicates that there is a difference between object and face naming and that object naming latencies are significantly shorter with fewer errors than face naming. It does not reveal any effect of semantic context (homogeneous/heterogeneous conditions). It does however indicate a trend in face naming thus supporting the study of Vitkovitch et al (in press) that retrieval of face naming does not involve semantic activation in a similar way to object naming.

Research on face naming could further identify the processes involved and provide some modification for the semantically mediated account of name retrieval concerning face naming, so as to be able to distinguish it from the well established and researched semantically mediated account of object name retrieval. With the use of other experimental paradigms, both naming latencies and errors should be investigated. This coupled with neuropsychological research will provide a deeper advancement to the understanding of semantic context effects in objects and faces.

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Anatomizing the Concept of Genocide

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ABSTRACT

This study seeks to explore the causes and effects of the failure of states and other global actors to deter genocide and enforce the Genocide Convention. This study provides an insight into the nature, character and phenomenon of genocide and genocidal process. There are divergent views on these issues because genocide occurs in the context of diverse social relations. These views reflect consensus on evaluation of specific cases but dissensus on its borderlines. Controversy continues not only because genocide is hard to differentiate categorically, but also because most definers have prescriptive agendas. It is useful to clarify these in order to study the process of genocide and to make assumptions for this research.

Genocide has been regarded an abomination of our species. It has occurred during all periods of history, and in all parts of the world from antiquity right up to the present day[1]. The capacity to commit genocide is not limited to one culture or one people. Rather it appears to be an inherent potential of human condition[2]. Strangely enough, genocide and mass killings have been used repeatedly by states, which are signatories of the United Nation Genocide Convention, the Universal Declarations of Human Rights, International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights, and International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights and the Convention against Torture[3].

This political disease continues to intrigue scholars from a variety of disciplines, who search for its origins and symptoms. Scholars have studied genocide in various perspectives and there is no broad consensus on major issues regarding genocide. Unfortunately, genocide has always been considered and regarded such a delicate and complex subject that it could not been examined and explored justifiably[4].

But it is not at all recommendable, for genocide unchecked leads to more genocide[5]. The only issues that have been studied and explored in this area are the nature, character and causes of genocide, the genocide prone societies, the salience of the states in genocides, the role of international agents, and lastly the failure in enforcing the Genocide Convention. However it needs more examination and investigation, especially how it can be deterred and overcome.

This study implies that a poor structural context consisting of ethnic hatreds, various mechanisms of distancing and dehumanization, and polarization of politics in a plural society promotes collective violence. The global community has mostly remained passive towards and tolerant of this crime. It has led to the promotion of genocidal tendencies and trends in a society. These need to

be checked by domestic structures of a genocidal society and by international community for making the world a better and peaceful place for human race.

In this study, it has been argued that genocide is a distinct field of study. Therefore, it is to be distinguished from the other overlapping concepts of politicides, mass murders, killings and massacres, war atrocities and other cases of gross human rights violations. Moreover, debates recur about the identity of the target group, the scope of the acts deemed genocidal, the identity of the perpetrator, the salience of states in genocidal massacres and the question of intent. An attempt has been made to resolve these controversies. Finally, different kinds of genocides are discussed to differentiate modern genocides from those of the primitive types. It is significant to start the research with these issues, because these will enable us to categorize genocide clearly.

1.1   What is Genocide?

The concept of genocide is empirically ubiquitous and politically troublesome.[6] It is a new word for an old crime. Before 1944, no dictionary, encyclopedia or textbook used the term genocide.[7] It has been a part of human history, as it has occurred during all periods of history and in all parts of the world right from antiquity up to the present day.[8] However, today there exist the technology and social and bureaucratic organizations that can carry out worldwide extermination of the human race.[9]

One might assume that genocide is easy to define and apply it to various phenomena. One of the ironies of research in this field, however, is that both the definition and application of the label of genocide have proved problematic. The use of concept in political rhetoric has added to the confusion further. Despite the theoretical and methodological obstacles in studying the concept of genocide, a rich historical literature on the subject is available.

Social scientists studying genocide have formulated varying definitions and typologies. These reflect a consensus on the borderlines of genocide. But these are either too broad to invite action or too narrow to require any. These controversies continue, because genocide is such a delicate and complex subject that it is hard to differentiate it from other related concepts categorically.[10] In fact, the world has become so creative in its modes of killing that social scientists are hard put to define and categorize genocide as a distinct field of study. The ingenuity and ubiquity of mass death challenges the creativity of scholars to define it precisely.

Etymologically, 'genocide' means 'group killing': the Greek root 'genos' means 'lineage', 'tribe', 'people', 'ethnic' or 'race', and the Latin root '-cide' (from the verb *caedere*) meaning killing (as in suicide, homicide, infanticide, etc.).[11] Traditionally, it simply meant: '[A]ny attempt to destroy in whole or part any of a number of various groups.'[12] And in international conventions and professional literature, it has generally been defined as: '[T]he intentional destruction of people because of their race, religion, ethnicity or other permanent group membership.'[13]

These definitions and explanations of genocide cannot be accepted as such on account of two reasons. First, because genocide is not such a simple phenomenon that it can be applied to any destruction of human lives due to ethnic cleansing, or any other kind of political and social violence. It is, therefore, to be distinguished from these concepts. Genocide has now grown as a separate specialized field of study, which requires deep insight and research. In addition, to have a clear understanding of the term, it is imperative to study it historically as it has evolved over time.

Raphael Lemkin was the first to coin it when he wrote about it in '*Axis Rule in Occupied Europe*':

New conceptions require new terms. By 'genocide' we mean the destruction of a nation or an ethnic group. This new word is coined by the author to denote an old practice. Generally speaking, genocide does not necessarily mean the immediate destruction of a nation, except when accomplished by mass killing of all members of a nation. It is intended rather to signify a coordinated plan of different actions aiming at the destruction of essential foundations of the life of national groups, with the aim of annihilating the groups themselves. The objective of such a plan would be disintegration of the political and social institutions of culture, language, national feelings, religion and the economic existence of national groups and the destruction of the personal security, liberty, health, dignity and even the lives of the individuals belonging to such groups. Genocide is directed against the national groups as an entity, and the actions involved are directed against the individuals, not in their individual capacity, but as members of a national group.[14]

Later studies have shown that Lemkin over-identified commonalities and implied a coherent and common objective in different countries.[15] Therefore, although the concept and term have been adopted, yet its definition remains far from being accepted by scholars writing on the subject.

The next development came when the term passed into International Law. In the United Nations Genocide Convention, which was adopted in 1948, it is defined as a punishable crime under International Law. The law stipulates its meaning in these words:

[A]ny of the following acts committed with intent to destroy, in whole or in part, a national, ethnical, racial or religious group, as such:

a) Killing members of the group;

b) Causing serious bodily or mental harm to members of the group;

c) Deliberately inflicting on the group conditions of life calculated to bring about its physical destruction in whole or in part;

d) Imposing measures intended to prevent births within the group;

e) Forcibly transferring children of the group to another group.[16]

The Genocide Convention has been repeatedly criticized for its purposeful omission of political groups and social classes as target groups, the ambiguity of destroying a group 'as such' with intent, the inability of non-state parties to invoke the convention, and the failure to set up an independent enforcement body.[17]

Although many social scientists have accepted the United Nations Genocide Convention's definition explicitly or implicitly,[18] or a broadened version thereof, including political and social groups,[19] it remains an unresolved issue. Therefore, we need to review some definitions to get at the core of the issue, selecting one for the present study. Dadrian states that:

> [G]enocide is the successful attempt by a dominant group, vested with formal authority and with preponderant access to overall resources of power, to reduce by coercion or lethal violence the number of minority group whose ultimate extermination is held desirable and useful; and whose respective vulnerability is a major factor contributing to the decision for genocide.[20]

This appears to be more an explanation than a definition. Furthermore, it is not clear as to what is to be observed and categorised as genocide, except that the perpetrator is a representative of the dominant group and victims are a minority group.[21]

Horowitz describes genocide as '[t]he structural and systematic destruction of innocent people by a state bureaucratic apparatus'.[22] This definition seems more appropriate, because it regards this phenomenon as a coordinated, organized and systematic process of destruction. But it is flawed in certain respects. First, it uses the ambiguous word 'innocent'. Secondly, it over-simplifies this complex phenomenon by regarding it only the crime of the state's bureaucratic apparatus. It tends to overlook the social/ethnic conflicts leading to the crime. Here also the distinction between the state and society appears to be very arbitrary and excludes, rather than uncovers, clues to their relationship.[23]

Thomson and Quets suggest a sociological definition of genocide as a continuous multidimensional variable: '[T]he extent of destruction of a social collectivity by whatever agents, with whatever intentions, by proposing actions which fall outside the recognized conventions of legitimate warfare'.[24] This looks incompatible with the concept of genocide and keeping war and genocide different. It provides the perpetrators a legal cover and absolves them of any legal responsibility. Further, the authors confuse the definition of genocide by extending the connotations of genocide to cover all kinds of acts undermining collectivities as a result of social policy, so that genocide becomes not only unbounded but banal, an everyday occurrence.[25]

Charny proposes what he calls a humanistic definition: '[T]he wanton murder of human beings on the basis of any identity whatsoever that they share'.[26] It is the extreme example of an extended conceptualization as he virtually supports. It is an all-encompassing definition, including all instances of mass killing of substantial number of human beings who are not targeted as military forces in the course of war, but it fails to describe the

conflict clearly. Therefore in professional literature, it finds little acceptance.

Rummel comes up with new terms and ingenious explanations forwarding a new all-comprehensive concept of democide, which states that: '[T]he murder of any person or people by a government, including genocide, politicide and mass murder'.[27] Thus he coins another word to distinguish various kinds of mass killings. He defines genocide as: '[a]mong other things, the killing of people because of their indelible group membership (race, ethnicity, religion, language)'.[28] In these definitions genocide appears as a blurred concept that does not necessarily carry the complete sense. He distinguishes these from politicide as: '[t]he murder of any person or people by a government, because of their politics or for political purposes',[29] and from mass murder as: '[t]he indiscriminate killing of any person or people by a government'.[30]

These definitions lack the precision and comprehensiveness which connotes genocide. Rummel refers genocide as simply a crime of a government, not a state, blurring these political concepts without any involvement of the society. However, in almost all established cases of genocide, a dominant group on victims conducted it on a large scale, with the aid of the state's bureaucratic agencies. But these were not exclusively the organs of government. Thus we need a definition that merits on sociological and legal contexts.

Chalk and Jonassohn, advance a rather straight forward definition, that '[g]enocide is a form of one sided mass killing in which a state or other authority intends to destroy a group, as that group and membership in it are defined by the perpetrators'.[31]. There are several problems with this definition. First, it limits perpetrators to states and their agents. Second, it is open-ended and too inclusive of all/any of the groups. Finally, the specification of one-sided

mass killing implies a numeric threshold, which may obscure recognition of the earlier stages of genocide.[32]

Sociologically, legally and analytically speaking Fein suggests a far more satisfying definition developed in a series of books and articles. Genocide here is distinguished by '[a] sustained purposeful action by a perpetrator to physically destroy a collectivity directly or indirectly, through interdiction of the biological and social reproduction of group members, sustained regardless of the surrender or lack of threat offered by the victim'.[33]

For the purposes of the current study, Fein's definition shall be taken to explain the phenomenon of genocide. It is because other definitions do not explain the concept of genocide or distinguish it from other overlapping phenomena of war killings, ethnic conflicts and state mass murders. This definition has particularly two important merits. Partly, it does not limit perpetrators to the states and their agents only. Second, it also provides some basis for distinguishing genocide from outbursts of ethnic violence.

1.2   Issues in Genocide Studies

Fein's definition shall serve our purpose largely to account for this concept and phenomenon. However, to elaborate further the genocidal process, the following issues are to be discussed here.

1.2.1 Perpetrator

Scholars offer various views on this issue. Either the task of defining perpetrator has been overlooked deliberately[34], or it has been limited by regarding it as the crime of the state or its agents[35], or it has been left open-ended to regard this crime as committed by a dominant group, whatsoever.[36] This study acknowledges the views of this last group of scholars.

Among perpetrators in genocidal conflict there can be a state or its agents or a dominant group in an advantageous position or any other, which may be a social collectivity. They have the following characteristics. First, they possess an ideology usually based on some ethnic, religious, economic or political grounds or a mixture of one or more or on all these grounds. It serves to legitimize any act, no matter how horrendous[37] and placing the victims outside the 'sanctified universe'.[38] Second, they have access to technology or the means to annihilate their victims physically not only by mass murder but also by starvation, using hunger as a low technology weapon.[39] Finally, they possess a quasi-bureaucratic organization to destroy their victims systematically. Fein, Horowitz, Chalk & Jonassohn and Bjornson and Russel have stressed the necessity of having an organized bureaucracy for modern genocides to happen.

1.2.2 Victims

The victims of genocide are generally members of real groups, whether conceived of as collectivities, races or classes based on some social, ethnic, religious, racial, economic, political or ideological ties. The perpetrator who acknowledges their existence defines their membership. There may be an administrative or official designation of their membership. They may or may not be a minority, but they are definitely at some disadvantageous position and politically not very viable.

With the aid of ideology, perpetrators of genocide relegate their victims to the level of animals, or of meaningless objects or to a purely instrumental role, thus denying them the human status and excluding them from common humanity.[40] They are labeled with fictive identities and are accused of non-existent crimes as a group.[41] They are isolated, rendered powerless and vulnerable,[42] and their complete annihilation is ultimately held desirable by the perpetrator.

1.2.3 Physical Destruction

Some scholars regard forced deportations, political, economic, biological and cultural subjugation and colonization, as instances of different forms of genocide.[43] It may, as the argument goes, carry some weight but the genocide that this study proposes, does not acknowledge the above instances as genocide. What we are here concerned with is the actual physical destruction or the threat of such destruction. It can be direct or indirect death.

1.2.4 Purposeful Intentional Action

Another important characteristic of genocide is the question of intent. This intent can be manifest and latent.[44] Genocide, in terms of the perspective of this study, is a crime against collectivity, taking the form of massive slaughter and carried out with explicit intent. The crime is constituted by deliberate extermination of a group. It may either be the economic progress or a racially ordered society or a utopia. But the intent is to destroy a group 'as such'.[45] It thus excludes single massacres, accidental deaths and sporadic out-breaks of social violence among different ethnic, religious, economic, political, ideological or whatsoever identity those groups carry.

Legally, it is quite important, referring to as deliberate or repeated acts with foreseeable results. And the sociological concept of purposeful action is the bridge paralleling the legal concept of intent in the Genocide Convention. This lies between legal guilt (an external judgement) and the perpetrator's construction of an account or a variable (a psychological variable).[46]

1.2.5 Divided Society/ Polarized Polity

An important issue in the study of genocide is in what sort of society or polity it occurs. This issue also breeds contradictions among scholars. One group views this phenomenon only from a state-centric paradigm, regarding it as only the crime of the state.[47] The other group

asserts this conflict only as a social phenomenon. No doubt, plural society provides the structural base for genocide, the presence of diversity of racial, ethnic, economic, religious, political and ideological groups being the structural characteristic of such type of society. Genocide is the crime committed against these groups either by the state or by any other collectivity as discussed earlier.[48]

This kind of society is characterized by a super-imposition of dominate or subordinate, favored or discriminated against, in the political structure, in the economy, in opportunities for education, in human rights, and in access to amenities.

The issues of conflict tend also to be super-imposed along the same lines of cleavage and inequality. The structural conditions are likely to be conducive for genocidal conflict. They aggregate the societies/polities into distinctive sections, thereby facilitating crimes against collectivities. These divisions are pervasive, and relatively consistent in many spheres. The issues of conflict may move rapidly from one sector to another, until almost the entire society/polity is polarized. A quite local disturbance, e.g. of seemingly minor significance, may set off a chain of reactions. It may include rioting at distant geographical points, demonstrations, strikes, police reprisals, reciprocal terrorism and violent political confrontation at a national level. Thus, a propensity for this kind of conflict increases manifold.

1.2.6 Ideology

Another key element in the study of genocide is the ideology that the victimizer uses in order to exterminate the victim. This ideology serves to legitimatize any act, no matter how horrendous. It is usually based on some racial, ethnic, religious, economic, political or ideological grounds. Sustained propagandist machinery is employed to spread this ideology. Such propaganda defines the victim

outside the pale of human existence and therefore to be destroyed completely and ultimately.

The victims are dehumanized and words such as 'sheep', 'savages', 'vermin', 'gooks', 'lice' and 'sub-humans' are commonly used to relegate them to the level of non-humans, thus making it easier for their perpetrators to annihilate them.[49] Fein describes the role of 'myth', which legitimizes the existence of a state of 'volk' as a vehicle for the destiny of the dominant group and by definition, excludes the victim group as being outside the realm of the 'sanctified universe'.[50]

After having discussed the definition of these confusing and overriding issues, the study now proposes to examine different types of genocide. As noted earlier, genocide has been the rule rather their aberration, but modern genocides in their modes of killing and causes are different from past ones. Therefore understanding modern modes and the reasons of genocidal massacres is desirable. It would lead the study to deal with the issue of deterring genocide in a better way.

1.3   Types of Genocide

Genocide seems to have been practiced since the earliest days of antiquity. It is still being practiced in our times. The changes genocide has undergone, like rapid expansion of scientific knowledge, great developments in technology and the speed of modern travel and communications covering a time span of hundreds if not thousand of years, have given it a new form.[51] It is not limited to one culture or one nation, rather it is an inherent potential of the human condition.[52]

In this part an overview of different types of genocide is given. These are not exclusive categories and almost all these cases arguably overlap. These are utilitarian, hegemonic, retributive, developmental and ideological genocides.

1.3.1 Utilitarian Genocide:

While the origins of genocide are lost in remotest antiquity, it is still possible to speculate about their origin. In the past, genocide was motivated by the desires to, first eliminate a real or perceived enemy, second forestall a real or perceived threat and last acquire and possess economic wealth that could not be simply carried off by the perpetrator.[53]

Where all these motives are present in varying proportions, such genocides are referred to as utilitarian genocides. These were committed in the founding and expanding empires of ancient times. However, such genocides have declined not due to any emergence of humanitarian sensibilities among the victors, but due to the realization that in a labor-intensive culture, the losers were more valuable as slaves than as corpses.[54]

1.3.2 Developmental Genocide:

This sort of genocide was and is committed by states and other organized actors against 'backward' human groups who are killed because they stand in the way of progress and economic exploitation to gain material or physical resources. Kuper's genocide against indigenes, and Chalk and Jonasshon's genocide for economic wealth both qualify as developmental genocide in Fein's use of the term.[55] Scholars also refer to indigenous groups who vanished with the destruction of their habitat or as a result of 'new' disease or way of life brought in by the more civilized human groups. In concrete terms, they invariably talk about victimization of the indigenes of the Americas, aborigines of Australia, New Zealand, South Africa, and gypsies of East Europe.

What distinguishes this category from retributive genocide is that there is no process of generalization of 'threat' at its core. The 'crime' of the victims in this case is being out of place with their perpetrators' world rather than

identity. The identity of the victim group may not be unrelated to the perpetrator's decision to physically remove them, e.g. as a function of their collective status, dehumanization, or identity related resources such as links to outside communities.

1.3.3   Hegemonic Genocides

There are mass murders which occur when distinct ethnic, religions or national groups are forced to submit to some central authority.[56] They use the term 'hegemonic' in place of 'repressive'. The term hegemonic refers to the genocide of victims selected on the basis of their social, ethical and religious characteristics. On the other hand, the term 'repressive' refers to genocidal victimization due to political affiliation.[57] Fein's despotic genocide and Kuper's genocidal struggle for power or for greater autonomy can be clustered under this category of hegemonic genocide.[58]

Under this qualification, scholars have agreed that the intent of the perpetrators is to show 'who is the boss' to the real or potential enemy and hence repression, terrorism and token lessons are effective ways to convey the meaning. These scholars seem to have agreed that, while the destruction of the whole targeted group might not be the intent of the perpetrators, it could go out of control and result in massive victimization. This is particularly true when the perpetrators consider the repressive military means are no longer effective. Thus, the measures of 'population adjustment' (i.e. ethnic cleansing) are deemed necessary.[59]

1.3.4   Retributive Genocide

Harff and Gurr define this as mass murder targeted at previously dominant or influential groups out of resentment for their past privileges or abuses.[60] It is a derivation of Fein's retributive genocide and Kuper's theory of 'decolonization of a two-tier structure of domination'.[61]   Both   scholars   argue   that   retributive

genocide is likely to happen in a plural society in which competing groups consider them as potential victims of others. For Kuper, one of the roots of retributive genocide is the ethnic politics, divide and rule, imposed by the colonial power by selecting a favored ethnic group into power.

The decolonization process strips the power of the controlled regime and hence the colonial protection of the ruling group. According to Fein, if the solidarity between the ruling group and the ruled is weaker, then the power vacuum encourages the groups to anticipate the much worried about but simplistic dilemma of rule. The ruling elite might consider a pre-emptive 'self-defense' as the way to address the real or imagined retributive attacks from the ruled. As such, both sides are engaged in the struggle to remove the real and potential threats to their respective groups.[62] She uses this concept to denote genocides that develop from group conflicts, perceived or real.

However, this concept can be used to designate cases where real or perceived opposition or potential threat by a collectivity becomes generalized to the community as in Rwanda. In those cases as well where centrally organized efforts to destroy a collectivity originate in-group conflicts involving greater levels of mass participation. The important question to be answered is that what are the conditions under which states or other actors generalize the 'guilt' and decide to indiscriminately target civilians whom they consider members of the opposition category, regardless of civilian's individual loyalties, saliency of group identity and surrender.

1.3.5 Ideological Genocide

This is inevitably victimization in the course of attaining purified nation-states, or to perpetuate totalitarian ideology, or to secure the objective of a revolution.[63] For Du Preez, the intent of perpetrators of ideological genocide is to impose their vision on the world.[64] For the

perpetrators, it is not enough to change the composition of society. They want to change the significance of it.

It is perhaps the most clear-cut category, and clearly the one that has received the most attention in genocide literature. It is exemplified by the Holocaust, the Cambodian genocide, Stalin's destruction of the Kulaks and other cases in which victim groups were selected on the basis of ideologies and hegemonic myths.

In ancient times, these might have been premised on faith i.e. enforced conversion of global society to a particular religion or a belief system, in an effort to attain an ideal human world. In modern times, it is preceded by reason i.e. a Marxist struggle to attain a classless global society.[65] Du Preez uses progressive genocides to attain a Marxist-Leninist classless society, and reactionary genocides to attain a 'racially pure' society, under the cluster of ideological genocide.[66]

Certainly these are not the exclusive categories. Almost all the cases overlap. However a range of explanatory variables are no doubt relevant to all categories, e.g. the process of dehumanization and the influence of outside threats of detection and intervention. What unites these categories is the central question posed by Fein's definition of genocide, namely, what circumstances and conditions allow genocidal intentions to arise, gain power and at times, popular support.

Thus, genocide appears to be a complex phenomenon that occurs when a poor structural context faces instability and culminates in the loss of human lives on a large scale. The factors, which are involved in genocidal massacres, are almost universal in plural societies. However, not all divided societies take genocidal course. It is because, the national domestic leadership attempts to solve the substantial issues. These include political stability, economic development and social reconstruction in order to build a more just society. They

also ban hate propaganda and strive to stress on common grounds in place of furthering distancing devices. Many societies have been able to overcome these divisions and hatreds prevalent in multiethnic plural divided societies. They have sought the cooperation of global agencies and been able to develop and progress. It is also imperative to promote new values like accountability and punishment, rule of law and reconciliation.

Genocide not only results in the loss of valuable members of the human race but it also brings destruction of a cultural heritage that belongs to humanity. Although genocide is a crime in international law, the international community has failed to implement it. There are many loopholes in the law and judicial process that offer ample chances for the perpetrators of genocide to violate the law. Future studies need to take an all-inclusive strategy for deterring genocide. The future of peace efforts in this regard is hopeful and bright.

Reference/Endnotes

1   Kurt Jonassohn and Karin Solveig Bjornson, Genocide and Gross Human Rights Violations, New Brunswick, N. J.: Transaction Publishers, 1998, p. 10.

2   Robert Melson, Revolution and Genocide: On the Origins of the Armenian Genocide and the Holocaust, Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1992, p. ix-xx.

3   Helen Fein, Genocide: A Sociological Perspective London: Sage, 1993, p. 3-4.

4   Jack Nusan Porter, ed., Genocide and Human Rights: A Global Anthology, New York: University Press of America, 1982, p. 5.

5   Fein, op.cit, p. xiv.

6   It is because no single definition has been universally accepted and an endless discussion is proceeding. A few cases have been registered and accepted as such. For more explanation, see Irving Louis Horowitz, Genocide: State Power and Mass Murder, New Brunswick, N.J.: Transaction Publishers, 1977, p. 16 ; Kurt Jonassohn and Karin Solveig Bjornson, Genocide and Gross Human Rights Violations, New Brunswick, N.J.: Transaction Publishers, 1998 ; Helen Fein, Genocide: A Sociological Perspective, London: Sage, 1993.

7   See Jack Nusan Porter, ed., Genocide and Human Rights: A Global Anthology, New York: University Press of America, 1982, p. 5.

8   For a detailed discussion on different cases of genocides in history see, Frank Chalk & Kurt Jonassohn, The History and Sociology of Genocide: Analyses and Case Studies, New Haven, Conn.: Yale University press, 1990, p. 10. & *ibid.*

9   Porter, *op.cit, p.* 5.

10 Fein, *op.cit*, p. 8.

11 The scholars who have attempted to study the concept and field of genocide have referred to the coinage of the term by Raphael Lemkin. For more details see Leo Kuper, Genocide: Its Political use in Twentieth Century, New Haven, Conn. : Yale University Press, 1981 ; R. J. Rummel, Death by Government, New Brunswick, N.J.: Transaction Publishers, 1994.

12 This is a very simplistic definition of phenomenon. See for more details Horowitz, *op.cit.*, p. 7.

13 Rummel, *op.cit.*, p. 32.

14 Raphael Lemkin, who originated the term and the concept, wrote about it in Axis Rule in Occupied Europe, as quoted in Rummel, *op.cit.*, p. 32.

15 For a detailed discussion on Lemkin's proposed definition see Fein, *op.cit.*, p. 8.

16   A detailed discussion of the United Nation Genocide Convention shall be given in the chapter 4 of this study.

17   For a detailed discussion on the Convention see Fein, *op.cit.*, p. 10 ; Rummel, *op.cit.*, p. 33-34; Jonassohn and Bjornson, *op.cit.*, p. 9-10.

18   See Kuper, *op.cit.*,; Porter, *op.cit.* ; as quoted in Fein, *op.cit.*, p. 12.

19   See Horowitz, *op.cit.*,; Chalk and Jonassohn, *op.cit.*, as quoted in Fein, *op.cit.*, p. 12.

20   Vahakn Dadrian, "The Structural Functional Components of genocide: a Victomological Approach to the Armenian case" in Victomology, ed. I. Drapkin and E. Viano, (Lexington, MA. Heath.1974), 123; as quoted in Fein, *op.cit.*, p. 12.

21   *Ibid.*, p. 13.

22   Horowitz, *op.cit.*, p. 18.

23   Fein, *op.cit.*, p. 16.

24   John L.Thomson and Gail A.Quets, Redefining Moral Order: Towards a Normative Theory of Genocide, New York: Columbia University, 1987, p. 11, as quoted in *ibid.*

25   *Ibid.*, p. 17.

26   Israel W. Charny, ed. Genocide: A Critical Bibliographic Review, New York: Facts on File Publications, 1988, p. 1:4, as quoted in *ibid.*, p. 12.

27   Rummel, *op.cit.*, p. 11.

28   *Ibid.*

29   *Ibid.*

30   *Ibid.*

31   Chalk and Jonassohn, *op.cit.*, p. 23.

32   Fein, *op.cit.*, p. 13.

33   Helen Fein developed the concept in a series of books and articles.

34   As in United Nations Genocide Convention in Appendix1.

35   See for details Horowitz, *op.cit.*, p. 18; Rummel, *op.cit.*, 11. ; Chalk and Jonassohn, *op.cit.*,1990.

36   See Fein, *op.cit.*; Thompson and Quets, *op.cit.*; Dadrian, *op.cit.*

37   Porter, *op.cit.*, p. 12.

38   Fein, *op.cit.*, p. 30.

39   Jonossohn & Bjorson, *op.cit.*, p. 25-41.

40   Kuper, *op.cit.*, p. 85-88.

41   See *ibid.* , & Fein, *op.cit.*, p. 14.

42   Porter, *op.cit.*, p. 23.

43   See *Ibid.* ; Kuper, *op.cit.*; Rummel, *op.cit.*

44   Fein, *op.cit.*, p. 22.

45   Kuper, *op.cit.*, p. 86.

46   See for more details, Fein, *op.cit.*

47   See for example, Rummel, *op.cit.*; Kuper, *op.cit.*; Chalk and Jonassohn, *op.cit.*

48   Kuper, *op.cit.*, p. 57.

49   Porter, *op.cit.*, p. 12.

50   *Ibid., p.* 3-30.

51   Jonassohn & Bjornson, *op.cit.*, p. 18.

52   Robert Melson, <u>Revolution and Genocide</u>, Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1992, p. xix-xx, as quoted in *ibid*.

53   *Ibid*, p. 18.

54   Jonassohn & Bjornson, *op.cit.*, p. 19.

55   Fein, *op.cit.*, p. 8-9.

56   Barbara Harrf & Ted R. Gurr, "Towards Empirical Theory of Genocides and Politicides: Identification and Measurement of cases since 1945," <u>International Studies Quarterly</u>, 37, no. 3 (1988), 363.

57   Du Preez, <u>Genocide: The Psychology of Mass Murder</u>, London: Boyars/Bowerdean, 1994, p. 75, as quoted in Siswo Pramono, <u>An Account of the Theory of Genocide</u>, (a reference paper presented to the Australian Studies Association. Australia National University. Canberra, Oct 2002) retrieved from *http:wolf.its.ilstu.edu/injustice/yacobiandoc.htm.*

58   See for example Fein, *op.cit.*, p. 10-11; Kuper, *op.cit.*, p. 34.

59   Du Preez, *op.cit.*, p. 74.

60   Harff and Gurr, *op.cit.*, p. 364.

61   See for example Fein, *op.cit.*, p. 10-11; Kuper, *op.cit.*, p. 34.

62   Fein, *op.cit.*, p. 18-20.

63   *Ibid.*

64   Du Preez, *op.cit.*, p. 66.

65   Jonassohn & Bjornson, *op.cit.*, p. 20.

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The Legitimacy of Taxation in Islamic Law

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ABSTRACT

There is controversy in the literature on Islamic economics about the legitimacy of taxes other than Zakah in an Islamic state. Some people have argued that the Zakah is the only tax that an Islamic state is authorized by the Shari'ah to levy. But this is an unnecessarily restrictive view. Firstly, there are explicit traditions of the Prophet (S.A.A.W) that allow levying of other taxes. Secondly, this question also has a pragmatic dimension. If we expect a present day government to perform certain functions we will have to allow it to collect revenue as well. The only method to restrain the government from other taxes is to reduce the mandate of the government. Anyhow, we do not want to get into the details of the controversy here. We presume that an Islamic government of the present day has the mandate to perform some functions for the masalahah of the society. Therefore, it also has the authority to levy these taxes.

Theory of Taxation in Islam:

The theory of taxation in Islam is derived from the principles underlying the law of Zakah. The Qur'an has made it obligatory for all Muslims, who have wealth and income beyond a certain level, to pay Zakah for meeting some defined purposes. Zakah is not a tax; i.e. rather a form of worship ('ibadah). They think so, because tax, by its very connotation, smacks of something unfair and coercive. It is argued that Zakah is a means to purify one's wealth and to seek the pleasure of God. Therefore, we should not treat Zakah as a tax. The Islamic state can compel its Muslim citizens to pay it. In fact, this was done by the first caliph of Islam who even fought a battle against those who refused to pay it. Its rates are fixed. Its periodicity is fixed. Its heads of expenditure are laid down. All these characteristics make it a tax. This is notwithstanding the fact that people might like to pay it voluntarily in the hope of getting a reward in the Hereafter. We can say that divine sanction has made Zakah a special type of tax. But it is still a tax.

There is consensus in the Muslim Ummah that the law of Zakah, as given by the Prophet (S.A.A.W), is binding. The rates, exemption limits and the properties on which it is to be levied have been prescribed by the Prophet (S.A.A.W) and hence they cannot be changed. Incidentally, the range of such prescriptions is not very wide, considering a present-day Islamic economy. New forms of wealth have arisen. New methods of creating wealth have come into being. Therefore, we need some fresh thinking about the law of Zakah. The earlier jurists engaged in a lot of analogical reasoning to apply the law in their respective times. In our times we need to do the same.

Arguments against Taxes

The following arguments are presented against the right of Government to impose any other tax in addition to Zakah on the Muslims:

1.   The Holy Qur'an says:

> "Establish worship, pay the poor-due (Zakah) and bow your heads with those who bow (in worship)."[1]

Again the Holy Qur'an says:

> "Establish worship, and pay the poor due and whatever of good ye send before (you) for your souls, ye will find it with Allah (SWT). Lo! "Allah (SWT) is Seer of what ye do."[2]

In the verses mentioned above, the Qur'an emphasizes the payment of Zakah along with offering of prayers. Thus a Muslim is required to make payment of Zakah only which is an act of worship as well as a financial obligation.[3]

> The Holy Qur'an says:

> "Those – who, if We give them power in the land, establish worship, pay the poor due (Zakah) and enjoin kindness and forbid iniquity...." [4]

Thus the government of an Islamic state is required to establish system of Zakah (its collection and distribution) only and not a system of any other tax. According to the verse of the Holy book mentioned above, the Islamic state would collect Zakah and distribute it, but the state is not charged with the responsibility of administration of any other tax. That is why Allah (SWT) enjoined upon the Prophet (S.A.A.W) of Islam to take Zakah from his followers.[5]

The Holy Qur'an says:

"Take alms of their wealth, wherewith thou mayest purify them and mayest make them grow, and pray for them....." (al-Tawbah 9:103).[6]

So the Prophet (S.A.A.W) charged only Zakah from his followers and did not impose any other tax on the Muslims. Prophet's successors, the rightly guided caliphs also collected from the Muslims Zakah only and nothing else.[7]

2. Following Ahadith of the Prophet Muhammad (S.A.A.W) also produced to prove that Zakah is the only financial obligation which a Muslim owes to his community:

   a. Ibn Umar reported that the Holy Prophet (S.A.A.W) said: Islam is built on five things, to bear witness that there is no God but Allah (SWT) and that Muhammad (S.A.A.W) is His apostle, to keep up prayer, to pay Zakah to make pilgrimage and to keep fast in Ramadan. [8]

   b. Ibn Abbas reported that the Holy Prophet sent Mu'ad to Yemen saying: Certainly you will come across a people, the people of the Book. Call them to bear witness that there is no God but Allah (SWT) and that Muhammad is the Messenger of Allah (SWT). If they submit to that, teach them that Allah (SWT) has made obligatory upon them prayer for five times a day and a night. If they submit to that, teach them that Allah (SWT) has made obligatory over them Zakah which will be taken from the rich and will be given to the poor among them.[9]

   c. Abu Hurairah reported that a villager Arab came to the Holy Prophet and said: Guide me to an action which, if I do, will certainly take me to Paradise. He replied: You shall serve Allah,

shall not associate with Him anything, keep up the prescribed prayers, pay the obligatory Zakah, and kept fast of Ramadan. He said: By Him in whose hand there is my life; I shall neither do more than this, nor diminish aught therefrom. When he departed, the Holy Prophet said: Whoever is pleased to see a man of the inmates of Paradise, let him look at this (man).[10]

d. Abu Hurairah reported that the Holy Prophet (S.A.A.W) said: When you have paid Zakah of your wealth, you have indeed discharged what was obligatory on you.

e. In the narration Tirmizi writes that it is reported through many sources that when the Prophet (S.A.A.W) mentioned of Zakah, someone asked him if something else was due from him besides Zakah, the Prophet (S.A.A.W) said: Nothing else except what you give voluntarily at your pleasure.[11]

3. For prohibition of levy of taxes other than Zakah on Muslims following arguments are presented:-

There is no other right on your wealth besides Zakah.[12]

Al-Mawardi, in his renowned work Ahkam-ul-Sultaniah writes: "In the wealth of a Muslim nothing is due besides Zakah".[13]

Allama Shaukani in 'Neel-ul-Awtar writes: "There is no tax other than Zakah on the wealth of a Muslim".[14]

Ibn Hazm writes: "that Zakah has abolished all other rights on wealth".[15]

4. Sayings of the Prophet (S.A.A.W) of Islam about imposition of 'Ushur' and Jizyah are as under,

according to which such taxes are strongly disliked:-

Payment of 'Ushur' is not obligatory on Muslims; rather their payment is on Jews and Christians.

Two Qiblahs (inposts) are not permitted in a land and there is no Jizy'ah on a Muslim.[16]

'O' people of Arabia! Glorify Allah (SWT) who abolished 'Ushur' from you.[17]

"He who levies tax (tax of the days of ignorance) will not enter Paradise".[18]

"Undoubtedly, one who levies Mux (unjust taxes) would enter Hell".[19]

"Truly the completion of your Islam it to pay Zakah from your wealth."[20]

Arguments in Favour of Taxes

The following arguments are given in favour of taxes besides Zakah:

1.   The Holy Qur'an, the revealed book of Islam, prescribes the rights of the poor in the wealth of the rich when it says:

"And in whose wealth there is a right acknowledged for the beggar and the destitute".[21]

The Holy book again says:

"And in their wealth the beggar and the outcast had due share".[22]

Yet at another place, the Qur'an enjoins upon the wealthy to discharge their liability towards the persons having rights in their wealth, in these words:

"So give to the kinsman his due, and to the need, and to the wayfarer. That is best for those who seek Allah's (SWT) countenance. And such are they who are successful" .[23]

In these verses, the Holy Qur'an is not only stressing the due share of the poor in the wealth of the rich but is also commanding the wealthy to discharge their financial obligations towards the poor claimants. Here the reference is not to Zakah, which is a compulsory levy collectable by the Islamic state. Rather the claims of the needy and the destitute upon the wealth of the rich are being stressed.[24]

It can be said on the strength of the verses mentioned above, that the Islamic government can force the rich to discharge their obligations if the poor are not being maintained and looked after properly.   Ali is reported to have said: "Allah (SWT) has prescribed in the wealth of the rich so much which could suffice the needs of the poor. So if the poor are hungry or without clothes or in bad plight, it would mean that the rich are neglecting their duties towards them".[25]

2. No upper limit has been fixed by the Qur'an with regard to spending one's wealth in the way of Allah. The Holy Qur'an says:

> "And they ask thee what they ought to spend. Say: That which is superfluous" .[26]

So after meeting one's needs one can spend one's entire wealth in the way of God. The surplus wealth which one possesses after satisfying his genuine needs ought to be spent for the cause of Allah (SWT) like helping the poor, providing relief to the sick, assisting the community in acts of charity and helping the state in its welfare activities. Since the individuals have neither time, nor knowledge nor organization and nor planning, the surplus wealth, therefore, should be handed over to the state which would

utilize it for the welfare and common benefit of the Islamic Ummah. If the government of the Islamic country requires the funds for its welfare activities and emergency needs but the wealthy citizens are not making voluntary contributions, the government can take away all or part of their surplus wealth for meeting its needs. So the government can impose compulsory contributions for its needs which are called taxes these days. And there is no limit of these taxes in an Islamic state. In case of emergencies, even the entire wealth of an individual can be acquired by the government leaving with him only what is required for his basic necessities.[27]

3.   The Qur'an prescribes the heads of expenditure of Zakah funds when it says:

> "The alms are only for the poor and the needy, and those who collect them and those whose hearts are to be reconciled, and to free the captives and the debtors, and for the cause of Allah, and (for) the wayfarers: a duty imposed by Allah. Allah (SWT) is the Knower, Wise."[28]

Majority of the jurists hold that the word 'alms' used in this verse refers to Zakah and not to voluntary charity because the words next used in this very verse, 'and those who collect them' clearly authorize the Islamic state to give remunerations to those who collect them, which means the Zakah collectors. It is clear from the above verse that Zakah funds can be applied by an Islamic state only on the expenditures enumerated by the Holy Qur'an. The Islamic state has no discretion to utilize the Zakah revenues on the heads other than listed by the Qur'an. So the government of an Islamic country will have to levy other taxes to meet its expenses other than those to which Zakah revenues can be applied. [29]

There is a well known Hadith which means

"There are other rights or claims too on the wealth of a person besides Zakah".

The above mentioned Hadith is interpreted by the scholars to authorize the Islamic state to levy taxes besides Zakah for meeting its needs.[30]

4.   The nisab of Zakah (the minimum limit of wealth the ownership of which attracts the liability of Zakah and the rates of Zakah have been prescribed by the Prophet (S.A.A.W) of Islam and the same cannot be changed or amended. On this there is almost consensus of the Muslim jurists and scholars. It is, therefore, obvious that the Islamic state can impose taxes in addition to Zakah if the Zakah income fails to meet its financial needs.[31]

5.   Zakah is one of the five fundamental articles of Islamic faith. It is one of the five pillars or columns upon which the entire edifice of Islam is built. Like prayer, fasting and pilgrimage, Zakah is an act of worship. It is not like an ordinary tax or cess levied by a state or Government. To consider Zakah only a tax and then to argue that no other tax can be levied in addition to this tax is an erroneous approach. An employee of the government, for example, cannot argue that he has performed the pilgrimage or offers his prayers five times a day, so he should be exempted from performing his official duties. Similarly, it is said that by paying Zakah, which is an act of worship nobody can argue that he should be exempted from the payment of taxes which are his financial obligations towards the state and the society. Thus it is deducted that the Islamic state can impose taxes in addition to Zakah.[32]

6.   It is held unanimously by the jurists of Islam that the Islamic government can impose extra levies in

emergencies and abnormal situations like war, floods, earthquake outbreak of an epidemic, etc. The Holy Prophet (may Allah's peace be upon him) himself asked for contributions for the Battle of Tabuk and his companions set unparalleled examples of sacrifice in compliance of his orders. Everyone of them paid to the defence fund as much as he could. Umar brought half of his property while Abu Bakr presented his entire belongings 'leaving in his home the name of Allah (SWT) and His Apostle'.

7. History bears witness to the fact that taxes in addition to Zakah were levied even in the early period of Islam. Umar levied duties on imports which were called Ushr those days. Umar also included the horses in the properties which are subjected to Zakah. [33]

Evaluation

The saying of the Holy prophet (S.A.A.W)

"There are other rights of claims too on the wealth of a person besides Zakah". [34]

Abu Muhammad Abdullah bin Abdul Rehman-ul-Darmi has mentioned the same Hadith with some difference of world: there are other rights claims too on your wealth besides Zakah".[35]

Maulana Abdul Rehman Mubarik Puri comments about this hadith:- in these words: "This Hadith is a da'iff (poor) on account of Abu Hamzah, Imam Ahmed Ibn Hambal says: "This Hadith is Matruk (abandoned), Dar Qutni says, it da'if (poor), Imam Bukhari is of opinion, "This Hadith is not "Qaviyy" (patent, and Imam Nasai calls it "weak").[36]

Ibn-e-Arabi says:- "being a da'if (poor), this Hadith is not applicable.[37]

Muhammad Yousuf Binouri narrates that according to Sh. Anwar Shah Kashmiri, this Hadith is not strong.[38]

Similarly Muhammad Bin Abdullah Alvi has also copied this Hadith, "there is no other right on the wealth besides the Zakah". So this Hadith is not practicable due to the "mudtarib."[39]

Imam Jalal-ud-din Suyuti says, "This Hadith is not reliable because two Ahadith bearing contrast meaning has been narrated with the same Sanad. Accordingly it may be stated that the above mentioned Ahadith cannot be produced to determine the legitimacy or prohibtion of the levy of tax.[40]

Maulana Kausor Niazi (ex-Minister and Chairman the Council of Islamic Ideology) expressed his views about imposing taxes on the Muslims other than Zakah in these words:

"Now-a-days this issue is under-discussion whether an Islamic state is authorized in Shariah to impose tax for defense and social welfare besides the Zakah or not." It may be stated that Islam has empowered the Imam (Khalifa, ruler) to levy taxes in emergency circumstances with the consultation of scholars on the wealth of Muslim sides by side with Zakah." [41]

Dr. Hamed ullah comments on this issue in his book as under:-"The Sadaqat was the only tax of the state in the time of the Holly Prophet (S.A.A.W) and orthodox caliphs. In later times of extra Ordinary needs the jurists have admitted the legal possibility of imposing supplementary charges on a strictly provisional basis for possible exigencies. Such taxes are called "nawaib (calamities).[42]

'Allama Shatbi has given many arguments in favour of taxation in addition to Zakah for funding the basic necessities of the public.[43]

Ibn-e-Khuldoon has described the objectives of Politics and Government:-

Actually the politics and government means the provision of basic needs to the public and Khilafah of Allah (SWT) is rightful to implement orders among them.[44]

According to Ibn-e-Qayyim, the levy of taxes and receipts in Muslim society are obligatory charges of government but only to fund the basic needs of the people as the government has legal right to do so. [45]

Imam Sarakhasi has confirmed these ideas also in Mabsut.[46]

Ibn-e-Najaim and Majad-ul-din ferozabadi are of the views that:-

"Islamic state is justified to impose taxes for economic development, poverty reduction, social welfare and providing the basic necessities to its people." [47]

Dr. Muhammad Din Jami after detailed discussion on this issue concludes:

"The Islamic government has powers to impose tax on Muslim's wealth besides Zakah but only for social welfare (Muslahah Mursalah) not to fill it's treasury."[48]

In Tirmizi a famous saying of the Holy Prophet (S.AA.W) have been narrated about the responsibilities of the sultan (Ruler).

"The sultan is the custodian of those people who have no guardian".[49]

Imam Abu Yousuf has said in this regards:

The person who is entrusted with the affairs of Muslims should fulfill his responsibility to provide them with basic needs and expenditures. If he (ruler) does so, Allah (SWT) will fulfill his necessities positively.[50]

In 5th (AH), in Undlus, Yusuf bin Tashqin consulted with jurists including Abu-al-Walid about imposing defensive tax, they (jurists) allowed the ruler to collect the taxes only for actual needs.[51]

Imam Qurtubi has said with reference to Imam Maalik that after paying the Zakah, it was necessary for Muslims to spend their wealth to get release the Muslim prisoners.[52]

Abu Yala-al-Farra exclaimed that ruler of an Islamic state was authorised to impose new taxes if the treasury is not sufficient to bear the expenditures of public necessities.[53]

Al-Marwadi has mentioned the responsibilities of khalifah as under:

Implementation of Islamic Shari'ah, restoration of social justice defense of the state, maintenance of peace and security, enforcement of Islamic Hudud, propagation of Islamic Teachings, recovery of Zakah and Sadaqat and protection of state treasury;[54]

Federal Shariat Court's judgment

Maulana Fazal-ur-Rehman bin Mian Muhammad and Hafiz S.A Rehman filed an application in federal shariat court, and challenged the clause 203 of constitution

if Pakistan 1973 about the imposing of Income tax besides Zakah.

The divisional bench of Federal Shariat Court comprising two judges; Justice Dr Tanzil-ur-Rehman (CJ) and justice Dr Fida Muhammad Khan started hearing. The applicants, Juris-consults and famous scholars like Syed Muzammil Hussain Shah, Maulana Fazal-ur-Rehman, Hafiz Abdul Rehman Nadvi and Muhammad Aslam Assistant. Commissioner of income tax (on behalf of government) attended the court and gave arguments to substantiate their point of view. After the detailed discussion in various meeting, The court rejected the petition and announced its judgment as under:-

> "Keeping the above mentioned arguments in views, It is stated that the challenged clause 203 is correct because the government is authorized by Islamic Shariah to levy taxes on the wealth side by side with Zakah. However, the applicants are allowed to submit another petitions against the disputed sections of the ordinance 1979." [55]

Conclusion

The above mentioned discussion shows that there is no clear-cut injunction either in the Qur'an or in the Sunnah which authorizes or prohibits the Islamic state to levy taxes in addition to Zakah. So the question that "can an Islamic state impose taxes on Muslims in addition to Zakah" is to be decided keeping in view the spirit of the tenets of the Qur'an and Sunnah, the general principles of interpretation of the Islamic injunctions, the experience of the Islamic states through history and the financial needs of the modern welfare states. An impartial analysis of the arguments of both the schools of thought reveals that the arguments advanced in support of the proposition (which authorizes the Islamic state to levy other taxes) are more convincing and forceful than the arguments given against the proposition because the heads of expenditure on which the Zakah funds can be spent by an Islamic state have been clearly mentioned in verse 60 of chapter 9 of the Qur'an and, therefore, the Islamic state will have to raise funds from other taxes to meet its expenses on the heads which have not been mentioned in this verse.

The activities of a modern Islamic state have expanded due to the socio-economic changes brought about by the industrial revolution and the progress made in sciences and technology. In the medieval times, the state was charged only with the functions of defense against the foreign aggression and establishment of justice within its frontiers. But today the responsibilities of the state have increased manifold. The state is expected to provide education, health care, employment, civic amenities, social services, communications, economic development, etc. besides performing its traditional functions of establishment of law and justice and security against aggression. With the extension in the responsibilities of the state, the need for finances has also increased. But on the other hand the sources of finance like Jizyah, Kharaj, Fay,

Khumus, etc. which were available to the early Islamic state have no longer been in vogue for a modern Islamic state. So a modern Islamic state has the right to impose modern taxes like income tax, wealth tax, etc. to raise funds for financing its ever growing activities.

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The Use of Authentic Material for Language Teaching

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ABSTRACT

This article deals with the use, importance and difficulties related to using authentic material for foreign language teaching. It also talks about the problems associated with text-based language teaching which results in passiveness and, consequently, boredom on the part of the learners, whereas inclusion of real language specimens brings enthusiasm and vigour, which in turn increases their motivation level.

What is Authentic Material?

Authentic material means samples of language that are real, not produced specially for language teaching. These could be written or recorded on tape. It includes all the material apart from the text, which is designed for the specific purpose of teaching, so the topic, vocabulary and language structure are carefully selected. Authentic material includes newspaper, magazines, leaflets, broachers, recipes etc. These materials are often easily available and are also affordable.

Why should authentic material be used?

The use of authentic material for foreign language teaching is favored by those teachers who want to bring the elements of usefulness, success and enjoyment in their class, as they believe that there is no need of excluding enjoyment from the learning process. It certainly does not mean to rely only on these samples of language for teaching; however, an occasional use of them adds freshness and overcomes boredom and monotony among the students.

Authentic material represents type of language used by the actual speakers of that language, so their inclusion in the teaching curriculum develops a sense of purpose and relevance among the learners. They feel as if they are *'Users'* rather than *'Learners'* of the language. It also creates a sense of being a part of that language community. The learners realize in order to survive there; they have to learn that language. This, in turn, raises their motivation level. This involvement and desire to overcome the barriers of communication can be used as a stimulating factor by the language teacher.

Authentic materials can be taken from varied sources. The choice depends on the teacher; however certain factors should be kept in mind while selecting the materials:

- The age

- Gender

- Level of the students

- Their present state of knowledge

Another factor is to make sure that the chosen material is *according to the taste and interests of the students*, e.g. for teaching listening skills to a class of boys, the teacher might bring commentaries on a football or a cricket match or a recorded discussion for TV on a current social/political issue. For the same skills in a girl's class, a recorded set of instructions about beauty tips can be exploited. In a speaking skills class, the teacher might bring a newspapers article and ask the students to read it in different styles, like that of their favourite narrator and commentators. For the teaching of imperatives, leaflets in the medicine cartons might be brought. The teacher might use some interesting pictures and ask about the mood of the person in a particular picture.

Authentic material is significant in language teaching as it possesses the genuine features of the native language use, e.g. redundancy, colloquialism, contractions, aspiration, assimilation, elision, fillers etc. These are not there in a ready-made text, and if they are, they are not spontaneous, but pre-planned.

Problems and Difficulties in Selecting and Using Authentic Material

Authentic materials are not always very easy to handle in the class. There might be problems in finding them or in the material itself. The biggest problem is the language itself as it might include idiomatic expressions, difficult vocabulary (from the students' point of view, idiosyncrasies of speakers and writers, cultural aspects,

different accents etc. So, before exposing the students to theses materials the teacher has to have a close look at all these problems, because in the class they might create despair and lack of interest on part of the learners.

The biggest problem with authentic material is that it is not graded and controlled. So, in the beginning of an activity, the students might be highly stimulated and enthusiastic, but they might become demotivated gradually, if they cannot handle the material.

Every field of life and job has its own *jargon* and a specific area of vocabulary. So if the teacher brings the legal documents to be paraphrased by the beginners, they are most likely to fail, as it is quite difficult for them to make sense of the vocabulary related to law and the legal jargon. The teacher must not be too adventurous in materials selection, especially in the beginning.

When should authentic material be used?

A good idea before using authentic material is to prepare the students before their actual encounter with the real language. They can be made familiar with the language through text. It is important that they must have a non-authentic material practice i.e. the practice through their text. Otherwise they will be nervous.

Liveliness is an important ingredient in language teaching. A well-known quotation is that '*Variety is the spice of life*' and authentic materials are a *variety* in language class. Routine teaching based on the texts is teacher dominant, whereas the use of authentic materials brings the students at the forefront. They feel as if they are directly dealing with the language without teacher intervention, and so are becoming linguistically mature and independent.

Outline

- What is authentic material?

- Why should authentic material be used for foreign language teaching?

- Problems and difficulties in selecting and using authentic material

- When should authentic material be used?

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Reading Skills: Text and Teachers

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ABSTRACT

In this review basic elements such as reading skills, text and teachers in reading education process have been examined. After defining the term "literacy", structure of texts, importance of teaching reading and teachers has been emphasized. The word "literature" can be found in a number of different kinds of statements. For example, it may represent characteristic of a particular nation or people – Turkish Literature-, historical period or movement-Re-naissance Literature-, subject or topic-, literature of car production-, even the literature of language teaching. A text may be considered from the point of view of its structure and functions. Texts not only provide orthographic clues to vocabulary and syntax they also offer the learner grater processing time than spoken language. A literary text is part of a tradition and has historical relationships with other texts. The perception of a literary text is affected by language design, and by the relationship of the text to the literary tradition. The communication technology of today is mainly based upon to perceive the things seen and watched. Reading in a way is an activity of one comprehending what one sees. That is why reading is of utmost important elements of reading education are teachers. The teachers assume a very important role in the

development of reading skills during primary education. Teachers obtain successful result when they use different modeling and reading strategies.

Introduction

Literature, in one way or another contacts the lives of all educated people at some phase and there can obviously be little mystery about what it is. The word "literature" can be found in a number of different kinds of statement, and this suggests that literature is in fact not the name of a simple, straightforward phenomenon, but a term which covers a number of different kinds of activity. We also talk of literature as something related to, and characteristic of, a particular nation or people; for example, Turkish Literature, American Literature, English Literature, Indian Literature, and so on. Then again we can talk of the literature of a particular historical period or movement; for example, Renaissance Literature, Romantic Literature, Twentieth-century Literature, and so on. In a somewhat different way we can talk of the literature of a particular subject or topic e.g. the literature of car production, of child development, even the literature of language teaching. Lastly, we may think of literature as a subject in the school curriculum which is subdivided into various categories such as poetry, fiction, drama, tragedy, and quite a few others.

If comprehending a language is the real basis for learning that language, then language courses need to provide for as much exposure to written texts and oral discourse as possible. Written texts seem to offer optimal conditions for the internalization of a new grammar and for the development of competence. Texts not only provide orthographic clues to vocabulary and syntax they also offer the learner greater processing time than does spoken language. Written texts can also present a greater quantity and variety of vocabulary items in meaningful contexts than can live or recorded speech. Texts are portable. Students can read when class is not meeting. Since they involve greater processing time, texts can offer more opportunities to think and solve problems in the language

to be learned. For these reasons, written texts are virtually indispensable to the learner.

Since any text may be considered from the post of view of its structure and its functions, we usually find that literary artifacts are something extraordinary about the language in which they are framed. And then we ask people about their experience of that artifact, we frequently see that they are interested in and moved by it. We may say then, that a work of literature is a text that is valued by its culture, that uses a special language, and that affects people with emotions that are valued for their own sake.

A literary text occupies a certain position in literary history. It is part of a tradition and has historical relationships with other texts that came before it and after it. Such a text is also a piece of language: and all language has design. Ordinary language makes an ordinary use of the possibilities of language design. Literary texts also affect their readers according to the way those readers perceive them. The perception of a literary text is affected by language design, and by the relationship of the text to the literary tradition. The value of the special use of language in literary texts is the creation of a special or interesting perception, which brings with it a feeling of pain or pleasure.

The literary text serves in much the similar way as pictures do in the drama exercises-it suggests ideas. So, the purpose of using literary texts is to stimulate language activities which will develop in its own direction (Ertas, 1994:7-11).

The Importance of Reading Education

The perception skill of people is formed by the reading and listening skills, this is also the way to reach new knowledge. The communication technology of today is mainly based upon to perceive the things seen and watched. Reading in a way is an activity of one comprehending what

one sees. That is why reading is of utmost importance for the individual development of people. Reading also increases analysis, synthesis, interpretation and judgment powers of people. To become a thinking society is purely dependent upon reading books (Tural, 1992: 125). Today the people are under the bombardment of new information. People meet so many texts in every walks and stages of life. Some of these texts may not be of any interest. However they may contain vital information in some cases. People meet so many reading cases such as advertisements poems, stories, health reports, court decisions in their everyday lives. To read and comprehend these is a prerequisite to live in a modern and democratic society.

Reading is one of the most effective ways for the systematic improvement of ones linguistic skills and personality. The educational barriers which have a highly deteriorative effect on social development can be minimized by the help of reading.

Reading is observed to have important benefits and a privilege compared with the limited information provided by the audio-visual tools such television, films and radio. One can make decision from wide spectrum of choices by reading in contrast to the limited popular alternatives offered by the advertisements. He/she can choose the most suitable time and place to read with pace which was entirely at his/her will. One can give a break whenever one wants and start reading again. One can start thinking whenever one desires. This flexibility increases the importance of reading as fun and educational purpose. (Bamberger, 1990: 3). Education and teaching are mainly based upon reading. That is why reading has a great importance for education to reach its targets. Since reading is important part of perception, it is one of the major tools employed by every course in education. It is not possible for a student with insufficient reading skill to be successful since major portion of the courses require reading.

The descriptions of reading make two features apparent namely to see and recognize the symbols forming the text and perceive their meanings. During reading process the letter, lines, graphics and various symbols are converted into mental concepts and stored in memory. It has been established that although the information is taken in words they are combined and converted into sentences in mind and stored like that. (Gauquelin, 1993:133). Reading described as a complex process is physiological with regard to its audio visual characteristics and mental with regard to its perception.

The efforts to apply this complex process to people is called "reading education". This is mainly based upon the improvement of the physical and mental capacities of the students rather than giving them the information related to reading.

Reading is an activity that can develop itself and can be developed. The reading skills acquired by the first reading and writing studies can be developed with further educational processes. Reading education as other linguistic skills is a process which continues from cradle to grave. *Goethe* expressed this as:

> "Nobody knows how much time and effort are required to learn reading. I spent eight years of my life for that and I can't tell that I have reached by goal yet".

Reading is a process of habit and practice. If a person who gave a prolonged break to reading, reading ability will surely deteriorate. He will have difficulty to understand the written text he may even forget reading totally. The process of improving reading skills is dependent on the foundations constructed during compulsory education. The more robust and strong these foundations are the better and more successful of the improvement of reading skills in future periods. A person must reach to a level of reading 400 words per minute in sound and 600-700 words in silence as

result of compulsory education which takes place up to 15 years of age.

In the starting phase of the reading education the first thing to be done is the determination of the reading and comprehension levels and rates of the students. This must be followed by the studies of the perception of the symbols, words and the texts in order to improve the comprehension and the reading rates of the students give them necessary vocabulary and enable them to catch the thoughts of the writer.

Teacher's Role

One of the important elements of reading education is teacher. The teachers assume a very important role in the development of reading skills during primary education. In order to achieve successful reading skills we must take reading, writing, speaking and listening capacities into account as a whole. One must use all the skills of a language in order to acquire knowledge in skills (ASCD, 1997). Teachers obtain successful result when they use different modeling and reading strategies (Braunger and Lewis, 1997). The teachers have important roles in this respect. The important points which the classroom teacher in the first stage and language teachers in the second stage must take into account are as follows:

1. The teacher must carry out the activities urging the students to do reading by themselves. The teacher must give the students the habit of reading newspapers and other print media.

2. The teacher must carefully follow and monitor the reading and comprehension levels of the children and prepare follow-up charts for each student for this purpose.

3. The teacher must adopt a firm and establish strategy in reading education and must stick to it.

4. The teacher must determine the reasons behind the reading difficulties of the students and try to eliminate them.

5. The teacher must refrain from excessively harsh or relaxed behaviour in the classroom. He/She must provide a relaxing medium where the students can freely express themselves without being scared of making mistakes.

6. The teacher must be careful about the factors which may affect the reading behaviour of the students such as the font size, line length, vocabulary, language, style etc in the books he/she recommends to the children.

7. The teacher must carry out reading education in order to give the children the consciousness of being a member of democratic and modern society. In other words the teacher must aim at the development of the personalities of the students

8. The teacher must try to determine the social, cultural and economic level of students and prepare his/her activities accordingly.

9. The teacher must take the difference of the reading levels of the students into account and must carry out activities in order to improve the levels of the handicapped students.

10. The reading education must be carried out in a way starting from the students and expanding toward outside in order to make them understand and evaluate the social problems.

11. The teacher must not force the students to read certain types of books.

12. The teacher must establish a competitive spirit among the students to read books.

13. The choice of the texts to be used in reading education is also important. The texts must be selected in a way that they tell the importance of social harmony, self and environmental protection and the characteristics of the local region.

14. The students must be given the methods and hints to comprehend, interpret and criticize the text they read.

15. The teacher should not see reading education as an individual activity.

Conclusion

The teacher has a role to take part in creating meaningful classroom situations which the students might find themselves in. To promote interaction with the text teachers should:

- provide a meaningful context by discussing related topics to aid with inferencing from the text;

- encourage students to learn words for the things they want to know about;

- use the message of the text as a point of departure for discussion rather than the syntactical features;

- develop meaning for the text cooperative by using a problem-solving approach:

- create a learning situation where students can feel comfortable about making mistakes and are therefore willing to speculate interpretations.

Reading comprehension entails more than knowledge of vocabulary and syntax. It also requires ability to perceive the exact nature of the passage being worked with. Students must learn to detect mood and intentions as well as factual detail. These elements are conveyed by the syntactic and lexical choices of the writer, which passes from selected register, or level of language and stylistic devices.

For student-text interaction, students need to acquire the skills of taking information directly from the foreign-language text without the interposition of their mother tongue. This skill is best learned in progressive stages, with students practicing regularly with materials that approximate their level of proficiency (Rivers 1981: 368-86). Level of proficiency, however, is not enough without the motivational element of material of interest to the students. They need to be attracted to read materials for

the same natural purposes as they read in their native language (Ertas, 1994:12). Reading is one of the basic linguistic skills and has an important place in the life of people. Because understanding, socialization, acquiring knowledge and individual development is based upon reading. Education and teaching was founded on reading as well as listening and following. Therefore reading skill has a marked effect in achieving the educational targets.

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Role of Reinforcement and Punishment in Teaching and Learning Process

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ABSTRACT

In this article an effort has been made to explain reinforcement. Ever since this world came into being, human being have been using reinforcement consciously or unconsciously to get work done. It was in the 20th century that behaviorists came out with an explicit idea of measuring the affects of reinforcement. It has very rightly been termed a double edged weapon, wherein it can stimulate an individual to perform wonders and dishearten him to abandon his efforts altogether. Positive reinforcement, if properly administered not only encourages the students to put in more effort but leads them to creativity. On the other hand punishment has ruined a large number of talented students who could have contributed efficiently and effectively.

Any event that increases responding is called reinforcement and any event that decreases responding is called punishment. There are two types of reinforcement, positive and negative reinforcement. Positive reinforcement is any stimulus whose presentation increases the probability that a behavior will occur. The use of positive reinforcement to guide human behavior is quite prevalent. A second grader completes a homework assignment and teacher gives the student a gold star as a reinforcer. A corporate executive increases her productivity and the boss gives her a bonus.

A negative reinforcer is a stimulus whose removal increases the probability that a behavior will occur. One common example of the use of negative reinforcement to increase a behavior in humans is the seat belt buzzer in a car. When we start a car without first fastening the seat belt, a loud, aversive buzzer sounds. This is a negative reinforcer. To remove this aversive stimulus, we increase the behavior of putting on our seat belts. So both negative and positive reinforcement increases the occurrence of a behavior. With negative reinforcement, the organism emits a behavior to secure relief from an aversive stimulus. With positive reinforcement the organism emits a behavior to obtain a reward.

According to Skinner, if an organism exhibits a behavior and receives a positive reinforcement, the rate of behavior will increase. Similarly, if a particular behavior causes a negative reinforcer to be removed, that behavior will also increase. If an organism exhibits a behavior and receives a punisher, the rate of behavior will decrease.

Punishment is the opposite of reinforcement. A punisher is a stimulus whose presentation decreases the probability a behavior will occur. Punishment is used to decrease the frequency of behavior. It is frequently used by schools and parents to eliminate certain behaviors in children. Because of its frequent use, understanding the

effect of punishment on learning is an important as understanding the effects of reinforcement.

Punishment is often accompanied by serious negative side effects (Newsome, Favell & Rincover, 1983). Punishment does not develop positive behavior. If we wish to develop positive behavior in students, we must use some form of reinforcement. A punished behavior is not eliminated, is only suppressed. The student might not recognize the punishment being linked to a specific behavior. Punishment can often result in undesirable emotional responses and may even lead to escape or avoidance behavior. It may lead to aggression. Punishment may even cause physical or psychological harm.

Punishment often causes avoidance behavior; for example, in schools where the principal is the one whose main job seems to be administer swats to unruly students, students often avoid the principle. If children are frightened of school or of studying around the house of fear of being punished, it will be difficult to help them develop adoptive skills. A person who has been frustrated through punishment is likely to be upset. Depending on the person's level of maturity and the degree to which person holds the punisher responsible for the aversiveness of the situation, the recipient of punishment is likely to want to get even. Many children "declare war" in this way and nurse their need for revenge for remarkably long periods of time.

Some educators and critics of education contend that children approach our schools with a great deal of eagerness and creativity and then as they go through school they are punished and told what not to do so often they lose their spontaneity and become apathetic. The problem is one of overgeneralization; the child learns not only to avoid the specific undesirable behavior but also to avoid a large number of desirable behaviors.

Punishment, particularly corporal punishment refers to the infliction of physical pain in order to create an

aversive situation for the recipient of the pain. Corporal punishment is very likely to lead to aggressive behavior on the part of the child and/or others watching the punishment. A child is likely to think "if mother an father solve their problems by hitting me, then that's way I'll solve my problems too".

The following are appropriate general guideline for dealing with failure (Vockell, 1993)

- Encourage students to evaluate themselves primarily with reference to their own past performance rather than in constant competition with others.

- Think before you either criticize or praise. Either may be appropriate at the right time, but try to have a good reason for either criticism or praise and direct it toward activity rather than person.

- When children do well at legitimate tasks, praise them for it.

- When students perform badly at legitimate tasks, help them feel dissatisfied. They should not feel ashamed, obsessively guilty, or disgusted with themselves.

- Focus both your praise and your criticism on tasks not on child's personality.

- When you fail at something yourself, express dissatisfaction and work hard to overcome the obstacles. Students can learn how to deal with failure by watching others.

- When you (students) fail at a task, remember that you are not a failure. Figure out exactly what went wrong, and try to succeed the next time.

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