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Sino-Russia Strategic Partnership: The Case Study of Shanghai Cooperation Organization (SCO)

Jamshed Khan

Bannu Model School and College Bannu

Razia Sultana

Shaheed Benazir Bhutto Women University Peshawar

Since the dissolution of Soviet Union, the US and its Western allies have dominated the global affairs through numerous political and economic organizations. In the same token China and Russia have established close ties after the termination of Cold War to attain regional security so that to minimize the US penetration in the Central Asian region. In this article, the area of Central Asia has been taken as a case study to demonstrate the China-Russia partnership through a multilateral organization; specifically the Shanghai Cooperation Organization. This article discusses the theoretical underpinnings of the Soft Balancing in the SCO. It further elaborates the Sino-Russian cooperation through SCO in terms of balancing the US preponderance. This paper evaluates historical competition among Great Powers in Central Asian region, and further elaborates on the formation of the Shanghai Cooperation Organization¹. While this article argues that the main focus of SCO was strengthening regional security issues, fight against terrorism, ethnic separatism and religious extremism. However it also aimed to counter the US influence in the region through multilateral organization.

Keywords: SCO, soft balancing, Central Asia, Russia, China

Central Asia, SCO and the Great Powers Competition

Geo-strategic and geo-economic importance of Central Asian and Eurasian region cannot be even neglected in the 21st century global and regional theatre. According to Halford Mackinder Central Asian is a heartland region and those who controlled the heartland controlled the world (Mackinder, 2004, p.298-303). After the Soviet collapse the Central Asian

Correspondence concerning this paper should be addressed to Mr. Jamshed Khan, Lecturer at Bannu Model School and College Bannu, Pakistan. He may be contacted at nashadwajid@gmail.com

Prof. Dr. Razia Sultana has worked on methodology and guided to improve the theoretical part of the study.

States achieved independence and hence global powers started penetration in the region. In addition to this the region also witnessed the emergence of nationalism and spread of religious ideology (Hynek, 2021, p.78). The US has minimal interests in the Central Asian region until 9/11. But 9/11 event changed this perception and later on it establish partnership with CARs which pave the way for the establishment of military bases in the region. It also provided an opportunity to establish military base in Pakistan. It was a turning point where competition for the control and domination of Central Asian energy resources, transportation routes and strategic maneuvering in region emerged among the big powers. The great power competition is pertinent to understand the nature of divergence and convergence of interests of different competitor such as US, China, Russia and also other regional powers (Nasir , 2007, p.23).

As the Central Asian region was under the control of USSR and it still regarded this area as a part of its near abroad. While having China on its side; both countries are devising strategies and diplomatic ties to limit the US influence in the region to some extent. Russia-China strategic partnership meant to end the hegemony of the US as a unilateral power. The term Great Game was coined by Arthur Conolly and presented by Rudyard Kipling in his novel *Kim* (Lansford , 2002, p.127-140). In the common perspective the Great Game was 19th century political and diplomatic confrontation between Great Britain and Tsarist Russia supremacy over Afghanistan, Central Asia and South Asia (Ingram, 1980, p.165). Tsarist Russia aim was to flex its muscles into the region to control Afghanistan so that to control the warm water. In the same vein Russia conquered the Central Asian states one by one which later gave birth to modern states of Kyrgyzstan, Kazakhstan, Tajikistan, Turkmenistan and Uzbekistan.

According to Peter Hopkirk the Great Game has three distinct phases (Hopkirk , 2002). The Russian expansionism towards Caucasus and Central Asia in the 19th century created an alarming situation for the British Indian Empire. The first phase of this competition started in the late 18th and 19th century with the expansionist policies of Tsarist Russia towards the Central Asian region. This caused alarming situation for the British India. To counter the Russian eastward expansion, the British has devised different policies to stop the Russian expansion towards India which was consider as “Jewel in the Crown”. The first phase of this competition ended in 1907 when Anglo-Russia convention was signed (Edwards , 2003, p. 88). The second phase was also like the first phase to dominate Asia and to expel Great Britain from India. This phase ended after the Bolshevik Revolution in 1917 with the end of Tsarist rule (Edwards , 2003, p. 88). The third phase of the Great Game started after Bolshevik Revolution which aimed to kick out the imperial

power from Asia but the main objectives of the competition remained the same i.e. security and power (Edwards , 2003, p.90). However, after the end of Cold War the old rivalry resurfaced where regional powers also start vying for power to get their share in the Central Asian minerals resources. The continuity of rivalry among different countries is termed as the New Great Game. Some scholars have described this competition as pipeline politics (Kleveman, 1996, p.155). On the other side of the equation, the newly emerged Central Asian States also faced inter- state conflicts, internal problems and economic crisis. Similarly terrorist tendencies also intensified after the Taliban occupation of Afghanistan which has produced a hope for the Central Asian militants to organize their own activities against the authoritarian regimes. After 9/11, the US arrival in Afghanistan in the pretext of War of Terrorism (WOT) both China and Russia supported the WOT but in long run it was seen as a strategic encirclement of the two powers (Smith, 1996, p.160). In this study new great game is contextualizes in the form of competition between the US and its allies (NATO plus ISAF) vs China, Russia and their allies.

The formation of SCO was China's top priority to enhance influence and stabilize the region for the sack of regional political and economic stability (Scott , 2019, p.1). In other words China is using SCO as a platform to get its share in the rich resources of the region. In the regional security parameters China main concerns are trying to curb and control the separatist elements in Xinjiang region of "XUAR" which has linked with the Central Asian militant organizations like IMU and ETIM. To avoid this danger China has initiated bilateral and multilateral collaboration with Central Asian states (Pradt, 2020, p.25). The Uighur community continued struggle for having independent province of East Turkestan was like an ulcer for China (Yuan , 2010, p. 856). That's why China is uses SCO as a legitimate tool for curbing the three evils through multilateral platform (Aris, 2009, p.457). According to Chinese scholars, SCO is an important forum for curbing the transnational non-traditional security threats (Aris, 2011, p.23). Consequently in 2001, the convention against the three evils of terrorism, separatism and extremism was signed (Chung , 2006, p.55). Later on, the establishment of Anti-Terrorist Structure was proposed by China which was successfully launched at Astana summit in 2005. Most of the SCO policies are formulated against the non-traditional security threats but there is an opinion among some academician that through this platform both Russia and China have formulated a joint structure to remove external powers from the region especially the US and NATO forces (Oldberg , 2007). In a nutshell, the study proposed that China is enhancing its leadership role in the global affairs through the formation of multilateral organization like SCO while it has also enhanced bilateral

relations with the resurgent Russia and Central Asian countries (Khetran , 2019, p. 84).

Shanghai Spirit and New Security Concept (NSC)

Both Russia and China are propagating “soft balancing” which is a non-military alliance focused to limit the third party role from their spheres of influence (Ferguson , 2012). After 9/11, the American attack on Afghanistan and Iraq further strengthened the unilateral position of the US. President Bush doctrine of national security strategy has further symbolized the unilateral security policy of US which has produced immense consequences for the international relations. This attitude triggered the approach of soft balancing among the emerging global powers. Thus the emerging powers are pursuing soft balancing through international institutions, regional organization, economic development and other diplomatic initiatives to counter the US unilateralism (Pape, 2005). After the culmination of Cold War and particularly the US attack on Iraq (2003) the theory of Soft Balancing was popularized by T. V Paul and Robert Pape (Paul, 2018). They are of the view that the time of traditional balance of power is over and no state can actively balance the US unilateralism or threatening it. They have presented another theory in contrast to hard balancing, which means there are other things; states are doing to counterbalance the US. Here T.V Paul proposed the theory of Soft Balancing which can be used as an alternative mechanism by “ Second Tier” state (in this research two second tier states have been analyzed i.e. China-Russia). In traditional hard balancing approach state used military might or made military alliances against their rivals for example NATO and (CSTO) by Russia. The case of soft balancing is different in approach, where states used non-military tools like institutions, diplomatic activities and economic sanctions to counter the aggressiveness of another state. Similarly many countries for example China, Russia, France and Germany coordinate their opposition to war in Iraq at the Security Council. Historically two institutions like the Concert of Europe (1815-1853) and League of Nations (1920-1939) are best example of soft balancing through institutions (Paul , 2018). Stephan Gill analyzed three basic elements of soft balancing i.e. to deny an area or a region to a powerful state, using multilateral organization and to expel state from any regional economic structure (Gill , 2011, p. 115). In this study the theory of soft balancing has been applied to demonstrate the Sino-Russia strategic partnership (Deng , 2007, p. 882) in Central Asia through the multilateral organization.

The Chinese Communist Party in its 17th Congress declared that it would focus to establish a harmonious world to promote peace at global affairs. This statement clarifies that all countries should come together to solve the various national and international problems through dialogue and

harmony. During the mid-1990s the global and regional security program of China has changed significantly. After the 9/11, China has increased its diplomatic relations with different countries and region in the world through the NSC. In 1998 the Chinese information office issued a statement which stated “the world is undergoing profound changes and the Cold War mentality need to be discarded and to develop NSC, in the prevailing zero sum international relations (Nasir, 2007,p.40). Originally Chinese scholars of IR presented the foreign policy concept in 1996 which is called New Security Concept. They rejected the era of Cold War antagonism and alliances system as it was outdated. According to NSC the new era belongs to peace and development which should be the core values of international relations (Larus, 2005, p.221). Accordingly this also embraces a liberal security concept which is cooperative in nature based on confidence building measures (Larus, 2005, p.222). It is rooted in the traditional Chinese culture of peace and harmony based on five principles of peaceful coexistence firstly appears in 1954 (Larus, 2005, p.222). The basic ingredients of NSC were mutual trust (basis of SCO), mutual benefit (approach of cooperation), equality (guarantee mutual cooperation (aim of SCO) and common development. The UN charter also supported these five principles of NSC. (China’s Information Office, 2000). For understanding the nature of NSC and Chinese approach towards establishing new world order of multilateralism and its penetration towards the Russian peripheries has been expanded through SCO. After the Cold War the US has evolved into a sole super power and it also strengthening military alliances with other countries which is threatening China peaceful rise that’s why it has trying to popularize New Security Concept (Larus, 2005, p.224).

The essence of SCO is termed as ‘Shanghai Spirit’ which is ingrained in the organization’s founding charter (<https://cis-legislation.com/document.fwx?rgn=3851>). Mutual trust, shared benefit, equal rights, talks, respect for each other cultural values and development for all are the internal normative characteristics, while non-alignment and non-targeting of any country is the external norms of SCO. According to Timur Dadabaev “it has also included rhetoric on anti-colonialism and anti-imperialism” (Dadabaev, 2014, p.111). This shared norms and common values also help in the elimination of external influence or influence of other cultural in the region. The Shanghai Spirit and ‘Five Principles of Peaceful Coexistence’ in Chinese international relations perspectives are analogues to each other (Pradt, 2020, p. 64). Thus both China and Russia through SCO prevents the cultural values of other states (Ferguson , 2012). The charter of SCO contains these components as it signifies the guiding principles of the organization. This spirit aims to unite different political system and diverse ideologies in a single forum. All the members of SCO have different political, economic and social system and even some analysts questioned the long term sustainability of the

organization. However, the SCO forum embraces this diversity which creates harmony and solidarity among the member countries (Aris, 2011, p.11). The Shanghai Spirit is a set of core values which has enabled the group members to demarcate the borders in a very short span of time. In the same token Shanghai Spirit provides guaranty to the smaller states against the powerful states of the organization (Edwards , 2003, p.87). Russia and China uses Shanghai Spirit as a tool to establish political, economic and security connections with Central Asia and great powers (Kavalski, 2010, p.149). According to Alexei Borodavkin, the Russian Federation Deputy Minister of Foreign Affairs.

All the signatories of SCO are committed to the openness and equality in the SCO which has been established through the Shanghai Spirit. The diversity of cultural values and system among the SCO members have speed up and bolstered the main activities of the forum so that to transform it into an important organization for regional and global power politics (Aris , 2011, Ibid).

Inter-ethnic and inter-state conflict that emerged after the Soviet withdrawal was minimized due to the formation and development of SCO. There was a possibility of many inter-state conflicts that would be very difficult for them to control bilaterally but SCO enabled them to communicate and cooperate on regular basis. In this regard the S-5 mechanism facilitated agreement on resolving the border issues (MacHaffie, 2021, p.4).

Broadly speaking the NSC means equality, dialogue, trust and cooperation in relations with other countries. The NSC was specially developed to advance Chinese views on multilateral world order in a response to the US global dominancy and its military alliances with other countries (Finkelstein , 2005, p.12). Although China has security relations with many countries but it also opposes the enlargement of military alliances at global level (Information Office of the State Council of the People's Republic of China, China's National Defense in 2008).

Contrary to this, the Shanghai Spirit is considered by the US and Western scholars as antithetical because most of the members are ruled by authoritarian regimes which could not provide individual freedom (Tisdall, 2006). That's why they have lower ranks on the list of human right watch (Bailes & Dunay, 2007, p. 13). The colour revolutions in Central Asia aimed to install democratic government were allegedly US backed after that Askar Akayev the Kyrgyz president tender resignation. At the same token the revolution in Uzbekistan was crushed with brutal force. Soon after the Andijan massacre the Uzbek government in 2005 SCO summit at Astana

demanded the withdrawal of US bases from its soil (SCO Annual Summit, Astana, 5 July 2005). This move of the SCO has created suspicion among Western and US scholars regarding the SCO anti-Western approach. According to their views, Russia and China has been using SCO as a mechanism to oppose Western principles of democracy and human rights (Ambrosio , 2008, p.1324). “SCO can be seen as China and Russia opposition to the US unipolarity” (Ambrosio , 2008, Ibid). Similarly NSC according to some critics is Russo-Chinese tool to counter the US presence in the region. They are of the view that Chinese security policy will have no profound impacts on economic developments and peaceful environmental changes. It is indeed a great policy in paper only that cannot be implemented particularly (Larus, 2005).

The Evolution of Shanghai Five

Shanghai-5 is the milestone of multilateral cooperation in Central Asia led by China with Russian backing, along with other members such as, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, and Tajikistan. It was started with a low profile but over the period of time, it has grown into a high profile multilateral regional organization. Due to the success and progress of SCO many other states from Central Asia and South Asia had shown willingness to have membership of the organization. In 2001 Uzbekistan and in 2017 India and Pakistan joined the organization as new members.

After the termination of Cold War and dissolution of USSR in 1991 the main aim of Beijing was to secure its western borders especially Xinjiang. The Uighur community in the region wanted an independent state that created insecurity in the whole region. The Chinese government has been trying to suppress this movement and termed the Uighurs as separatist. After the Soviet breakup more than 300,000 Uighurs were living in Central Asian Republics. Moreover, China also desires to boost its interest globally to have say in the external environment (Lanteigne , 2005, p.1). Its opening to international institution in the late 1980s was a driving force and the emergence of multilateral approach towards its foreign policy (Lanteigne , 2005, p.1). According to China’s foreign policy the unipolar world has seriously affected the security management around the globe. For China developing confidence building measures in the region was necessary to enhance its internal security and also to ensure peaceful and stable borders. That is why it has initiated the idea of S-5 to create CBMs to solve border disputes with Russia and Central Asian States (Odgaard , 2009, p.182).

On 26 April 1996 in Shanghai the heads of states of China, Russia, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan and Tajikistan formally agreed to set up Shanghai Five mechanism. The first document of the S-5 aimed to develop Confidence

Building Measures (CBMs) among its member countries after a decade of mistrust and acrimony and hence the way was paved for dialogues (*Xinhua News Agency*, 27 April, 1997). Since the culmination of Cold War it was one of the most important developments in the Central Asian region for the restoration of peace and stability. Several meetings S-5 were held to formulate strategies for bringing stability in the region. Initially 22 agreements were signed among the S-5 members. China share 7000 km long border with these states and the history of these borders were often complicated. Historically there were very few disputed areas along the border regions. Both Soviet Union and China have deployed large number of armed troops in the border region during the Cold War, because of some disputed areas as well as ideological confrontation (*Beijing Xinhua*, March 16, 1993). In the 1970s the border between USSR and China was heavily armed where mutual threat perceptions characterised this relationship (Pradt, 2020, p .23). For example in the Damansky² Island military clashes occurred that resulted in the killing of 59 Chinese soldiers (Lewis and Litai , 2006, p.134). An expression of the political détente was the mutual withdrawal of 80,000 troops from their borders. In 1990s both countries normalized their relationship which led to subsequent border talks among the Shanghai Five members. The diplomatic thaw of the 1980s continued with the same pace and later in 1996 Boris Yeltsin and Jiang Zemin signed a “strategic partnership” (Nasir, 2007). This partnership was based on pragmatic interests of both the states and was not directed against any third country (Nasir, 2007, p.76). These positive developments between the two countries almost minimized the tension and borders disputes. In a result, Beijing got approximately 340 sq kilometers of disputed territory while it also dropped all other land claims against Moscow in the region (Stronski and Ng, 2018, p.6). Similarly, in the United Nations both countries started coordination and in 1997 they jointly presented deceleration in the UN for the establishment of multipolar world (<http://www.un.org/documents/ga/docs/52/plenary/a52-153.htm>).

In this connection, the revival of relationship between Russia and China can be linked to the exclusion of US influence from the region. This new strategy not only strengthen Sino-Russia ties but it also help the smaller states of the region. For many analysts this means a Russo-Chinese bloc, based on overlapping views of geo-political reality. Such as break up from uni-polar to multipolar system, because they did not see their security and economic interests in the US and Western dominated world (Lukin , 2018, p.78).

² Zhenbao in Chinese.

China and Russia the sole representatives of non-Western world in the Security Council can play a better role as an equalizer the US and both have similar stance on issues, like Iranian Nuclear programme. Similarly, both wanted to reform the Western and American dominated international financial system. That is why both are struggling to introduce regional currencies in trade. They also agreed to enhance the role of non-Western countries in the financial affairs of world system like the World Bank and International Monetary Fund (IMF).

After the USSR dismemberment the unsettled borders created uncertainty and security issues among Russia, China and the newly emerged Central Asian Republics. It was also a potential threat to the relationship of China and CARs (Rashid , 2000, p.186). In this regards the China-Russia détente played important role and thus began the process of collaboration with a hope to put their relationship on a peaceful track (Hyer, 1996). The Russian President Boris Yeltsin second visit to China was very important development (Garver , 2016, p.544).

In initial meeting of S-5 the main task was to develop confidence building measures and friendly relations among the neighbouring states. All the member states agreed that they would not engage military force in the border region neither would they conduct military exercises against each other. In case of any military activities, another member country should be kept informed. Similarly, in case of military exercises the member states will also be invited to observe their planned military exercises. This agreement boosted the spirit of peaceful collaboration and helped to prevent the chance of conflicts in the border regions.

The S-5 second summit of S-5 was held in Russia on 24th April 1997. It was an important summit in a sense that the Head of States of S-5 agreed to reduce the military forces at their respective borders (Shambaugh , 2002, p.288). Further, an agreement was signed to reduce and limit various weapons installations on borders and they also pledged to not use force against each other. Furthermore, the military equipments at borders were solely defensive in nature. It was agreed that their patrol forces will stay one hundred km away from the borders (*Renmin Ribao* .eng April 25, 1997). This was an encouraging agreement between China and CARs. After the summit a joint control group was formed to inspect military units deployed at borders (Altymashev , 2011). This agreement was important in a sense because of it the tensions at borders were reduced (Lanteigne , 2005, p.34).

On the invitation of Kazakh President, the Chinese President visited Kazakhstan to attend the third summit of S-5 in Alma Ata on 3rd July 1998.

All the leaders pledged to oppose separatism; terrorism and drug trafficking that have jeopardized the regional security. The member states also agreed to improve economic cooperation. This summit also reflected the expansion of its role to include counter-terrorism after the significant increase in terrorist activities in China and Central Asia (Nasir, 2007, p.76). In the statement which was issued after the meeting the member states agreed not to encroach in other's sovereignty and non-intervention in the internal affairs of another state. Their main concern was to oppose terrorism, separatism and drug trafficking (Mahmud , 2001, p.1). The Alma-Ata summit was held in the backdrop of shared desirability for security and cooperation (Tao , 2001, p.10). For Chinese government the main concerns were to delink the Uighur separatists and the Islamic Movements of Uzbekistan (IMU).

The fourth summit of S-5 was held at Bishkek (Kyrgyzstan) in 1999. In this summit the member states expressed their satisfaction over the previous achievements and they also reiterated their firm opposition to ethnic separatism, religious extremism and terrorism in the region (Mahmud , 2001, Ibid). It led to formulate friendly trade and economic policies of member countries towards each other due to which the volume of their bilateral trade enhanced. For example trade between China and Central Asian States increased from 465 million dollar to 1.5 billion dollar in a very short span of time (Garver , 1998, p.122).

On 5th July 2000 the next summit of the S-5 was held at Dushanbe (Tajikistan). Once again the five countries reiterated their desire to establish friendly relations and international cooperation in the Central Asian region. They collectively opposed conflicts, threats and external intervention as it has complicated security situation of the whole region. The Dushanbe Summit also discussed and expressed stand on several key international issues especially uni-polarity and multilateral nature of the world system. They also agreed to declare Central Asia region as nuclear weapons-free zone (Bakshi , 2002, p.267). This multilateral cooperation led to the settlement of China border with Tajikistan in their bilateral agreements. In retrospect, the process of multilateralism in the form of S-5 was step by step development.

Emergence of Multilateralism: The Formation of SCO

After the Uzbekistan entry to the forum as a new member the S-5 was transformed into a new multilateral regional organization named after Chinese city "Shanghai". Presently it has 8 permanent members both from Central Asia and South Asia.³ SCO has very clear stands against the three evils of

³ China, Russia, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Tajikistan, Uzbekistan, India and Pakistan.

terrorism, extremism and separatism as well as other organized crimes and drugs trafficking (Aris, 2009, p.476).

According to Stephen Aris, the main task of the SCO is: strengthening mutual confidence, friendship and good neighborly relations between the participating states; encouraging effective cooperation between them in the political, trade-economic, scientific-technical, cultural, educational, energy, transportation, ecological and other areas; joint efforts to maintain and ensure peace, security and stability in the entire region to build a new democratic, just and rational political and economic international order (Aris, 2001).

The processes and interactions are institutionalized through different organs of SCO especially Heads of State Council, the Secretariat, and the anti-terrorism structure (MacHaffie, 2021, p.8). In that regards SCO is the only such organization which has a counter terror unit RATS, established in November 2003. RATS is a permanent body of the organizations with its headquarters at Tashkent (Article 10 RATS Agreement, Article 3, 6, 2). The importance of RATS has been increasing since the US announcement to withdraw its forces from Afghanistan. RATS play an important role in combating terrorism and other emerging security challenges in the region. It also helps to enable the states to coordinate their national legislation and internal security measures. It has enabled the individual states to coordinate their national legislative and internal security measures with the SCO members so that to develop operative body against terrorist elements that operates in the region. (Aris, 2001, p.469). Many analyst thinks, that the withdrawal of NATO and ISAF forces might be help the Taliban revival, which in turn would have spilling over effects on other countries of the region including China and Russia. RATS work and coordinate with the relevant organization of the member states and with other important international organization tackling the three evils (*Xinhua*, 17 June 2004). It also took assistance from the member states in the preparation of organizing joint anti-terrorist exercises and the conduction of operations against the three evils. All the legal drafts to cover the three evils of the organization are saved in RATS data bank. In addition to this, RATS also organizing seminars, conferences and workshops for creating awareness and sharing assistance in fighting the three evils (Xiaodong, 2012, p.18). RATS has its own decision making body comprises of a leading officials from the member countries which are appointed by the Head of States of SCO. It also shares information nexus for which think tank are dedicated to study the matter of terrorism (<http://ecrats.org/en/>)

Organizational Structure of SCO

For smooth functioning different bodies have been added to the organization which are working under the auspices of SCO charter. In this regards the following bodies have been established so far:

- ▶ The Council of Heads of State (SCO Charter, Article, 4)
- ▶ The Council of Heads of Government (Prime Ministers) (SCO Charter, Article, 4)
- ▶ The Council of Ministers of Foreign Affairs (SCO Charter, Article, 7)
- ▶ Meetings of Heads of Ministries and/or Agencies (SCO Charter, Article, 8)
- ▶ The Council of National Coordinators (SCO Charter, Article, 9)
- ▶ The Regional Anti-terrorist Structure (RATS) (SCO Charter, Article, 10).

SCO document came into effect in 2001 and became legal base for the formation of the organization. All the signatories solemnly declared the creation of SCO with the aims of strengthening mutual trust, mutual cooperation for peace and security in Eurasia and to strengthen regional security (SCO charter). According to SCO charter, the highest decision body is Council of Head of States. Its main tasks are to identify the policies and to provide directions to different activities of the organization. It also determines the principles of concerning the internal structure and working of the organization, how to cooperate with other states/organizations and to examine the emerging international problems (Nasir, 2007, p. 42). The heads of states gatherings are held annually according to rotation system or alphabetic order of the member states, where the hosting state holds the presidency of the Organization for a whole year (SCO Charter, Article 5).

The second organ of the SCO is Council of Head of Governments / Prime Ministers conference. This body aims to adopt the budget; to determine the important areas in SCO countries for economic policies; this council meets once in a year (SCO Charter, Article 6). Foreign Ministry Council is mainly responsible for the prevailing issue inside SCO operations along with the preparation of SCO Council of Head of states meeting and the enforcement of its resolution and debates on emerging international issues (SCO Charter, Article 7). The foreign minister of the host country acts as the chairman of the foreign ministry council meetings, who also represent the external affairs of the organization. Another important organ of the organization is head of agencies, which deals with specialized area that would be discussed before the meeting by the members. The member countries send their respective members of different ministries to attend the meeting. Usually these meetings are attended by the attorneys generals, ministers of defence, economy and commerce, transport, culture and law enforcement agencies of

SCO members (SCO Charter, Article 8). Another body of the organization is the Council of National Coordinators which usually meets thrice in a year. Its basic jobs are managing and coordinating day to day activities as well as taking necessary action in the preparation of SCO high level meetings (Nasir, 2007). The National Coordinators is appointed by the organization members according to the internal rules and procedures. The member of the host country becomes the chairman (SCO Charter, Article 9). Secretariat is located at Beijing which is the permanent executive body of the organization and headed by secretary general which is nominated by foreign minister council. The main decision of the organization is taken by this body which formulates and coordinates organizational, legal and technical support among the member states. Secretary General of the organization is appointed from the permanent states for the period of three years on rotational basis based on Russia alphabetical order (Qahtani, 2006 p.135). Secretary General is assisted by many other officials in the secretariat (SCO Charter, Article 11). With the passage of time SCO has established links with other organizations and in 2004 the UN has granted observer status.

Areas of Cooperation in the SCO

To cater the increasing priorities and requirements of the member states new organs were established within the organization. After the demarcations of borders the focus of the organization widens to other transnational issues especially in the security fields because such issues can be addressed collectively. Initially the main focus of the organization was non-traditional security threats but over the decades priorities have been shifted towards other areas (Charter of the SCO, Article 3). The Taliban controlled of Afghanistan and the continuing unrest in Central Asia has created insecurity for the S-5 members which were further aggravated after 9/11. Three months later the members of S-5 signed and adopted resolution *Shanghai Convention on Combating Terrorism, Separatism and Extremism*. This resolution was signed by all members so that they may share and exchange cooperation (Aris, 2001, p. 465). The decision to establish anti-terrorist body was also taken in this meeting; however it was formally established in 2003. This counter terrorism treaty was the first one implemented in the new century (Guang, 2009, p.165). For implementation of *Shanghai Convention on Terrorism*, RATS play key role regarding the terrorist activities and it works as a nucleus for sharing intelligence against the terrorist networks of the region (Aris, 2013). Similarly extreme poverty in the Central Asia region is another concern of the SCO which in turn creates insecurity because many people have joined militant organizations for economic purposes. In that sense the organization has economic priorities by encouraging mutual trade (Nasir, 2007).

Another concern of the organization was to control arms and drug trafficking in the region (Lukin , 2004). SCO focuses on economic activities has been persistent and has enhanced over the first few years. During the 2002 SCO summit, the Minister of Chinese Foreign Trade and Economic Cooperation stated “our future negotiation will be based on the trade facilitations, investments and to set up Free Trade Agreement (Leland , 2005, p.41). The member of the organization also signed a framework of multilateral trade agreements in 2003.

Security paradigm was the main impetus for SCO creation however economic cooperation is emerging future concerns of the member states. SCO charter has the agenda to improve regional economic cooperation in different fields and to create favorable environment for trade and technologies (Charter of the SCO, Article 3).

To improve practical interaction among the members financial policy of the organisation, SCO business council and SCO interbank association was also initiated. Besides security and economic cooperation, other areas of cooperation in SCO are social and cultural cooperation. Many members are trying to add another element in SCO i.e. to create common culture space among its members (Aris, 2013, p.4). In the Bishkek summit held in 2007 the member states also proposed common education system across the region, such as SCO University.

Conclusion

In this globalized world under the umbrella of liberal institutionalism theory of international relations the inter-state organization are the main tools to advance the interests of states and counter their political opponents with soft balancing. In this connection, about Twenty years ago China and Russia along with CARs made wise decision to establish a regional multilateral organization which effectively copes with the emerging non-traditional security threats that besets the region. This strategic partnership by China and Russia was aimed at countering US influence. This paradigm shift after the disintegration of USSR gave birth to Shanghai -5 which was later on renamed as SCO. It was China policy of soft power that enhances cooperation among the smaller and powerful states of the region, because the organization treated smaller and bigger powers on equal terms. It has collectively solved the border problems peacefully which was escalating into wider conflicts. With the passage of time cooperation among the SCO members enhanced from security to economic one which was later also expanded to culture, science and technology and education. After the Bishkek Summit in 2005, it became an integral part of world affairs. With the rise of China its importance is equally increasing. In 2017 India and Pakistan membership has further

broaden the scope of the organization. This organization has successfully projecting soft balancing against the US led international world order.

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Determinants of Informal Competition faced by Formal Firms in Pakistan: An Empirical Evaluation from 2013 World Bank Enterprise Survey

Arshiya Miraj, Samina Naveed and Ayesha Nazuk

National University of Science and Technology (NUST), Islamabad

There is no denying in the fact that informal sector of any economy offers employment flexibility by absorbing a pool of labor force. However, the rapid progression of the informal sector in Pakistan and the consequent increase in competition faced by the formal firms urge a need to understand the dynamics of informal competition. The current study is an attempt to identify the core factors responsible for the incidence of informal competition faced by formal firms in Pakistan, along with an investigation of the determinants of the severity of this competition. The study investigates the variables of firm's characteristics and regulatory measures in order to examine the incidence and severity of informal competition faced by formal firms employing World Bank Enterprise Survey 2013 (WBES). The study not only conducts frequency analysis of the variables but based on the nature of data; it uses the logit and ordered logit techniques to determine the significant variables. The results of the study show that out of total of 1125 formal firms used in the analysis, 583 firms (46.75%) reported facing informal competition. Among these firms facing informal competition, only 16.98% reported informal competition as no obstacle in terms of its severity, however, rests of the firms (almost 83 %) consider the severity of informal competition as an obstacle in one or the other form and consider informal competition as a threat to their businesses. The result of logit model shows that characteristics of formal firms resembling more to the informal firms in terms of size and locality have more likelihood of facing the informal competition. However, in determining the severity of informal competition through the ordered logit model, the regulatory variables such as taxation, licensing & permits and corruption are found to be more significant and relevant. These results call on to introduce regulatory reforms making the regulatory system less burdensome and better enforcement mechanism of those reforms. There's a need to create ease for the existing formal firms to fulfill the regulatory requirements as well as encourage the informal firms to join the mainstream formal setup of economy. Furthermore, the current research can be extended by availing the latest dataset to explore the dynamics of informal sector and the resultant competition for the formal firms in an ever-changing business environment.

Keywords: informal competition, formal firms, firm characteristics, regulatory environment.

Job creation is a challenge for any government, nevertheless, the two goals of job creation and an efficient regulatory environment seem to move in opposite direction. Micro and small enterprises are generally an appropriate source of job creation, nonetheless, owing to their enlisting in the informal economy, many such organizations remain outside the regulatory framework (Leyva & Urrutia, 2020). Although there are multiple definitions of the informal economy, nevertheless, there are certain dominant characteristics of the entities clubbed in it, such as they involve small scale production, more labour-intensive nature, and an absence of formal labour contracts or guarantees. In the Fifteenth International Conference of Labour Statisticians, the ILO defined the informal sector as comprising unregistered enterprises that are unincorporated entities owned by individuals that are not formal legal entities (ILO,2000). OECD (1997), categorized the informal sector as enterprises either founded mostly in residencies rather than formal legal unit, having little capital input and partially or fully managed by family workers.

During the 1980s, the informal economy grew specifically in periods of economic adjustments, hence regarded as a feature of transition economy (Johnson, Kaufmann, & Schleifer 1997). According to Carr and Chen (2002), the era of the 1990s experienced the changing trend in world economics due to globalization and economic integration; changing the dynamics and underpinnings of the informal economy. Businesses started to shift towards informal arrangements to gain a competitive edge to minimize costs; trends of outsourcing the labour-intensive units and offshoring, popularized. Despite the documented evidence about the merits of the informal economy (Rossis, 2011; Thai & Turkina, 2013; Davis & Garb, 2015; Mukherjee, 2016; Etambakonga & Roloff, 2020), it is criticized mainly due to the issues of tax-evasion, and an ability to stay out of the regulatory framework (Ali & Najman, 2015). The informal sector grew, despite the prediction and suspicion of being absorbed by the formal sector. In the contemporary world, the informal sector has become a large source of employment generation and output production. There is a noteworthy convergence of interest in the informal economy as more and more development scholars and practitioners recognize that it is here to stay, in both new and old guises. The increasing size and worldwide practice of informal activities have its ramifications on the formal setup of the economy. Many researchers have argued that the informal sector is less productive, an unskilled labour-intensive sector with deficient financial base, improper infrastructure, regulation, and social benefits (De Soto, 1989, 2001; Djankov et al., 2005; Galal, 2005; Gardes & Starzec, 2009; El-Hamidi, 2011). There are certain factors considered to influence the severity of informal competition, such as financial constraints, corruption, labour regulations, and firm size (Friesen & Wacker, 2013; González & Lammana, 2007). Although many dimensions of the informal economy have

been studied by the researchers; nevertheless, research on the aspect of informal competition faced by formal firms, remains qualified (Ali & Najman, 2017).

Why the topic of informal competition is worth researching upon? Globally, a significant proportion of the workforce is engaged in the informal sector. According to International Labour Organization, the informal economy comprises half to three-quarters of all non-agricultural employment in developing countries, whereas it ranges from 6-20% in developed Eastern Europe and Commonwealth countries (ILO, 2002). Albeit it acts as a last resort for the unemployed stratum of the labour force, however, it generates an economic activity in the country which is beyond government control. According to the Labour Force Survey 2017-18, the share of employment in the informal sector is 72% of the total employments outside the agriculture sector; the proportion is even higher in the rural settings — 76% share of informal economy in the rural areas (PBS, 2018). With such a large share of the informal sector, it is judicious to analyse the intensity of competition exerted from it towards the formal sector. It is pertinent to explore the power of the informal sector because it may exploit labour, indulge in tax evasion, and minimize government's revenue due to no legal compulsion on it to comply with the regulatory requirements. Despite the criticism on the informal economy an alternative discourse is also taken by researchers; Mccan and Bahl (2017), empirically proved that competition from the informal firms can force the formal ones to develop new and better products. The informal economy has enabled countries like Russia and other states of the former Communist Bloc, to generate bearing-capacity against the shocks of economic and political transition of the 1990s; the informal firms satisfied the consumer demand and generated jobs to the population during the frugal times — typical of transition recession (Zabyelina, 2012).

Whether the informal economy is in interests of a country or against it, shall be a digression from the focal point of the current study; nevertheless, it can be inferred from the literature that it is important to analyse the strength of the informal sector so that when either government or the stakeholders in the formal sector, devise a strategy to deal with these firms then they have an idea of the potential of this sector. By analysing the extent of pressure from the informal sector, this study offers a starting point for the policymakers. To the best of our knowledge, all the previous studies in the domain relevant to the under study, have been conducted, predominantly in Latin America (González & Lamanna, 2007), Southeast Europe (Hudson et al., 2012), and Sub-Saharan African countries (Ali & Najman, 2017). The literature on the informal economy in the case of Pakistan is limited either to the calculation of the size of the informal sector, or to the reasons for the existence and

progression of the informal economy (Arby, Malik & Hanif, 2010; Kemal & Mahmood, 1998; Williams, Shahid & Martinez, 2016; Tahir & Tahir, 2012). Analysis of determinants of informal competition faced by formal firms in Pakistan is an untapped area; it becomes pertinent in the current scenario of the proliferating informal firms in Pakistan that an insightful study should be attempted to identify the core variables either relating to the firm's characteristics or regulatory measures to determine the extent and intensity of informal competition faced by formal firms. This study attempts to bridge that gap in the existing literature by investigating the role of a firm's characteristics and regulatory environment in determining the severity of informal competition faced by formal firms.

Literature Review

The informal economy and its linkages with the rest of the economy have remained a topic of debate in economics from several decades. Less productivity and inefficiency are often regarded as the main characteristics of firms operating informally; lack of access to financial resources and major reliance on labor as a factor of production, has been discussed as the basic reasons for the low productivity of informal firms (Friesen & Wacker, 2013). According to La Porta and Shleifer (2008), informal firms are extremely inefficient, small and unproductive compared to their formal counterparts; it is worth investigating that how this inefficiency and low productivity poses a threat for relatively efficient, resourceful and productive firms operating in a formal environment

Researchers have argued that there are different reasons for the firms to operate informally, such as the tax system, labor regulations, and social security systems (Blackburn, Bose, & Capasso, 2012; Khuong et al., 2020). Jha and Bag (2019), concluded that the topmost factors for the existence of the informal sector in India, are the lack of awareness and competition. Williams and Kedir (2017), analysed the World Bank Enterprise Survey data for Turkey; they concluded that formal firms that started from informal sector, have significantly higher productivity, growth rates, and annual sales. Damayanti, Scott, and Ruhanen (2018), used qualitative methods to conclude that in Indonesia, the informal workers serve as the backbone of the tourism sector. There are some promising features of the informal sector, such as their role in forcing the formal firms to offer innovative products and services under a market-competitive pricing structure (Mendi & Costamagna, 2017; Belete, 2018; Sheikh, 2019; Sharma & Kumar, 2019). Leyva and Urrutia (2020) developed a model for frictional labor markets, typical of a small open-economy model with informal sector; model was applied on the Mexican economy, by making use of the Encuesta Nacional de Ocupación y Empleo survey. Leyva and Urrutia (2020), discussed that the informal sector

helps to offset the impact of a tight regulatory framework for monitoring the fluctuations in employment.

Many researchers have discussed the factors that invoke the exertion of competition from the informal firms against their formal counterparts. The informal firms are characterized by the small size and single owners which enable them to have greater flexibility in terms of decisions related to internal matters, production processes, and labor management, informal firms are particularly responsive in times of market shocks, consequently are able to enter or exit markets, in accordance with the market forces (Saviotti & Pyka, 2008; Duchêne & Rusin, 2002; Gülbiten & Taymaz, 2000). By evading taxes and regulatory costs, not only a cost advantage is created for informal firms, rather it also leads to an informal competition faced by formal firms. The aforementioned cost advantage enables the informal firms to take market share from formal firms —by offering cheaper alternate products; higher the cost differential between formal and informal firms, greater will be the extent of informal competition towards formal firms. (La Porta & Shleifer, 2008; Schneider, Buehn & Montenegro, 2010; Mrkajić et al., 2018). Financial constraints that restrict the ability of the firms to innovate and invest as well as ill-designed labor market regulations, corruption, and firm size are significant contributors that determine the intensity of competition to be faced by formal firms from informal firms (Friesen & Wacker, 2013). Moreover, formal firms with low cost to entry and higher government regulatory frameworks face more informal competition (González & Lamanna (2007)).

A sufficient amount of work is present in an international context that investigates the informal sector and competition arising from it that affects the formal sector; nonetheless, the literature on the informal economy in the case of Pakistan is limited only to a few domains. Some studies have tried to estimate the size of the informal economy of Pakistan, while others have investigated the reasons for firms' enlisting and continuance in the informal economy (Kemal & Mahmood, 1998; Williams, Shahid & Martinez, 2016; Tahir & Tahir, 2012; Lent et al., 2019; Hayat & Rashid, 2020). Apart from these domains, there exist evidence of causation inquiries pertinent to the informal sector of Pakistan, for instance, Wu et al., (2019) analyzed the nexus between trade openness and an expansionary informal sector; a flexible informal sector is expected to yield the benefits from liberalization. Goel and Rehman (2020), analyzed the garment industry of Pakistan; garment exporters in the country that are formal firms registered under sole proprietorship, are more likely to collaborate with the informal sector to meet the demand pressure.

This study adds in the existing literature by investigating an important dimension in the informal sector of Pakistan. On account of a rapidly growing informal economy and the resultant competition arising from that sector, give rise to serious repercussions for the formal sector. This study thus intends to investigate the role of a firm's characteristics and regulatory environment in determining the severity of informal competition faced by formal firms. This study is a unique attempt to fill a crucial gap in the literature; by using empirical evidence from Pakistan, it shall offer a plan of action for the formal firms, and the relevant stakeholders to envisage an idea about the likelihood of pressure from the informal firms. This study is important because if it concludes a noticeable existence of the competition from informal firms, then it can offer newer avenues of research, for instance, the likelihood of increased attempt for innovation by the formal firms, consequent upon the aforementioned competition.

Method

In order to examine the factors that determine the presence and severity of informal competition faced by formal firms, this study employs following two models.

IC = f (Firm characteristics, Regulatory environment, Sectors/Industrie Model 1

SIC = f (Firm characteristics, Regulatory environment, Sectors/ Industries) Model 2

The dependent variable in model 1 is IC, it shows the incidence of informal competition faced by formal firms, while SIC is the dependent variable in model 2 which captures the severity of informal competition faced by formal firms. The explanatory variables are the firm's characteristics, regulatory environment, and sector(industries). The current study utilizes these explanatory variables as determinant of IC and SIC, following the studies of (Gonzalez & Lamanna, 2007; Friesen & Wacker, 2013; Hibbs & Piculescu, 2010; Hudson et al., 2012). These studies further subdivide the variables of firm's characteristics, regulatory environment and sector (industries) into sub-variables to identify the core individual component of these broad categories that can determine the presence and severity of informal competition faced by formal firms. Utilizing the sub-components as identified by the above-mentioned studies, the current study presents the following elaborated form of model 1 and model 2

$$IC_i = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 A_i + \alpha_2 S_i + \alpha_3 SP + \alpha_4 T_{4i} + \alpha_5 C_i + \alpha_6 Tax_i + \alpha_7 Ins_i + \alpha_8 PI_i + \alpha_9 Per_i + \alpha_{10} Corr_i + \alpha_{11} F_i + \alpha_{12} Chi + \alpha_{13} G_i + \alpha_{14} MV_i + \alpha_{15} OM_i + \alpha_{16} NMMP_i + \alpha_{17} RW_i + \alpha_{18} Text_i + \epsilon_i \quad (\text{Eq } 1)$$

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$$SIC_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 A_i + \beta_2 S_i + \beta_3 SP_i + \beta_4 T_i + \beta_5 C_i + \beta_6 Tax_i + \beta_7 Ins_i + \beta_8 PI_i + \beta_9 Per_i + \beta_{10} Corr_i + \beta_{11} F_i + \beta_{12} Ch_i + \beta_{13} G_i + \beta_{14} MV_i + \beta_{15} OM_i + \beta_{16} NMMP_i + \beta_{17} RW_i + \beta_{18} Text_i + \epsilon_i \quad (\mathbf{Eq\ 2})$$

In Equation 1 and 2, explanatory variable of Firm's characteristics is captured by following sub-variables: A=age, S=small size, SP=sole proprietor, T=town, C=credit. The regulatory environment is captured by following sub variables: Tax=taxation, Ins=inspections, PI=political instability, Per=Permits, Corr=corruption. The last independent variable of sectors (industries), is covered by: F=food, Ch=chemicals, G=garments, MV=motor vehicles, OM=other manufacturing, NMMP=non-metallic mineral products, RW=retail and wholesale, Text=Textile, and finally the ϵ_i represent the error term in the empirical equations.

Variables Description

In model 1, the dependent variable i.e., informal competition is a response of formal firms indicating whether it is facing competition from informal firms. This variable is binary in nature; 1 denotes a firm facing competition, while 0 is the contrary. This information is captured from the survey's question for formal firms —whether they face informal competition or not.

The dependent variable in model 2, is the severity of the informal competition faced by formal firms. It is a categorical variable having four categories from 0-3; 0 indicates no obstacle, while 3 denotes informal competition faced by the formal firm as a major obstacle. This variable is captured through formal firms' response to a question regarding their perception about considering informal competition as an obstacle to their operations.

The independent variable named firm characteristics includes small size, age, sole proprietorship, town, and credit as sub-variables. Small size is a dichotomous variable; 1 referring to the small size, while 0 represents otherwise. The age variable is continuous, determined from the year of establishment of the respective firm. Sole proprietor variable takes the value 1, if a firm is owned by a sole proprietor, while 0 represents otherwise.

A location is declared as a town if the population in the area of the firm's location is between 50,000 to 100,000, and it is not a capital city. The Credit variable records the overdraft facility or line of credit from a bank; it is coded as 1 if the respective firm availed it, and 0 otherwise. The regulatory environment is the second independent variable which includes taxation, inspection, licensing and permits, political instability, and corruption as sub-variables. These variables, except inspection, are constructed from the

responses of formal firms where they are directly asked, ‘to what degree they regard these variables as an obstacle’ each variable is asked separately on a 7 points scale. Taxation is a categorical variable ranging from 1-7, where 1 represents tax as no obstacle, while 5 indicates tax as a severe obstacle for a firm, 6 and 7 corresponding to don’t know, and doesn’t apply. The variable inspection, depicts whether inspection(s) were held over the last year of the survey 2013 i.e., year of the survey used for the study. The extent to which firms faced licensing and permit as an obstacle is measured on a scale of 1-7, where 1 represents no obstacle and 5 as a severe obstacle, 6 and 7 represents “don’t know” and “doesn’t apply”, respectively. The same scale is used for political instability and corruption variables. Variable of inspection is captured through the response of a firm to a question asking if the firm was inspected during the last year, the firm responded by choosing among the given options of “no”, “yes” or “don’t know”, coded as 1, 2, and 3, respectively. The third independent variable, or the factor affecting the informal competition and its severity is the sector; it includes textiles, garments, motor vehicles, chemicals, other manufacturing industries, non-metallic mineral products, retail & wholesale, and food. This variable is used as a dummy variable; the reference category is other services.

Data

Data for 1247 firms were obtained from World Bank Enterprise Survey (WBES)—2013 for Pakistan; WBES represents formal firms in non-agricultural private economy, including small, medium, and large businesses in manufacturing, service, transportation, and construction sectors, it excludes the agricultural sector (The World Bank Group, 2015). This extracted data uses stratified random sampling. Three levels of stratification are used by WBES for Pakistan: industry, establishment size, and region—details of data stratification included in the appendix A1. WBES survey focuses on infrastructure, trade, access to finance, regulation & taxes, corruption, crime & informality, labor & firm’s performance, and perception about barriers to doing business. The information or the statistics collected by WBES is of significant importance to researchers and policymakers for linking the state’s business climates with the performance of the firm, moreover, for the comparison of their outcomes within and across the states. This survey is unique in a sense that it provides information regarding the intensity of competition arising from the informal sector; therefore, it is widely used for analyses of the intensity of competition (Friesen & Wacker, 2013; Gonzalez & Lamanna, 2007; Ali & Najman, 2017; Hudson et al., 2012; La Porta & Shleifer, 2008). Since WBES provides information regarding small enterprises along with medium and large enterprises, it is much helpful for the investigation of competition generated by informal firms over formal firms, making WBES the most suitable survey to carry out such kind of research.

Estimation Methodology

This study analyses the presence and severity of informal competition, faced by formal firms. It uses logit and ordered logit techniques, respectively according to the nature of dependent variables; STATA 14 has been used for data analysis. The dependent variable in model 1 is binary, therefore, traditional OLS regression doesn't provide appropriate results¹; consequently, the logit model has been used for estimation. The model 2 contains more than two responses for the dependent variable, in this scenario ordered logit has been used for analysis; in such a scenario, there is a choice to use either logit or probit model, while the choice depends on the preference of the user. This is due to the fact that irrespective of whether logit or probit is used, the coefficients and standard errors of one model may be easily converted into the other. Independent variables in this study are individual responses of firms, hence there is no suspected issue of endogeneity; also, there is no issue of collinearity among all the included independent variables. Correlation among independent variables is given in Appendix (A2).

The test proposed by Hosmer and Lemeshow (2000), is commonly used to check the goodness of fit of the logit model; by accepting the null hypothesis "model fits well", the goodness of fit is established through this test. For the ordered logit model, the Wald test is used to determine the significance of the explanatory power of the variables that are added to the model. The Wald tests the hypothesis, of zero value, simultaneously, of all the parameters of interest; if they are, this strongly suggests that removing them from the model will not substantially reduce the fit of that model. In other words, a predictor whose coefficient is minuscule relative to its standard error, is not improving the prediction of the dependent variable.

Results and Discussion

Total number of formal firms (N) sampled for the study were 1125, out of which, 583 (almost 52%) confirmed that they are facing competition from the informal firms, while the remaining 48% didn't face informal competition. The summary of the frequency analysis of these 583 firms' key traits regarding their characteristics, regulatory environment and sector (industries) is presented in Table 1, 2, and 3. The important stylized facts from descriptive summary of variables for firm's characteristics presented in

¹In such cases where the dependent variable is discrete, has more than two possible outcomes and the outcomes have a natural ordering but distances between them are unknown and not necessarily meaningful (Long and Freese, 2006, p. 137), the linear regression framework is inappropriate because a discrete dependent variable violates the Gauss-Markov assumptions and can lead to incorrect conclusions (McKelvey and Zavoina, 1975). Instead, a (non-linear) ordered response model has to be used.

Table 1, show that formal firms resembling more to the informal firms, in terms of their characteristics are more likely to face informal competition². Almost 49% of the firms that reported that they face informal competition are small-sized, as compared to medium and large sized firms; moreover, 40% of firms facing informal competition, are located in town as compared to any other location. The variable of sole proprietorship, is the most significant one; almost 77% of the firms claiming to face informal competition belong to this category. It implies that a great majority of formal firms facing informal competition are sole properties, they are not big enterprises(entities). The sole proprietorship allows the firms to have greater flexibility in terms of decisions related to internal matters, production processes, and labor management; such flexibility is an important characteristic of an informal firm. For remaining variables, 32% of the formal firms facing informal competition use the credit facility, while 54.80% of the formal firms facing informal competition, had inspections from a regulatory body.

Table 1

Percentage of formal firms facing Informal Competition based on their characteristics

Variables	Formal Firms facing Informal Competition (Percentage)
Small size	48.90
Town	40.30
Sole Proprietor	76.67
Credit	32.70
Inspections	54.80

² The sum of the categories is greater than 100, because the categories are non-mutually exclusive.

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Table 2 represents the cross-tabulation for the firms facing informal competition, with respect to the variables that represent the regulatory environment. These variables have been scaled on the basis of severity of obstacle faced by the firms and ranges from the category of no obstacle to severe obstacle. As Table 2 shows, majority of the responses for all the variables except for the Licensing and Permits, fall under the scale of moderate, major and severe obstacles. Almost 65% responses for all these regulatory variables (except for, Licensing and Permits) with slight variations, are covered under moderate to severe obstacles. This implies that taxation, political instability and corruption are perceived to be significant obstacles by those formal firms who face informal competition.

Table 2
Formal firms facing Informal Competition w.r.t Regulatory Variables¹.

Variables	No Obstacle	Minor Obstacle	Moderate Obstacle	Major Obstacle	Severe Obstacle
Taxation	13.03	18.35	20.75	29.33	16.80
Political Instability	16.63	18.19	16.29	20.24	26.90
Licensing & Permits	34.63	23.67	19.21	13.20	6.68
Corruption	16.63	18.18	16.29	20.24	26.92

1. *Figures in the table are percentages*

Table 3, exhibits the occurrence of informal competition across the firms working in various sectors. Except the “other manufacturers” category, the informal competition faced by formal firms in all other sectors is low. The informal competition faced by formal firms is highest in the “other manufacturers” category (33.10 %), while for all other sectors, it lies in the range of almost 3 % (for motor vehicles) to 13.7 % (for food). These percentages for various sectors show that the firms belonging to major manufacturing sectors, such as textile, garments, food, face less informal competition and may be considered large enterprises, in contrast to the firms belonging to the category of other manufactures.

Table 3*Occurrence of informal competition across different sectors*

Variables	Percentage
Textiles	9.70
Food	13.7
Garments	5.80
Motor vehicles	2.90
Chemicals	6.10
Other manufacturers	33.1
Non-metallic mineral products	9.40
Retail and Wholesale	8.20

Table 4 exhibits the severity of informal competition which is the dependent variable in the second model. Out of 583 formal firms facing informal competition, only 16.98% reported informal competition as no obstacle in terms of its severity. However, rest of the firms (almost 83%) consider the severity of informal competition as an obstacle, in one or the other form. The important implication of this cross-tab is that a significant percentage of the firms (almost 40%) consider its severity level as moderate and major obstacle, they perceive informal competition as a threat to their businesses.

Table 4*Perception about the severity of informal competition*

Variables	Percentage
No obstacle	16.98
Minor obstacle	34.82
Moderate obstacle	28.99
Major obstacle	19.21

Next, we applied a binary logistic regression model treating informal competition as a dependent variable; results are reported in Table 5. Results show that the small size of a firm is a significant predictor of informal competition; if the size of the firm is “k” then the odds of facing informal competition for size=(k+1), are 1.258 times higher than the odds of facing informal competition for size=k. This can be explicated as follows: an increase in size makes the firm a potential threat for other firms, hence the likelihood of competition increases. Age of the firm is another significant variable increasing the likelihood of firms facing informal competition; if the age of the firm is “a” then the odds of facing informal competition for age=(a+1), are 1.031 times higher than the odds of facing informal competition for age=a. The odds of facing informal competition are 1.259 times higher for

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firms operating in a town, compared to those working in other types of areas. The odds of facing informal competition are 1.116 times higher for sole proprietor firms, compared to firms with different types of ownership structure. Reliance on credit facility decreases the likelihood of informal competition; the odds-ratio is less than 1 for credit variable. Out of the regulatory variables, taxation is significant, while licensing and permits and political instability are found to be statistically highly significant. The more a firm perceives taxation as an obstacle —implying burdensome taxation system, higher the likelihood of facing informal competition; the odds of facing informal competition are 1.121 times higher for firms reporting taxation as an obstacle, compared to those firms that do not find taxation as an obstacle. The firm’s perception of licensing & permit requirement as a burden decreases the likelihood of facing informal competition; the odds-ratio is less than 1. Political instability increases the likelihood of firms facing informal competition; the odds of facing informal competition are 1.133 times higher for firms finding political instability as an obstacle, as compared to those firms that do not find political instability as an obstacle. The variable representing visits of regulatory bodies for inspection purposes, has a negative sign which is in accordance with the theory, while the coefficient for corruption variable, is in contradiction to theory; nevertheless, both the variables in this study are statistically insignificant. The firm belonging to textiles, food, garments, motor vehicles, chemicals, non-metallic mineral products, and retail & wholesale, has less likelihood of facing informal competition as compared to other services' sector. Firm operating in other manufacturing sector has more likelihood of facing informal competition as compared to other services' sector. Hosmer and Lemeshow test of goodness of fit, has a significant value of 0.786 showing that the model is a good fit — as the threshold for the test is greater than 0.5.

Table 5
Results of Binary Logistic Regression.

Informal competition	Coefficients	Std. errors	Z	P> Z 	Odds-Ratio
Small	.2295	.1350	1.70	0.089	1.258
Age	.0310	.0161	1.92	0.054	1.031
Town	.2309	.1414	1.63	0.085	1.259
Sole proprietor	.1102	.1483	0.74	0.457	1.116
Credit	-.011	.1406	-0.08	0.937	0.988
Taxation	.1150	.0522	2.20	0.028	1.121
Inspections	-.108	.1120	-0.96	0.337	0.898
Licensing and Permits	-.213	.0537	-3.97	0.000	0.808
Political Instability	.1253	.0436	2.88	0.004	1.133
Corruption	-.055	.0498	-1.12	0.263	0.945
Textiles	-.632	.2902	-2.18	0.029	0.531
Food	-.717	.2661	-2.69	0.007	0.488
Garments	-.377	.3246	-1.16	0.245	0.685

Motor vehicles	-.041	.4184	-0.10	0.920	0.959
Chemicals	-.108	.3377	-0.32	0.748	0.897
Other manufacturing	.1427	.2415	0.59	0.555	1.153
Non-metallic mineral products	-.321	.2941	-1.09	0.274	0.724
Retail and Wholesale	-.346	.2923	-1.19	0.236	0.707
Constant	-.386	.4325311	-0.89	0.371	0.679

Number of Observations = 1125	LR Chi-Square (19) =78.40
Prob>Chi-Square=0.000	Pseudo R ² =0.0503
Hosmer-Lemeshow Chi-Square (19) =13.95	Prob > Chi-Square =0.7864

Next, we applied ordered logistic regression model, treating severity of informal competition as dependent variable; results are reported in Table 6.

Table 6
Results of Ordered Logit Regression.

Severity of Informal Competition	Coefficients	Std. errors	Z	P> Z 	Odds-Ratio
Small	-.056	.1757	-	0.749	.9453
Age	-.004	.0062	-	0.492	.9956
Town	-.145	.1812	-	0.422	.8644
Sole proprietor	-.070	.2020	-	0.729	.9322
Credit	-.101	.1799	-	0.573	.9034
Taxation	.1895	.0711	-	0.008	1.208
Inspections	.0396	.1627	-	0.807	1.040
Licensing and Permits	.3944	.0776	-	0.000	1.483
Political Instability	.3451	.0636	-	0.000	1.412
Corruption	.1105	.0669	-	0.099	1.116
Textiles	.4964	.4038	-	0.219	1.642
Food	.6916	.3684	-	0.060	1.997
Garments	.8017	.4330	-	0.064	2.229
Motor vehicles	.2927	.5837	-	0.616	1.340
Chemicals	1.101	.4446	-	0.013	3.008
Other manufacturing	.4792	.3221	-	0.137	1.614
Non-metallic mineral products	.7212	.3987	-	0.071	2.056

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Retail and Wholesale	.6738	.4102	1.64	0.101	1.961
Number of Observations = 543			LR Chi-Square (18) = 145.30		
Prob>Chi-Square = 0.000			Pseudo R ² = 0.0993		
Wald Test (small size, age, town, sole proprietor, credit):					
Chi-Square (5) = 1.51			Prob>Chi-Square= 0.9115		
Wald Test (taxation, licensing and permits, political instability, corruption, inspections):					
Chi-Square (5) = 113.23			Prob>Chi ² = 0.00		

The model 2 is used for estimating the severity of informal competition faced by the formal firms; this model estimates the severity of informal competition only for those formal firms who responded “yes” to the question of facing informal competition. Determining the severity, the firm characteristics are not much influential in this context; the variables of small size, age, town, sole proprietor, and credit, are statistically insignificant. The regulatory variables have more capacity to influence the severity of the informal competition in this model. This interesting result is in conformity with the finding of Hudson et al., (2012); they concluded that taxation, licensing & permits, political instability, corruption, and inspections as variables have a much strong influence on the severity of informal competition as compared to firm characteristics. Out of five regulatory variables, taxation, licensing & permits, political instability, and corruption, are highly significant in determining the severity of informal competition. Aforementioned variables increase the likelihood of increase in the severity of informal competition to be faced by the formal firms by 1.208, 1.483, 1.412, and 1.116 times, respectively. These variables are already presented in the literature as highly influential in increasing the informal competition severity; therefore, the results are congruent with theory. The firms operating in all the under-study sectors i.e., textiles, food, garments, motor vehicles, chemicals, non-metallic mineral products, retail & wholesale, and other manufacturing sector are more likely to face severe competition as compared to the other services’ sector. Results of the Wald test show that the firm’s characteristic variables of small size, age, town, sole proprietor, and credit don’t add statistically significant improvement in the explanatory ability of the model, based on the obtained P-value of 0.91. On the other hand, for the regulatory variables of taxation, licensing & permits, political instability, corruption, are inspections, the null hypotheses were rejected — based on their P-value of 0.00; indicating they are not simultaneously equal to zero, or in other words, create statistically significant improvement in the explanatory ability of the model. The results of the study are in accordance with theory; Kemal & Mahmood (1998), described credit and firm size as characteristics of informal firms, keeping this in mind, the study’s assumption that the formal firms resembling more to informal firms face more of informal competition holds

true. Tedds (2010), identified the same for the small firm size; the results of this study confirm the same.

In terms of regulatory variables, Williams, Shahid and Martinez (2016), concluded that burdensome regulations reduce the likelihood of formality, hence increasing the firm's resemblance with informal firms; this ultimately increases the informal competition faced by the formal firms. In this study, regulatory variables are in conformity with this finding; results are also congruent with Hibbs and Piculescue (2010) who mentioned poor governance, high corruption, and high taxes as main factors pushing firms towards facing informality.

Conclusion

The rapid progression of the informal sector and its linkages with the other sectors of the economy had been an extensively studied area of research both in developed and developing countries. While the existence of the informal sector matters for a relevant policymaking; the competition faced by the formal firms, on account of the frequent rise of informal firms, is equally important albeit less explored domain, particularly for developing countries. In any economy, the informal sector firms are a major source of competition for the formal firms; particularly, in the developing and underdeveloped countries — Pakistan is no exception to this proposition.

The results of this study are an important contribution to the already existing literature in the case of Pakistan, as no study has been attempted so far to determine the extent and intensity of informal competition faced by formal firms using the WBES data. The available literature is limited either to the calculation of the size of the informal sector or to the reasons for the existence and progression of the informal economy (Arby, Malik & Hanif, 2010; Kemal & Mahmood, 1998; Williams, Shahid & Martinez, 2016; Tahir & Tahir, 2012). The novelty of the current research is that it not only comes up with the significant variables determining the informal competition faced by formal firms but also determines the major(significant) variables that affect the severity of informal competition faced by formal firms. As far as the result regarding the competition faced by the formal firms through informal competition is concerned, in the logit model, the variables of characteristics come out to be significant determinants; out of the regulatory variables, taxation is significant, while licensing & permits and political instability are found to be statistically highly significant. The results of the current study conclude that firms in Pakistan, resembling more with informal firms in terms of characteristics, are more prone to facing competition from informal firms. In the ordered logit model, taxation, licensing & permits, political instability,

and corruption, are highly significant in determining the severity of informal competition.

The regulatory environment in Pakistan is perceived to be burdensome by formal firms, making them vulnerable to the informal competition. This is evident in the case of those formal firms that possess or are similar to the characteristics of informal firms; this burden of regulations is a decisive factor for the severity of informal competition. The more the burden of regulations, the more formal firms are likely to face severe informal competition. Due to the burden of regulations coupled with a weak enforcement system in Pakistan, more firms opt to operate informally, hence increasing the size of the informal sector and informal competition resultantly.

On the basis of the above conclusions, it is recommended that regulatory reforms shall be introduced, making the regulatory system less burdensome; moreover, there is a need for an efficient mechanism that ensures the enforcement of such reforms. This would help in creating ease for the existing formal firms to fulfill the regulatory requirements as well as encouraging the informal firms to join the mainstream formal setup of the economy. Furthermore, the current research can be extended by availing the latest dataset (whenever available) to explore the dynamics of the informal sector in an ever-changing business environment.

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APPENDIX

A1. Levels of Stratification

Industry, establishment size, and region are used as three levels of stratification in WBES for Pakistan:

1. Industry stratification was formulated into two service sectors (Retail and Other services’) and seven manufacturing industries (Food, Textiles, Garments, Chemicals, Non-metallic Minerals, Motor Vehicles, Other Manufacturing).
2. Standardized definition used for the size stratification follows: small (5 to 19 employees), medium (20 to 99 employees), and large (more than 99 employees).
3. For the Pakistan Enterprise Survey, Regional stratification was specified in five regions: Punjab, Sindh, KPK, Baluchistan, and Islamabad.

A.2 Correlation of Independent Variables

											No
smallsize	1.0000										
age	-0.1578	1.0000									
TOWN	0.0368	-0.0711	1.0000								
SOLEPROPRI-R	0.1302	-0.1537	-0.0181	1.0000							
CREDIT	-0.2438	0.0721	-0.0038	-0.1834	1.0000						
taxation	-0.0336	-0.0332	-0.0480	0.0500	0.1136	1.0000					
politicality	-0.0232	-0.0612	-0.0390	0.1411	-0.0386	0.2906	1.0000				
liicsensin-s	0.0017	-0.0694	-0.2240	0.0220	0.0125	0.4831	0.2556	1.0000			
corruption	-0.0342	-0.0351	-0.2678	-0.0002	0.1062	0.3361	0.1770	0.4968	1.0000		
inspections	-0.0030	-0.0291	0.0050	-0.1010	0.0425	-0.0132	-0.1540	0.0625	0.1696	1.0000	

correlation among any of independent variables found.

The Impacts of Covid-19 Pandemic: External Shock of Disruption Education and Financial Stress Cohesion

Fitri Nur Mahmudah

Universitas Ahmad Dahlan, Indonesia

Eka CS Putra and Bangun Hutama Wardana

Yogyakarta State University, Indonesia

This research aimed to determine the effect of the: (1) financial resilience on the home learning model; (2) parenting self-efficacy on the home learning model; (3) home learning model on education innovation; (4) financial resilience on education innovation; and (5) parenting self-efficacy on education innovation on parents. This research uses a quantitative method. Respondents consisted of 250 parents whose children were currently attending kindergarten and elementary school education. Determination of the sample using random sampling. The data collection method used a questionnaire with a Likert scale and via a google form. The data analysis technique used path analysis. The results of the research data analysis show that there is a path in each variable as evidenced by (1) The effect of financial resilience on the home learning model is 0.38; (2) The effect of parenting self-efficacy on the home learning model is 0.42; (3) The effect of home learning model on education innovation is 10.37; (4) The effect of financial resilience on education innovation is 0.30; and (5) The effect of parenting self-efficacy on education innovation is 0.31. The suggestions given by parents and the people of Yogyakarta are: (1) Improving financial arrangements for parents; (2) Increase the spirit of involvement for parents on learning of children at home; (3) Emphasizing the importance of learning models and education innovation for parents so that they can pay attention to children's success; (4) Continue to make efforts to improve the abilities and skills of parents so that they can play an important role for parents in children's education.

Keywords: financial resilience; parenting self-efficacy; home learning model; education innovation

Changes in the dynamics of life require community resilience. The pandemic period that occurred due to Covid-19 had an impact on society which was believed to be able to change lives. The social order that is usually

done changes into a new pattern to survive, develop, and improve. Likewise with education. Changes in learning that have occurred due to Covid-19, students are not allowed to do face-to-face learning at school and change at home. Working parents are also not allowed to carry out face-to-face activities in the office, to anticipate social distancing and break the chain of spreading the virus.

The impact of the Covid-19 pandemic felt by the community is the inner turmoil of parents who initially chose to entrust their children's education to schools, but in this case, parents must also take part in learning from schools that are carried out online (Utomo & Mahmudah, 2021). So, parents must have mental readiness as well as skill (professional) readiness (Mahmudah, 2016). Likewise, parents who are actively working feel significant changes in the activities they are in. Mindset and activity regulation is hampered by activity restrictions due to Covid-19. Financial regulations are getting tighter because the income is not as much as before the Covid-19 outbreak. The new order requires parents to be able to divide personal work and involvement in online learning by children at home. An elderly person who is unprepared for a disaster will surely feel shocked. This unpreparedness is what researchers believe can be a barrier to activity during a pandemic by parents and a lot of adjustments during the Covid-19 pandemic.

This research is based on parental turmoil towards unusual activities during the Covid-19 pandemic. The novelty of this research is related to the external shock of disruption education which consists of learning models and education innovation, and cohesion of financial pressure at risk consisting of self-efficacy and financial literacy.

Problem of Research

Financial resilience is the skills and abilities of parents in managing finances according to income. During the Covid-19 pandemic, many parents were confused about managing finances (Barrafrem, 2020). So that it resulted in a shift in the pattern of family economic behavior. These changes have made parents aware of how to regulate their income (Das et al., 2018). Included in expenditure (Studies & Studies, 2020). Another factor can be seen from (1) the level of parental knowledge; (2) confidence in managing finances; (3) use; (4) willingness to use money; (5) financial advice; and (6) proactive financial behavior (Taylor, 2011; Serido et al., 2013). The last component is the parents' financial attitude which is an important source in dealing with financial shocks (Demirguc-kunt et al., 2014). Based on these, this paper defines the financial resilience of the family that occurs due to the

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Covid-19 pandemic. The components that need to be considered by parents to overcome financial stress cohesion at risk are based on (1) education level; (2) proactive financial behavior; (3) financial advice; and (4) knowledge and behavior.

Building self-confidence is one thing that needs to be understood by every individual, including parents. Confidence in the education given to children as well as involvement in learning at home during Covid-19 needs to be improved. Self-efficacy is a belief in one's abilities (Putarek & Pavlin-bernardi, 2020). Parental self-efficacy emerges as a crucial variable in exploring variability in parenting quality (Benedetto et al., 2018). Parenting self-efficacy is a belief that one can successfully parent a child, which affects one's willingness to take on the role of their child's first teacher (Elizabeth et al., 2017). This aspect consists of intrinsic learning motivation and parent involvement in learning, discipline, togetherness with parents, emotional and physical demands, learning pattern and facility, caring, and exhibit positive attitudes (Yang et al., 2018; Ningrum, 2016; Coleman & Karraker, 2008; Theresya et al., 2018; Young & Young, 2011) and describe related concepts such as self-concept of ability and parental competence (Whyte, 2015). Parent-child interactions, responsiveness, and parental involvement (Hughes, 2019).

The importance of the role of parents in the development of learning at home (Albintary et al., 2018). Child development is influenced by parenting self-efficacy (Pumptow & Brahm, 2020) parenting self-efficacy helps children to develop themselves and obtain a joint evaluation (Opoku et al., 2020). The importance of self-efficacy can help children to improve life skills and good attitudes. Some of the above can be concluded that parenting self-efficacy is needed by children in learning at home during the Covid-19 pandemic, through (1) parental involvement; (2) parent-child interactions; (3) intrinsic learning motivation; (4) caring and exhibit positive attitudes.

The home learning model is a guideline that parents make for studying at home. The materials made are not only from school but parents as companions who understand the learning model. The home learning model is a process that is useful for transferring information into long-term memory (Khalil & Elkhider, 2020). According to Masson et al., (2008) is an interactional model that encapsulates teaching and learning the processes from the learner and the teacher perspective. The same statement according to Khasanah and Astuti (2018) is a model of thinking empowerment for kids. Including analyzing by collecting various information (Huda & Mardikantoro, 2018) and development by discussing with the parents (Nurlaela et al., 2018).

Some of the expert understandings above can be concluded that the learning model that can be used during the Covid-19 pandemic is a model that can improve student skills, based on thinking empowerment, analyzing by collecting the various information and discussing with parents.

The home learning model has an integrated focus on developing children's character (Song, 2018; Hedeem et al., 2011). This model is effectively applied to children in building concentration, ability, motivation, and evaluation of learning at home. Parents who accompany children can develop teaching materials given from schools in the form of soft skills (Griffin, 2014), life skills (Gu et al., 2017), problem-solving through elaboration (Mestry & Grobler, 2007). The essential things that parents can do in applying the home learning model according to (Larmer, 2018) are (1) challenging the problem or question; and (2) example non-examples, also the time taken and train to develop social skills (Charoensakulchai & Hostpital, 2019; Arends, 1998; Weeks, 2000). According to Joo et al., (2019) that things that need to be considered in-home learning are (1) problem-solving efficacy; (2) task value; and (3) competency and experience (Trisdiono, 2014). Based on some of the above theories, it can be concluded that the home learning model needs to involve parents with broad competencies and understanding so that they can accompany children to study at home. (1) parent-child teamwork; (2) problem posing; (3) life skills learning; and (4) examples non-examples.

The emergence of the Covid-19 outbreak in other parts of the world has affected the existing education system. This results in looking for innovations in the learning process, especially at home. A good education will be held with some factors influencing it (Syakdiyah et al., 2019). Education innovation is understood as a procedure of educational activity and is used to increase the level of efficiency in a competitive environment (Mykhailyshyn & Kondur, 2018). Education innovation includes pedagogical innovation, considering a technological, digital-based learning environment, and matter of integration among different levels (Pisanu, 2014; Fındıkoğlu & İlhan, 2016; Lindfors & Hilmola, 2016; Ellison, 2016) state that innovation in education is needed to incorporate old and new technologies and educational environments that already exist may be adapted and upgraded through the use of technology. Innovation methods in children's learning at home these skills using different sets of competencies (perseverance, self-control, enthusiasm), ability to work with others (cordiality, respect, care), and ability to manage emotions (calmness, optimism, confidence) (Kovacs, 2017). According to (Kalyani & Rajasekaran, 2018) states that there are two methods in education: teaching and learning. Methods of innovation teaching are (1) love what you

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do; (2) audio & video tools; (3) brainstorm; (4) classes outside the classroom; (5) role play; (6) welcome new ideas; (7) puzzles and games; (8) refer books on creativity; (9) introduce lesson like a story.

This paper finds new components in home education innovation, namely: (1) priorities and objectives; (2) time management; and (3) learning tools and resources; Getting everyone out of their comfort zone before the Covid-19 outbreak will train adaptive, innovative, and creative characters in the learning process.

Research Hypothesis

Based on the literature review, the hypotheses were proposed to examine, including:

- Hypothesis 1 Financial resilience affects the home learning model
- Hypothesis 2 Parenting self-efficacy affects the home learning model
- Hypothesis 3 The home learning model affects education innovation
- Hypothesis 4 Financial resilience affects education innovation
- Hypothesis 5 Parenting self-efficacy affects education innovation

Method

General Background of Research

This research uses a quantitative method. This quantitative research is used to classify, verify, measure, and see the reality of the causal symptom relationship of the community phenomenon, especially parents who have children to study at home because of being affected by Covid-19. This study aims to obtain empirical evidence, test, and explain the effect of external shocks of disruption education and financial stress cohesion at risk of people affected by Covid-19. The population in this study were all parents who had elementary school children who had to study at home. This research was conducted to validate the impact of the Covid-19 pandemic faced by parents who have children who are still in school. This study involved parents who filled out a questionnaire as a test tool and collected field data. When the research was over, I had no idea how to seek ethical approval. Now that I want to publish my findings, I want to know if there is a way to express ethical considerations for publication in a good journal without experiencing resistance.

Sample of Research

Determination of the sample using random sampling. The number of samples used in this study was 250 parents who live in the Special Region of

Yogyakarta. Methods of data collection using a questionnaire conducted via a google form. The scale used is the Likert scale. The reason for choosing the research area was due to the demographics where the area was the residence of the researcher, so it became the main goal in the ease of collecting field data.

Data Analysis

The data analysis technique in this study used statistical inferential analysis with path analysis which was operated through the AMOS version 24.0 program. Path analysis is a statistical analysis technique developed from multiple regression analyses (Robihaningrum & Elinda, 2019). Path analysis in this study was carried out using a two-step approach. The first stage is carried out by specifying a hybrid or full model as a CFA (Confirmatory Factor Analysis) model so that an acceptable CFA model is obtained from each of the exogenous and endogenous constructs. The CFA model can be accepted if it has good validity and reliability model data (Hakim & Lestari, 2019). The second stage of the two-step approach is to combine the CFA model from both the exogenous and endogenous constructs that have been accepted into one overall model (hybrid model) or full model to be estimated and analyzed to see the suitability of the overall model and evaluation of the structural model so that a full model can be obtained received.

Results

Data analysis in this study used path analysis assisted by AMOS version 24.0. The results of the analysis of the calculation of summary variables in this study show that the model has two endogenous variables, namely "home learning model" and "education innovation", and has two exogenous variables, namely "financial resilience" and "parenting self-efficacy", and there are two unobserved variables, namely z1 and z2. The number of variables in the model is six consisting of four observed variables and two unobserved variables and four exogenous variables and two endogenous variables. The output of the next analysis is the assessment of normality which can be seen in table 1.

Table 1
Assesment of Normality Calculation Results

Variabel	Min	Max	Skew	C.R.	Kurtosis	C.R.
Parenting_Self Efficacy	21,000	89,000	-,289	-1,867	-,503	-1,625
Financial_Resilience	11,000	47,000	,223	1,438	-,633	-2,043
Education_Innovation	10,000	44,000	-,164	-1,061	-,673	-2,172
Home_Learning_Model	15,000	59,000	-,009	-,060	-,640	-2,067
Multivariate					-1,103	-1,259

Source: obtained from primary data

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Table 1 above is the output to see the analyzed data is normally distributed univariate and multivariate or not. Meanwhile, when viewed univariate through the critical skewness value (c.r), it shows the score for each variable, which is below the absolute score of 2.58 (± 2.58), When viewed multivariate through the critical kurtosis value (c.r), it shows an absolute score of 1.259 (± 1.259), which is also still below the absolute score of 2.58 (± 2.58). So the data are distributed of normally univariate and multivariate. The results of the subsequent analysis were related to detecting an observation score that was much different from the centroid score of 250 cases. Table 2 is an explanation of the Mahalanobis distance.

Table 2
Mahalanobis Distance

Number of observation	Mahalanobis d-squared	p1	p2
126	12,728	,013	,959
200	11,815	,019	,949
156	11,643	,020	,882
45	11,312	,023	,835
184	11,126	,025	,756
204	10,989	,027	,658
144	10,348	,035	,773
202	10,138	,038	,741
154	10,136	,038	,618
75	10,090	,039	,510
180	9,974	,041	,445
60	9,952	,041	,337
9	9,888	,042	,264
174	9,637	,047	,289
123	9,137	,058	,477
208	9,121	,058	,383
146	9,114	,058	,292
46	8,973	,062	,285
133	8,933	,063	,227
24	8,310	,081	,553
220	8,204	,084	,541
100	8,169	,086	,478
70	8,029	,091	,500
185	7,843	,098	,563
241	7,793	,099	,519
10	7,531	,110	,655
1	7,413	,116	,676
99	7,312	,120	,685
239	7,298	,121	,623
198	6,791	,147	,908
58	6,788	,148	,874
150	6,765	,149	,845

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Number of observation	Mahalanobis d-squared	p1	p2
18	6,699	,153	,841
62	6,661	,155	,819
244	6,600	,159	,813
142	6,577	,160	,779
170	6,564	,161	,734
129	6,544	,162	,692
159	6,480	,166	,691
86	6,435	,169	,672
127	6,434	,169	,610
52	6,429	,169	,548
29	6,239	,182	,684
33	6,235	,182	,627
92	6,180	,186	,623
42	6,068	,194	,681
186	5,999	,199	,696
149	5,940	,204	,701
31	5,925	,205	,659
88	5,874	,209	,657
82	5,831	,212	,647
12	5,813	,214	,610
219	5,709	,222	,672
114	5,679	,224	,649
101	5,651	,227	,625
111	5,614	,230	,611
4	5,563	,234	,616
21	5,532	,237	,597
214	5,517	,238	,558
95	5,483	,241	,542
234	5,386	,250	,610
7	5,315	,256	,644
171	5,307	,257	,598
54	5,245	,263	,624
153	5,244	,263	,569
193	5,221	,265	,543
232	5,189	,268	,530
201	5,162	,271	,510
87	5,102	,277	,538
216	5,030	,284	,583
30	5,006	,287	,561
233	4,986	,289	,534
116	4,967	,291	,506
236	4,962	,291	,458
188	4,886	,299	,513
242	4,861	,302	,495
107	4,807	,308	,519
131	4,795	,309	,483
96	4,775	,311	,459
158	4,774	,311	,406

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Number of observation	Mahalanobis d-squared	p1	p2
140	4,757	,313	,378
34	4,680	,322	,439
32	4,677	,322	,391
76	4,639	,326	,396
166	4,583	,333	,428
175	4,571	,334	,395
136	4,566	,335	,351
222	4,563	,335	,308
168	4,560	,335	,266
221	4,551	,337	,235
5	4,522	,340	,230
132	4,484	,344	,235
157	4,475	,346	,208
229	4,430	,351	,221
35	4,387	,356	,235
51	4,374	,358	,211
83	4,344	,361	,209
203	4,335	,363	,183
155	4,324	,364	,162
57	4,287	,369	,167

Source: obtained from primary data

Table 2 above shows the Mahalanobis distance, which can be seen through p2, if the score in column p2 is not below 0,000, then the outliers in the data are considered non-existent. Based on these data, it shows that in column p2 there is no value below 0.000. This indicates that the data has no outliers, or that no data needs to be discarded in the variable.

Table 3

Multicollinearity Calculation Results

	Parenting_ SelfEfficacy	Financial_ Resilience	Education_ Innovation	Home_ Learning_Model
Parenting_ Self Efficacy	218,030			
Financial_ Resilience	107,531	65,888		
Education_ Innovation	99,792	53,071	55,192	
Home_ Learning_Model	133,215	70,561	64,095	93,596

Condition number = 59,930

Eigenvalues

407,186 10,999 7,728 6,794

Determinant of sample covariance matrix = 235150,200

Source: obtained from primary data

Based on table 3 above, the results of the output of Amos version 24.0 show that the determinant of sample covariance matrix value of 235150,200

or a value very far from zero, shows no multicollinearity and singularity problem.

Table 4
Regression Weight Calculation Result

Regression Weights: (Group number 1 – Default Model)						
		Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Label
Home_Learning_Model	<---	,378	,057	6,644	***	par_2.
Financial_Resilience						
Home_Learning_Model	<---	,425	,031	13,571	***	par_3.
Parenting_SelfEfficacy						
Education_Innovation	<---	,239	,055	4,382	***	par_4.
Financial_Resilience						
Education_Innovation	<---	,242	,036	6,626	***	par_5.
Parenting_SelfEfficacy						
Education_Innovation	<---	,161	,056	2,868	,004	par_6.
Home_Learning_Model						

Source: obtained from primary data

Wright regression gives the value of unstandardized and standardized regression coefficients. The critical value (CR) is the same as t in the OLS regression and P is the level of probability that *** explains by default the significance is at 0.001.

Table 4 above shows: (1) Financial Resilience has a positive effect on the home learning model, with a significance level of 0.001; (2) Parenting self-efficacy has a positive effect on the home learning model, with a significance level of 0.001; (3) Financial resilience has a positive effect on education innovation, with a significance level of 0.001; (4) Parenting self-efficacy has a positive effect on education innovation, with a significance level of 0.001; (5) The home learning model has a positive effect on education innovation, with a significance level of 0.004. Based on the calculation results above, the regression equation model is obtained as follows:

Table 5
Regression Weight Calculation Result

(Group number 1 – Default model)		Est.
Home_Learning_Model <---	Financial_Resilience	,317
Home_Learning_Model <---	Parenting_SelfEfficacy	,648
Education_Innovation <---	Financial_Resilience	,261
Education_Innovation <---	Parenting_SelfEfficacy	,480
Education_Innovation <---	Home_Learning_Model	,209

Source: obtained from primary data

Home learning model = 0,317 Financial resilience + 0,648 Parenting self-efficacy

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Education Innovation = 0,261 Financial Resilience + 0,480 Parenting self-
 efficacy
 + 0,209 Home learning model

Table 6

Squared Multiple Correlations Calculation Result
(Group number 1 – Default model)

	Est.
Home_Learning_Model	,889
Education_Innovation	,853

Source: obtained from primary data

Table 6 above explains the magnitude of the coefficient of determination indicated by the value of the squared multiple correlations. The home learning model shows the squared multiple correlation (R^2) value of 0.889, this shows that the home learning model variable which can be explained by financial resilience and self-efficacy variables is 88.9% while 11.1% is influenced by other variables that are not researched. While the education innovation variable which can be explained by the variables of financial resilience, self-efficacy, and home learning models is 85.3%, and 14.7% is influenced by other variables. Various results of the calculations above, it is found that this research model can be seen in Figure 1.

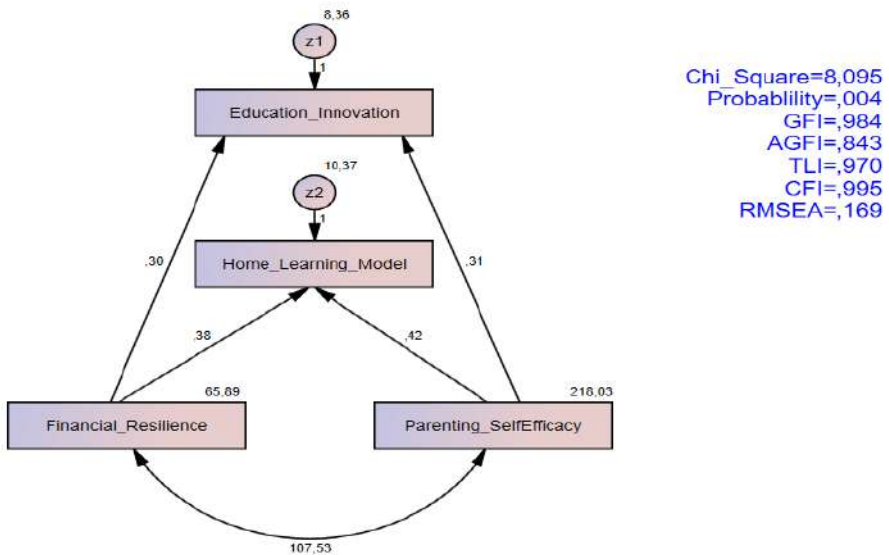


Figure 1. Path Analysis Model

Source: obtained from primary data

Discussion

The Effect of Financial Resilience on the Home Learning Model

The results showed that financial resilience had a significant effect on the home learning model. This shows that financial resilience is the ability of parents to organize and plan activities so that the behavior of parents towards children who are still in school and are studying at home because Covid-19 is formed effectively in creating a home learning model. Understanding the financial resilience of parents in the family due to the impact of Covid-19 requires maximum effort. Crisis conditions, stress, many family needs, and contingency planning are pressures that need to be overcome. Likewise related to other activities that are simultaneously in the family, such as school at home. This requires taking appropriate action to take advantage of opportunities. Parents ideally can try to initiate change, show initiative, and survive until Covid-19 ends.

The results of this analysis are by the opinion of Lusardi et al. (2020), that financial resilience during the Covid-19 period is vulnerable to families because conditions are not going well and are correlated with planning for the future. Financially literate parents are more likely to save and plan for the future well, including calculating if a disaster occurs at any time (Lusardi & Mitchell, 2014). This is confirmed by the report OECD (2020) that the Covid-19 pandemic has implications for families in facing financial uncertainty and financial resilience and the risk of having ineffective activities. Taking into account the domestic context, parents can consider actions regarding financial and educational arrangements for their children (OECD, 2017).

According to Kostaras and Trent (2020) that with so much uncertainty during the Covid-19 pandemic, parents need to resist the urge to buy impulsive items online at home. Pause automatic bill payments so that parents can control the time until finances are better (Leonard, 2017). It is also necessary to consider allocating time to accompany children in learning (Darling-hammond et al., 2020). So that they can find new learning models at home (Spencer, 2020) and the right approach in motivating children to study at home during the Covid-19 pandemic (Basilaia & Kavadze, 2020). Financial resilience, which is encouragement from parents, is something that needs to be pursued in forming a healthy family without the burden of the economy during the Covid-19 crisis. Likewise, activities related to finance need to be limited. This is needed to maintain a balance between existing income and the expenses made.

The Effect of Parenting Self-Efficacy on the Home Learning Model

The results showed that parenting self-efficacy on the home learning model had a significant effect on the home learning model. The results of this study mean that parenting self-efficacy is the basic ability of parents to shape children's education patterns at home during Covid-19. Parents who work from home have more opportunities to clean up their children. This is necessary to get closer to and understand the conditions of children's motor development so that parents can evaluate existing learning so far and be able to create new models of learning. The results of this article are by the opinion (Mardhotillah & Desiningrum, 2018) that parents fully support the learning process at home so it requires good parenting self-efficacy.

Important indicators that parents need to have in building self-efficacy to create a home learning model are having extensive knowledge (Dumka et al., 2010) and having patience in accompanying children (Goodall et al., 2010). Because the needs of children to study at home during the Covid-19 pandemic are to be accompanied by parents in a sustainable manner (Emerson et al., 2012), continuously (Đurišić & Bunijevac, 2017), and high intensity (Burch, 2015). So that parents can manage children's emotions towards children's attitudes while learning and show the quality of learning at home during Covid-19 and improve good learning outcomes. This is by the statement Peiffer (2015) that parenting self-efficacy influences the success of children's learning at home.

Parenting self-efficacy is an attitude of confidence and assertiveness of parents in showing a sense of concern for children not to give up learning at home during Covid-19. Parents who have high self-efficacy are certainly able to be responsible for children's activities at home, including in making new models in learning. Likewise, being able to develop children's learning materials and give positive attitudes to children for the enthusiasm of learning at home. In line with this, parent-child interactions are well established. Parents understand the activities of children and children will be more enthusiastic about learning.

The Effect of Home Learning Model on Education Innovation

The results showed that the home learning model had a significant effect on education innovation. This means that the home learning model is the main foothold for making education innovations. As stated by Day et al. (2009) that parents can develop children's learning abilities at home based on the learning model used. This statement can be interpreted that the home learning model is the activity of parents in preparing children's learning that is

tailored to the interests and conditions of the child. Parents who can identify children's needs according to their motoric development will also be able to make variations in learning.

One of the home learning models that parents can apply during the Covid-19 pandemic is to focus on life skills education. This is in line with the statement Weisen et al., (1997) that while at home the teacher who is closest to the child is the parent and the simplest learning is life skills. This habit is one of the ways that parents can do to provide routine learning activities for children to stay used to learning. Also according to (Mahmudah, 2021) that need to maintain regularity during the Covid-19 pandemic of learning innovation. It is in line with Whitebread and Sue (2019) that by having regularity, children will have learning material and their enthusiasm for learning will not go out (Palmer, 2017) so that it has an impact on feelings of joy in learning, not being depressed (Nations, 2020), and not bored (Reimers et al., 2020).

This needs to be done so that children's learning attitudes at home are maintained. Thus, new variations are needed for parents to increase children's learning motivation at home with education innovation, combinations, and making interesting teaching materials. Of course, education innovation can direct children to have personal skills, social skills, and intellectual skills. Parents who can make a home learning model according to the material from school will provide opportunities for children to be free-open in the learning process so that parents can have an innovative attitude in accompanying children in studying at home during the Covid-19 pandemic.

The Effect of Financial Resilience on Education Innovation

The results showed that financial resilience had a significant effect on education innovation. This means that financial resilience is a factor for parents in making education innovations for their children at home. During the Covid-19 pandemic, education innovation is an activity that parents must do (OECD, 2019). This activity is possible to avoid children's boredom in learning independence (Fetters, 2020). So that the main focus for parents to make education innovation is because of the right financial resilience. Parents who can plan their life needs as long as their income is unstable are one way to survive the Covid-19 pandemic.

The family's financial resilience system is a vital pillar that has a great influence on the fluctuation of family economic activities. This is in line with Brief (2020) which states that the stability of the family financial system affects careful planning. Including planning in making a breakthrough in

learning for children at home. Education innovation requires detailed funding sources for the practical learning of children at home (Secretariat, 2012). Family financial limitations during the Covid-19 pandemic can be a reference for evaluating children's learning at home (Mustami, 2009). Financial resilience may be a factor that needs to synergize parents in financial management behavior (Taylor et al., 2017) and parental locus of control (Southwick et al., 2017) also knowledge and skills improved (Mahmudah & Cahya, 2020). So that the existence of financial resilience has a life goal for parents and children on an ongoing basis.

Apart from all the inconveniences that were presented during the Covid-19 pandemic, it made many parents realize how to survive with limitations. In line with Liu et al. (2020), that good life planning is influenced by financial resilience. Being a wise citizen in managing finances is the best way to survive during the Covid-19 pandemic. This does not stop there but also requires the ability of parents to manage finances to provide for many things and to relate to many people in the family. Due to the distinctive features of the residents' way of life, which requires the relationship between the head of the family and other family members, it is an important point so that family economic activities run smoothly and are well coordinated.

The Effect of Parenting Self-Efficacy on Educational Innovation

The results showed that parenting self-efficacy had a significant effect on education innovation. Parenting self-efficacy is a place for parents to play a role in child development. This is related to education innovation so that parents are required to have competent skills and competencies to spur children's development while studying at home. The results are in line with Rahmawati and Ratnaningsih (2018) which states that parental support and self-efficacy are needed in improving student learning outcomes. Parents who have high self-efficacy will be more aware of caring for and providing care for children's learning at home during Covid-19.

Parenting self-efficacy as part of parental cognitive factors is believed to be a clear predictor. One of them is in making education innovations for children at home (Coleman & Karraker, 1998; Mahmudah et al., 2020). Positive parenting practices and patterns and the mediator effect of the various qualities of parenting towards children at home are the psychological dynamics of parents in shaping children's character. Parents who have good self-efficacy will be able to access information and knowledge, so the opportunity to make education innovations at home cannot be doubted. Children with all limited access to information, if accompanied by parents who are smart and have a high level of self-confidence, will certainly result in

good interactions. According to Ahmad et al., (2014) that predictors of consistent parental behavioral outcomes will play an important role in understanding situations, having behavior, and constructing reality for children's development.

Parents' level of trust will have an active role in every area of life, especially at home during the Covid-19 pandemic. This self-efficacy belief in a social context has the power to improve parenting patterns. Skills and competence of parents in social situations during the Covid-19 pandemic are important to prevent physical or psychopathic illness in children. The formation of good parental self-efficacy forms thought patterns and emotional reactions. So that children can improve learning outcomes, have an optimistic attitude, are diligent, do not give up easily, reduce levels of depression, and maintain regular enthusiasm in learning. The child's target in learning at home is influenced by the level of parenting self-efficacy and education innovation provided by parents.

Conclusion

The conclusion of this research is: (1) Financial resilience has a positive effect on the home learning model. This conclusion is based on the t-Value or C.R. amounting to $6,644 > 1,967$. This means that even though different ages and levels of education are different, home learning models can be a good idea for parents to learn their children at home by improving and managing financial resilience properly; (2) Parenting self-efficacy has a positive effect on the home learning model. This conclusion is based on the t-Value or C.R. amounting to $13,571 > 1,967$. This means that parents can make breakthroughs related to the home learning model if they have a high level of parenting self-efficacy; (3) The home learning model has a positive effect on education innovation. This conclusion is based on the t-Value or C.R. amounting to $2,868 > 1,967$. This means that education innovation will be formed if parents have basic knowledge related to the home learning model; (4) Financial resilience has a positive effect on education innovation. This conclusion is based on the t-Value or C.R. amounting to $4,382 > 1,967$. This means that parents can manage their own needs and educational involvement in children at home if they can manage finances so that they have good financial resilience; (5) Parenting self-efficacy has a positive effect on education innovation. This conclusion is based on the t-Value or C.R. amounting to $6,626 > 1,967$. This means that parents can make education innovations if the parents have continuous and continuous parent-child interactions and involvement.

Recommendation

Suggestions from this study are (1) Improve financial arrangements for parents; (2) Increase the spirit of involvement for parents; (3) Emphasizing the importance of learning models and education innovation for parents so that they can pay attention to children's success; (4) Continue to make efforts to improve the abilities and skills of parents so that they can play an important role for parents in children's education.

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Conceptualizing Islamic Scholars Perspective on Corporal Punishment of Children in Pakistan

Mohammed Shafiq and Akhtar Munir
Kohat University of Science and Technology

Khadija Aziz
Shaheed Benazir Bhutto Women University Peshawar

Corporal punishment is the most debated issues around the globe. In Pakistan it has the support of cultural, social and religious doctrine. This paper aims to understand the real meaning of Islamic teachings with respect to child socialization and character building as corporal punishment is one of the methods used for this purpose. In order to have an in-depth understanding of the phenomenon ten religious scholars were selected purposively for the study. Data was collected through in-depth interviews using asn interview guide. Discourse analysis method was used for the data analysis process. In order to ensure the anonymity and confidently of the participants data was coded. The study reported that corporal punishment is the outcome of deviation from the real philosophy of Islamic teachings as Islam focuses on the virtues of mercy, kindness, love and affection while dealing with the children whilst at the same time Islam also supports corporal punishment but under certain guidelines and restrictions. The study recommended that providing proper training to teachers on the alternative method of behaviour modification, overcoming the teachers own issues and frustration, proper monitoring and accountability mechanism, proper legislation and following the real meaning of Islamic teachings in dealing with the children and for their socialization and character-building process will be helpful for overcoming the of corporal punishment of children.

Keywords: children, corporal punishment, schools, discipline, Islam.

Pakistan is confronted with numerous factors including the educational crises where 7.5 million of children aged 5-16 years are not going to school while in Khyber Pakhtunkhwa it is approximately 2.5 million (Munir & Hussain, 2019). Numerous leads to this situation including; poverty, lack of active parents-teachers association, lack of parental interest, unemployment, misinterpretation of the religious teachings and the practice of

corporal punishment in schools (Ailaan, 2015; Munir & Hussain, 2019). The aim of every society is to make their citizens as productive and functional as per the law of the country. Child socialization process is a key factor in this process. On the other hand, for effective child socialization various technique are used in which the practice of corporal punishment remains a matter of debate all over the world due to its pros and cons (Andrew & Stewart, 2002). Proper child socialization is very important as they are considered as the future of the nation as well as for sustainable development the role of qualified masses and quality education cannot be underestimated (Naz *et al.*, 2011). The practice of corporal punishment has been banned now by various countries as a method for child socialization (Global Initiative to End All Corporal Punishment of Children, 2015) however in some countries its practice is still considered as legitimate and legal (UNICEF, 2015). Children must be protected from all types of violence including corporal punishment however; they have been punished on routine basis in homes and schools around the world (Holden & Ashraf, 2016).

Save the Children (2010) reported that teachers perception can play a vital role in the practice of corporal punishment as it is not the student behaviour that leads to its practice but it's the teacher's perception about its practice as they consider it the only mechanism for correcting the child behaviour. The problem of non-conformity with school norms and poor academic performance is also leads to its practice (Tiwari, 2013). Some of the previous studies reported that children are considered as immature whom are unable to make proper decision about different things while on the other hand adults are in the position to make proper decisions about the children for which they sometime use corporal punishment (UNICEF, 2001). While some consider it as the outcome of the poor educational status of the teachers whom are unable to convey the teaching technique properly (Durrant, 2005). UNICEF (2001) reported that lack of accountability of teachers, overcrowdings in schools, infrastructure issues, untrained teachers and poor quality of educational tools increase the corporal punishment at school's level. On macro level cultural acceptability and religious support also leads to its practice (Salazar *et al.*, 2014; Menard, 2013).

Stewart-Tufescu and Durrant (2014) reported that despite of the negative impacts of corporal punishment on child socialization around the world one billion children aged 2-14 are corporally punished while the supporting range for its practice is 3-82% around the globe. Straus *et al.*, (1997) reported that the aim of corporal punishment is to control the anti-social behaviour of the child but in reality, it increases the occurrence of undesirable behaviours. Its practice also causes physical abuse as there is a

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greater risk of causing injuries to the child due to the severe practice of corporal punishment (Gershoff *et al.*, 2015). It has been also reported that instead of decreasing the child aggression corporal punishment increase aggression to a large extent (see Gershoff, 2002). Save the Children (2005) reported that corporal punishment hampers the cognitive development of the child aged 2-4 and 5-9 years which on the other side of the coin leads to school drop outs and poor academics in later stage. Holden and Ashraf (2016) reported that its practice develops ‘culture of violence’ as the children start considering it as genuine for resolving the interpersonal problems.

Lwo and Yuan (2011) reported that corporal punishment received the support from educational, cultural, legal and religious doctrine from thousand of years while its practice in school is for maintaining discipline and child socialization philosophies. On the other side of the coin some studies concluded that its practice is beneficial for maintaining short term compliance, school discipline and obedience (Larzelere & Kuhn, 2005) and achieving the academic goals (Marcus, 2014).

Islam and Child’s Corporal Punishment

Islam is a religion of humanity which focuses on affection, love and kindness not only on children and women but on all humankind. The Islamic concept of ‘Mercy’ provides protection to human beings and provide guidelines for the every day life. Islam also advocates that children must be dealt with mercy and affection and no harsh treatment is permissible as it contradicts with the virtue of mercy (Alanazi, 2008; Al-Saud, 2000). The Holy Prophet (PBUH) once said “Is there any one of us who does not show mercy to our children and respect our elderly people” (Hasan, 1993; Alanazi, 2008). On another occasion the Holy Prophet (PBUH) said “He who does not show mercy (towards his children) no mercy will be shown to him” (Khan, 1997; Alanazi, 2008).

Its also a fact that Islam focuses on the virtues of affection, kindness and mercy but on the other hand it also provides guidelines for corporal punishment to be used for child discipline, controlling the misbehavior and child socialization. The purpose of this is to controlling the child from not falling into bad habits (Al-Mutrik, 1999). The practice of child corporal punishment is not mentioned in the Holy Quran but it has been mentioned in some *Hadith*¹ (Holden & Ashraf, 2016) as on one occasion the Holy Prophet

¹ A Hadith is one of various reports describing the words, actions, or habits of the Islamic Prophet Muhammad (PBUH). The term comes from Arabic meaning a

(PBUH) said “Teach your children to perform prayers at the age of seven and beat them if they do not do so by the age of ten” (Al-Nasser & Darwish, 1991: 201). However; this Hadith also provided a gap of three years for the child behaviour correction and modification. In context to this study it is only focusing on scholars perception on corporal punishment and not the Islamic perspective so the data will be based on the scholars perception.

On the other hand Islam also provided certain guidelines for its practice which are; 1) it must be genuine, 2) its may not hurt the child physically and psychologically, 3) it may not developed hatred, 4) it may not cause school drop outs or runaway, 5) it can only be practiced with the permission of parents or guardian, 6) it can only be practiced with hands and 7) it cannot be practiced on the child head, face and genitals (see Al-Saud, 2000; Alanazi, 2008; Al-Qarni, 2005).

Objectives and Significance of the Study

Pakistan is an Islamic country where not only the routine life, but the law of the country is also guided by the Islamic teachings. The aims of this research study are to highlight the gap between theory and practice of Islamic teaching through the discourse of the religious scholars and to provide research-based suggestions for fruitful intervention related to child rights, protection and welfare. School plays a key role in shaping the child personality and make them productive citizen of nation. School corporal punishment hinders the learning and cognitive development of the child while in return leads to poor academics and school drop outs. In order to eliminate corporal punishment from schools the role of religious scholars cannot be underestimated. This paper will examine the practice of corporal punishment in schools in the light of Islamic teachings which will help to understand the religious philosophies about its practice.

Method

The study was qualitative in nature as this framework is becoming very important in social sciences including community development, education and social work (Marshall & Rossman, 1999). The study was based on cross-sectional research design (see Vaus, 2001) and the population was based on religious scholars. Purpose sampling technique for the data collection process (see Creswell, 2003) as the study was qualitative in nature so purposive – non probability sampling procedure was used for sample

"report", "account" or "narrative". Hadith are second only to the Quran in developing Islamic jurisprudence, and regarded as important tools for understanding the Quran and commentaries written on it.

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selection in order to have a more in-depth understanding about the problem. Onwuegbuzie and Leech (2007) reported that the problem of adequate sample size in qualitative studies is always a matter of debate while Burmeister and Aitken (2012) stated that it depends on the nature of the study, research objectives and the researcher choice. Therefore, in order to have the accurate answers for the study a sample of ten religious scholars were selected to have an in-depth understanding of the phenomenon.

In-depth interviews were carried out with the participants for the data collection process as it is the most important method of data collection in qualitative studies with the advantages that it provides an opportunity to the researcher and respondent for face to face interaction and rich data can be attained quickly and easily (Legard *et al.*, 2003). The data will be analyzed through discourse analysis adopting Gee (1999) model of six comprising elements which are; 1) semiotic building, 2) world building, 3) activity building, 4) Socioculturally-situated identity and relationship building, 5) political building and 6) connection building. Ethical consideration was adopted in the data collection and analysis stages. In order to ensure the anonymity and confidentiality of the respondents the data was coded while prior informed consents have been obtained for the respondents before the data collection.

Results

Before going into the detail discussion first we have to look at the demographic information of the religious scholars. The following table having a summary of the religious scholar's demographic information.

Age	Qualification		%
	Wafaq-ul-Madaris	Religious School (Local)	
26-40	02	00	20%
41-55	04	01	50%
56-60	03	00	30%
Total	90%	10%	100%

Out of the ten religious scholars two were aged 26-40, five 41-55 and the remaining three were aged 56-70 years. Out of the ten religious scholars nine were qualified from *Wafaq-ul-Madaris*² and one from a Local Religious Teaching School.

² Wafaq ul Madaris Al-Arabia, Pakistan, its board was founded in 1959. It is the largest federation of Islamic Seminaries around the world. More than 10,000 Seminaries and about 8,000 Iqra Schools across the Islamic Republic of Pakistan are affiliated with the federation. It

With respect of support and non-support for the practice of corporal punishment a religious scholar (RS-01) stated;

[Well personally I *support* its practice for maintaining the *discipline* and *behaviour modification* of the child as in Islam there is also the concept of *reward* and *punishment*]

Salazar *et al.*, (2014) and Menard, (2013) also reported that corporal punishment is used for behaviour modification and discipline in the schools. While on the other hand another religious scholar (RS-06) stated;

[Honestly, I do not support it as I believe in *advice* and *rewards* for behaviour correction. And to be very honest our people do not understand the real meaning of the Hadith and Ayat³ and *misinterpret* it as per their knowledge and experience and indeed corporal punishment is the *outcome* of these *misinterpretation*]

In continuation to this a religious scholar (RS-01) consider corporal punishment is the outcome of deviating from the Islamic teachings as he stated;

[Actually, corporal punishment is the outcome of *deviation* from Islamic teachings as Islam focuses on the virtues of *kindness*, *affection* and *mercy* while dealing with the children. Besides this Islam also focuses on controlling the personal *anger* which is the main cause of corporal punishment in schools]

While some of the religious scholars consider corporal punishment beneficial for maintaining discipline and achieving the academic goals as a religious scholar (RS-02) stated;

[To be very honest corporal punishment is sometimes *helpful* for *classroom administration*, *school discipline* and achieving the *academic goals* as our schools are *overcrowded*, teachers are *work loaded* and no *alternative methods* are available for child behaviour modification and correction]

Religious scholars were also found aware of its negative impacts on children as a religious scholar (RS-02) stated;

controls all the seminaries which are run by Ahle Sunnat Wal Jama'at(Deoband) School of thought. The head office of Wafaq ul Madaris is situated in Multan (Punjab) Pakistan.

³ Ayat means "evidence" "sign" or "Miracle". In the context of Islam's principal scripture, the Quran, ayat is used to mean "verse", i.e. each statement or paragraph marked by a number.

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[Well as per my understanding its practice develops *depression, anxiety, fear* and *hatred* towards the teacher, school or any adult from whom the child receives the punishment]

In continuation to this another religious scholar (RS-05) stated;

[Well I believe that in long run it will create the problems of *frustration, anger, physical abuse, violence* and *criminal tendencies* in the child life]

As Pakistan is an Islamic country where the law and customs are guided by the Islamic teachings. Islam focuses on the virtues of love, affection, kindness and mercy while dealing with the children while at the same time it also supported corporal punishment for child behaviour modification in this context some participants consider it as a deviation from Islamic teachings as a religious scholar (RS-01) stated;

[The *Hadith* which supports corporal punishment is related to *prayers* and the *violation* of which is a violation of *discipline* and *Islamic teachings* but one the other hand if we critically evaluate this *Hadith* it stated that beat the child but after *10 years* and it also provided a gap of *three years* for child *behaviour modification*. To be very honest our Holy Prophet (PBUH) never punished a child in his whole life and always showed *affection, love, mercy* and *kindness* towards children. On the other side of the coin Islam also focuses on controlling one *anger* and indeed corporal punishment is the outcome of *personal anger* of the adults]

The same has also been reported by Khan, 1997:1397 and Alanazi, 2008 where a detailed analysis the concept of religious teaching on child socialization process has been mentioned in detail so this study also represented the same way in Pakistani context. On the guidelines for practicing corporal punishment a religious scholar (RS-03) stated;

[Well as our Holy Prophet (PBUH) once stated that every *caretaker* will be asked regarding the people whom are under his/her *control*. But if an adult using corporal punishment for child *behaviour correction* these guidelines will be kept in mind i.e. 1) it must be used as a *last resort* if other methods fail, 2) the child must be *10 years* old, 3) it must be *appropriate* to the wrong doings, 4) it may not *harm* the child *mentally* and *physically*, 5) it must be practiced in *isolation*, 6) the adult may not be in *anger* and 7) *sensitive parts* of the body must be avoided]

In continuation to this a religious scholar (RS-07) with respect to child socialization stated;

[I would like to quote *Hazrat Ali*⁴ as once he stated that *love* your child up to *6 years*, while in the age of *6-9 years* teach the child what to do and what not to do, *9-14 years* are of *warning* if a child do something wrong *verbally warn* the child and after *14 years* treat the child as a *friend*]

On the legislative measure related to corporal punishment a religious scholar (RS-07) stated;

[Well in my view it will be a really hard task for the government to do proper *legislation* related to child protection and corporal punishment as we have certain *religious* and *socio-cultural* factors which will *oppose* it]

The religious scholars were found aware of the corporal punishment and its adverse impacts on the child personality and Islamic stance over its practice. Around the globe religious support for its practice is consider as a macro factor while in this study religious scholars consider it as a deviation from the Islamic teachings as Islam focuses on the virtues of mercy, kindness and affection while dealing with the children. Though Islam also supports corporal punishment for child behaviour correction but under certain conditions and guidelines which the adults ignore while practicing corporal punishment.

Discussion, Conclusion and Recommendations

In this section main argumentations from the study will be concluded on the basis of which research-based framework will be provided for the abolishment of corporal punishment of children. With respect to support and non support for corporal punishment mix opinion were received as some participants were found supportive to its practice while some were against it. The participants consider overcrowded classrooms, inefficient teachers, poor academic tools, no teachers in service training, lack of accountability, no proper monitoring, culture acceptability and religious support as the main factors for its practice. On the other side of the coin, some participants consider it as a deviation from the Islamic teaching as Islam focuses on the virtues of mercy, kindness, affection and love while dealing with the children. The study concluded that corporal punishment leads to physical abuse, anti-social behaviour and increase aggression, poor cognitive development,

⁴ Hazrat Ali (RA) was the cousin and son-in-law of Prophet Muhammad (PBUH). He ruled as the fourth caliph from 656 to 661, and was first Imam of Shia Islam from 632 to 661.

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depression, anxiety, lack of motivation, poor academics and school drop outs whilst some participants consider it beneficial for maintaining school discipline, classroom management and character building. The study concluded an alternative way of religious support for the practice of corporal punishment as Islam focuses on mercy, kindness and affection in dealing with the children and also directs to control one own anger while corporal punishment is the outcome for deviating from these virtues. Furthermore, it was also concluded that our socio-cultural and religious factors are the main barriers in the proper legislation to pact with the corporal punishment.

The study provided suggestions for the abolishment of corporal punishment children from schools including; reforming the educational system, creating mass awareness, providing proper training to teachers on the alternative method of behaviour modification, overcoming the teachers own issues and frustration, proper monitoring and accountability mechanism, proper legislation and most importantly following the real meaning of Islamic teachings in dealing with the children and for their socialization and character building process.

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Women Entrepreneurship and Household Wellbeing: An Exploratory Study of Khyber Pakhtunkhwa

Hina Haram and Khadija Shams

Shaheed Benazir Bhutto Women University Peshawar

Madiha Gohar

National University of Science and Technology, Islamabad

Women entrepreneurship is getting an ever increased attention in the recent era. Women entrepreneurs are appearing as potential players in Pakistan's economy. Women are more than 50% of the national population and are economically utilizing their potential that not only leads to individual growth but household wellbeing. Literature has mostly documented the gender bias, the opportunities and constraints faced by women entrepreneurs. However, how significantly these women entrepreneurs contribute to the wellbeing of their households have not been explored yet. Therefore, the current paper attempts to explore the role of women owned entrepreneurial ventures in their household wellbeing in Khyber Pakhtunkhwa, Pakistan. A Qualitative approach is adopted to conduct the research study. Primary data is collected through face to face in-depth interviews with 30 women entrepreneurs through purposive sampling technique. The research study explored that women entrepreneurs are making significant contributions towards the education, health and raising living standards of their households thereby, increasing the overall wellbeing of their households.

Keywords: women entrepreneurship, household wellbeing, Khyber Pakhtunkhwa.

Pakistan is the 6th most populous country in the world with a slower GDP growth rate (Yunis, Hashim & Aderson, 2019), coupled with the political and economic instability since independence. Efforts have been made to enhance the living standard and the GDP growth of the country several times and again by various governments, however, no fruitful results have been obtained (Atique & Malik, 2012). Various policies like privatization, controlling devaluation, attracting foreign direct investment and

foreign aid etc. have been adopted to achieve the same, with no desirable results (Mauro, 1995).

Literature has identified several reasons for the slow GDP growth of the economy. Among those, the increasing rate of external debt and thereby, debt servicing (Siddiqui, & Malik, 2001; Atique & Malik, 2012; Awan & Qasim, 2020), low contribution of agriculture sector to the GDP of the country (Azam & Shafique, 2017), Low investment level, the lack of skilled labor and other required facilities are cited to be the major reasons (Ali, Yasir, & Farhan, 2012). Due to slower GDP growth, small levels of investment and increase in population, the country is not capable to absorb the supply of labor from within the market (Afzal, 2009). Thus, job opportunities are not proportionate to increase in population (Rehman, & Siddiqui, 2015), leading to poor living standards of the masses (Afzal, 2009).

Recently, the potential of entrepreneurial activities has been highlighted for the development and growth of developing countries (Acs, Audretsch & Strom, 2009; Ashraf, 2016; Bhuiyan & Lvlevs, 2019). Nations across the world are turning towards entrepreneurship as an engine of economic growth, competitiveness and creation of employment opportunities (Alhothali, 2020). Entrepreneurship has rightly been conceptualized as an engine of economic growth and a key to economic prosperity at global level (Ashraf, 2016). It is recognized as a tool to lift the people out of poverty and promote their livelihoods (Bhuiyan & Lvlevs, 2019).

Like several other countries, Pakistan also appreciates the presence and cultivation of entrepreneurial mind set and culture to cope up the problem of unemployment. Hence, for any country to move on the path of economic growth, it should take entrepreneurship promotion and development at the heart of its national policy (Acs et al., 2009; Alhothali, 2020).

Women entrepreneurship is also getting an ever increased attention in the current era. Scholars and policy makers have realized the importance of the entrepreneurial endeavors of women and are of the view that more like this should come. It is because women entrepreneurs are not less behind in their socio-economic contributions to any country. They have been recognized as the growth engines for the developing economies (Vossenber, 2013). Evidences proved that women are appearing as potential players in Pakistan's economy (Niethammer, Saeed, Mohamed & Charafi, 2007). Incomes earned by women contribute not only to their own wellbeing but their households and thereby to over all nations (Blumberg, 2005). However, the share of women

in labor market in KP is very less due low participation in the formal sector. This lowest rate of women participation in the labor mark can be linked to social and cultural dimensions. Taking in view the culture of KP, women are usually supposed to stay at home and perform their household chores. The traditions of “Honor and Pardah” restrict them from higher education, employment and training opportunities outside the home (Roomi, 2013; Ullha, Ahmad, Manzoor, Hussain, & Farooq, 2012). As many of the women in KP have limitations to work in formal sectors therefore, they prefer to utilize their skills and talent by starting up their own ventures mostly beauty parlors, stitching, knitting, embroidery works and painting etc.

The increasing rate of women in entrepreneurship in Pakistan is showing the attractiveness of entrepreneurship for women. However, despite this increasing participation of women in entrepreneurship, women entrepreneurial talent and potential is still untapped in Pakistan (Roomi et al., 2018). The current research paper thus, aims to explore the contributions of women owned entrepreneurial endeavors towards their household wellbeing.

A Review of the Literature

The subject of entrepreneurship is getting popular among researchers and policy makers since the last few decades. The purpose of this section is to review the extant literature on the subject matter of entrepreneurship, women entrepreneurship, its embeddedness and concept of wellbeing. As the research paper aims to unleash the contributions of “women entrepreneurs” therefore, it seems essential to review the gender specific literature in order to better understand the phenomenon of “women entrepreneurship”.

Gender and Entrepreneurship

For the last few decades an increasing number of women are entering the field of entrepreneurship but still the number of men involved in entrepreneurship is greater than the number of women in entrepreneurship (Parker, 2018). However, if we talk about the need for money and wish to be independent, both are same for both men and women entrepreneurs (Birley, 1988). A wide body of literature suggests that the personal characteristics like self-realization, independence, need for achievement and goal orientation are same for both men and women entrepreneurs however, differences emerged in the way they manage and run their business (Buttner, 1993). The business ventures owned by women entrepreneurs are small however they contribute towards their selves, their households, and the community by creating value to the individual level, business level, household level and community level (Lepeley, Kuschel, Beutell, Pouw, & Eijdenberg 2019). Moreover, women

entrepreneurs are socially and culturally embedded in Pakistani society therefore, women entrepreneurship must be studied in its own right and not with gender neutral theories (Schwartz, 1976).

Women's Motivation to Become Entrepreneur

Motivation and intentions are the most important elements in understanding execution of entrepreneurship. A large number of studies exist on the entrepreneurial motivations of women. (Minniti & Naude, 2009). A wide body of literature identifies the reasons for which a growing number of women tend to become entrepreneurs. However, the choice of becoming entrepreneur is also different for women with respect to developed and developing countries as their choice is shaped by opportunity and motivation in developed countries while in case of developing countries necessity motivates them towards venture creation (Brush & Cooper, 2012).

There are two broad kinds of entrepreneurs of which one is the Opportunity-Driven entrepreneur while the other is Necessity-Driven entrepreneur. An Opportunity-Driven entrepreneur is the one who recognizes opportunity in the form of business idea and exploit it (Udimal, Luo, Liu & Mensah, 2020), in order to prove their identity and abilities (Jamali, 2009). On the other side a Necessity-Driven entrepreneur is the one who is driven by the need of self-realization or other circumstances like lack of job opportunities and financial needs (Kobia, & Sikalieh, 2009; Udimal et al., 2020).

Obstacles in Way of Women Entrepreneurs

Although women entrepreneurship is increasing day by day however there are a number of challenges and obstacles in the way of these women entrepreneurs. The major obstacles among them include lack of finance and market place facilities as well as many social constraints (Sharma et al., 2012). Lockyer (2012) identified lack of training and financial risk as the major obstacles in way of women entrepreneurs. Some other major hurdles are illiteracy of women entrepreneurs in rural areas, lack of risk bearing capability, lack of infrastructural facilities and awareness (Sharma et al., 2012). Though, the financial problems are also confronted by men entrepreneurs very often however these are not always the biggest problems for them (Brush, 1992). On the other side despite of the high level of qualification, expertise and personal abilities, investors and finance providers still hesitate to provide funds to women entrepreneurs. Thus, the lack of financial capital deprived many potential ventures from being opening up (Moriss, Miyasaki, Watters & Coombes, 2006). In addition to this, literature

also identifies the social and cultural norms of the society that further affects women entrepreneurship in Pakistan (Roomi, 2013).

Socio-Cultural Embeddedness of Women Entrepreneurship

The social and cultural norms (informal institutions) not only effect the number of women entering into entrepreneurship and the opportunities they have but also the way these women and other people view their businesses (Lerner, Brush & Hisrich, 1997; Brush, Bruin & Welter, 2009; Welter & Smallbone, 2010). A woman's social responsibility is more towards building strong family relations rather than achieving success, growth and independence in her business (Brush, 1992; Jamali, 2009; Moriss et al., 2006). Children, family and household chores are the primary responsibilities of women (Henry, 2009). Mostly in Muslim countries where the role of women is strictly bound by the religious ideology and cultural norms of the society, women mostly tend to start home based businesses. Ventures creations outside the homes are mostly seen as "Breaking out the norms" of women behavior (Welter & Smallbone, 2010). The literature highlights women entrepreneurship as deeply embedded in social and cultural context. These variable are exogenous and women have very less or no control over changing these (Brush et al., 2009). It is therefore, very difficult to isolate the study of women entrepreneurship from these contexts while exploring the role of their entrepreneurial activities in their household wellbeing.

Towards the Concept of Wellbeing

The concept of wellbeing is repeatedly used in terms of quality of life, physical and emotional feelings, and health (Kingsley, Townsend, Wilson & Bolam, 2013). According to the Millennium ecosystem assessment (MA) wellbeing is a multifaceted state that has five different dimensions i.e. basic needs, health, safety, belongings and freedom to choose and act. All these five dimensions are qualitative in nature as these vary from person to person. (Carpenter, Mooney, Agard, Capistrano, DeFries., Díaz,& Perrings, 2009).

In the first half of 20th century wellbeing was researched quantitatively/objectively but due to the lack of valid results in the second half of 20th century wellbeing was taken subjectively. According to the objective view of wellbeing, wellbeing can be defined without considering individual's own preferences, beliefs and values while the subjective view of wellbeing considers all of these factors important to wellbeing (Schimmack, 2009). Wellbeing no doubt is a subjective phenomenon as people themselves evaluate/ perceive their experiences (Deci & Ryan, 2008; Kumaraswamy, 2007; Diener, Scollon & Lucas, 2009). Wellbeing means different to different

people. Everyone can have his own definition of wellbeing for himself (Frey & Stutzer, 2010). Therefore, the current research study attempts to take the subjective view of wellbeing in consideration. Subjective wellbeing underlines a person's own evaluation of life rather than the expert's judgments (Diener et al., 2009).

The Household Wellbeing

The household is a unit where personal, social and material resources are shared. The members of the household are strongly interdependent upon each other and because of this interdependency the factors which affect one household member will also affect the other members at the household level (Miligan, Sue, Fabian, Coope, & Errington, 2006).

Households are important units of a society. Studying the household wellbeing enables us to understand how different households are confronting different dimensions of wellbeing. It further enables us to understand how they are acquiring and spending resources and the how relationship among members of a household affect each other. Moreover, assets and resources are shared within the household and saving and investment decisions are also taken at the household level rather than individual level (Milligon et al., 2006). Fewer studies have been conducted on the household wellbeing further leaving a big gap in the literature to depict the entrepreneur women's contribution in the household wellbeing. The current research study thus attempts to explore the contributions of women entrepreneurs towards their household wellbeing.

The Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework of a research study demonstrates visually, graphically or in narrative forms the key concepts to be studied and establishes a relationship among these concepts. It moves the research study on a particular path and the theoretical grounds on which the research is built on (Adom, Adu, Agyekum, Ayarkwa, Dwuma, Abass, & Obeng, 2016). The current section of the research paper thus aims to build a conceptual framework of the important concepts used in the study by explaining and linking them together.

Family life matters to both men and women however, society primarily assigns the responsibility of family and children to women (Lerner et al., 1997; Parasuraman & Simmers, 2001). From the very past women are denied to have access to education, information and tools essential to their development and growth (Shetty & Vasanthi, 2019; Khan, Nasir, Jmashaid,

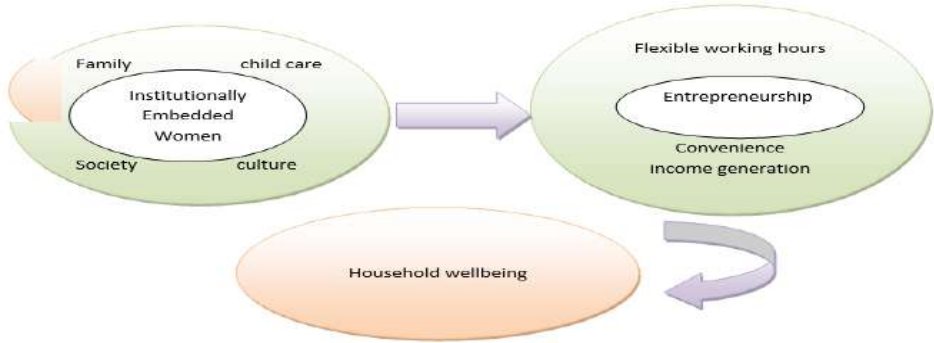
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Omer & Nasir, 2020; Alhothali, 2020). For parents it is more important to have a happily married rather a well-educated daughter (Reis, 2002). This represents women deeply embedded in the informal norms of societies.

The socio cultural environment around the women entrepreneurs in Pukhtun society not only influences their choice towards entrepreneurship but also influences their entrepreneurial attitudes, behaviors, motives of venture creations and obstacles they face in establishing and carrying on the businesses. Thus, their inclination towards “entrepreneurship” is shaped by socio cultural norms of the Pukhtun society, hence, this research takes the informal norms of Pukhtun society into consideration while exploring the subjective wellbeing of the household from the own perspective of women entrepreneurs.

The informal institutions sometimes labeled as normative institutions are deeply embedded with in a society and determine the gender roles within that society thereby, affecting the desirability of entrepreneurship for women, its nature and extent (Welter, Brush & Bruin, 2014). Informal institutions affect both the willingness to act as well as ability to act (Greenman, 2013). Literature shows that societies perceive and define the role of women with respect to family and household responsibilities (Jamali, 2009). Motherhood specifically in the context of household affects women more as compared to men (Brush et al., 2009). This tends women to choose those jobs that give them “convenience” and demand flexible and lesser working hours so that to enable them to accommodate both job and family life (Lerner et al., 1997). Self-employment thus, provides more flexibility and time to women to juggle with her household chores and childcare as compared to formal employment (Parker, 2018). For women, entrepreneurship is the way to earn incomes along with catering household responsibilities that further leads to their household wellbeing. Entrepreneurship provides women with opportunities that lead to financial independence, autonomy and power of decision making (Lok, Kumario & Sim, 2019), that further enhance their personal growth and increases the overall wellbeing of their own selves and their households. A subjective lens of wellbeing is adopted for this research study as the subjectivists look at reality as one’s own perception and not a concrete structure as the objectivists believe (Bahari, 2010). The study also assumes that every women entrepreneur perceives the reality in her own way, so as per perception of subjective wellbeing. The figure 1 represents the conceptual framework of the study.

Fig: 1. Conceptual Framework of the Study



Method

The Qualitative approach is adopted to explore and keenly understand the dynamic phenomenon of women entrepreneurship strongly embedded in informal norms of the society in Khyber Pakhtunkhwa. Qualitative method is best suitable to understand the intangible factors like values, norms, emotions, culture and traditions as understanding entrepreneurship means knowing in-depth about it and meanings attached to this concept (Raco, 2018).

In entrepreneurship researches, many of the research findings are based on rigorous and predetermined assumptions about entrepreneurship that are established prior to conduct the studies (Raco, 2018; Kumar & Pattanayak, 2018). These research studies see entrepreneur as an object and not as a subject who has his/her own unique perceptions and meanings that he/she attaches to his/her unique and multiple realities. Such studies miss the essence of an entrepreneur's experiences from his/her own perspective. Thus, adopting a positivist or objective approach is inappropriate as it will narrow down the richness of the concept (Raco, 2018). Moreover, women entrepreneurs particularly belonging to KP are bound by certain social and cultural limitations in shaping their choices towards entrepreneurship. Therefore, it is not a straight forward or objective phenomenon hence, the research study is difficult to explain in terms of fixed assumptions like that of the positivism. Therefore, the assumptions of interpretivism shall be followed.

Primary data through purposive sampling technique are collected through face to face in depth interviews from 30 women entrepreneurs working in different major districts of KP.

Results

The primary objective of this research paper is to unveil the contributions of women entrepreneurs of Khyber Pakhtunkhwa towards their household wellbeing. The data collected via in-depth interviews with 30 women entrepreneurs in KP, was analyzed thematically. An Intelligent Verbatim transcription style is adopted to translate and convert each single recorded tape in to written document. Initial and merged codes are generated manually to reduce the bulky data and to find what is of interest for the researcher. Themes, subthemes and categories are generated from the merged codes.

The first category discusses the informal norms and values shaping the choice of women towards entrepreneurship in Pakhtun society of KP.

Table 1

Embeddedness of women entrepreneurs in Informal Institutions of the Society

Category	Themes and Sub Themes	Merged codes	
Embeddedness of women entrepreneurs in Informal Institutions of the society	Stereotype attitude of society towards working women	Conservative minded brothers Non supporting in-laws The dilemma of early marriage Restrictions on business in commercial area Reservations on working with men Restrictions on adapting strategic marketing strategies Family as first priority Time management issues Motherhood and child care	
	Patriarchal culture of KP	Non-supporting family Social perceptions towards women owned businesses Work life-family life balance Role of women in family Domestic chores Societal and familial pressure on unmarried women Change in marital status Unemployment of father/ husband	
	Elicit factors shaping women’s choice towards entrepreneurship	Necessity entrepreneur	Financial issues Transformation of skill into business Self-realization
		Opportunity entrepreneur	

The above category presents a clear picture of how the women entrepreneurs in KP are embedded in the informal institutions of the society. How cultural values and social perceptions about women affect them and their choice towards entrepreneurship. It is clearly evident that the utmost priority of women entrepreneurs is their family and children.

“My home is my utmost priority. I know If I do a job, my home will be ignored which I cannot afford on any cost. No matter I am earning in lakhs but what if I am not giving time to my children. I cannot tolerate seeing my domestic chores undone and everything around untidy” (Aina)

While being in entrepreneurship, women cannot put their domestic responsibilities on side. This makes the women entrepreneurs as multitaskers while simultaneously coping up with their household responsibilities including child care, taking care of other family members, cleaning, washing and moping etc. as well as their entrepreneurial endeavors.

The data revealed women entrepreneurs in KP are sometimes the only while sometimes a supplementary source of income for their families. In case of only source of income, a better life style, extreme financial crises with in the household, husband’s unemployment, sickness or death leave them with no option other than self-employment (Acs, 2006; Nikiforou, Dencker & Gruber, 2019).

“Definitely women should earn. There may be women who work just for the sake of enjoyment but what will a woman like me do? If there is no one to earns for her children. My husband is sick and not able to earn. He was mentally abnormal before our marriage however, we were not aware about that. I am the only source of income for my family. My sons are not well established yet, they are still studying” (Naseem Akhter)

Women entrepreneurs like Naseem Akhtar are sometimes pushed into entrepreneurship for sake of meeting financial needs of the household while sometimes pulled into entrepreneurship for sake of recognition and realization of self-potential.

“I am not working for the sake of earning only but for realizing my potential and recognition in the society. I have a huge social circle including very honorable people. This gives me satisfaction. (Nosheen)

Either being pushed or pulled into entrepreneurship however, women entrepreneurs in Pukhtun society of KP often known as the custodians of family’s honor carry on their entrepreneurial activities within the limits set by the society for them. Therefore, the phenomenon of entrepreneurship in a Pakhtun society cannot be understood until taking the informal norms of this society into account. Taking in consideration the informal norms, the next category explores the contributions of women entrepreneurs towards their household wellbeing.

Contributions of Women Entrepreneurs towards Their Household Wellbeing

Despite of various cultural and social obstacles, women entrepreneurs are surprisingly making significant contributions towards their household wellbeing (Roomi & Parrot, 2008). The current category is derived from various merged codes and subthemes, providing a picture of women’s contributions towards their household wellbeing.

Table: 2
Contributions of Women Entrepreneurs towards their Household Subjective Wellbeing

Category	Themes and Sub Themes	Merged Codes
Contributions of Women Entrepreneurs towards Their Household Wellbeing	Contributions Towards Household’s Health	Better Physical health
		Better Mental Health
	Contributions Towards Household’s Education	Personal Education
		Education of Household members
	Transition in	
		Feeling fresh Being busy keeps active and younger Business aided in dealing health issues Contributions towards family’s health expenditures Mental relaxation Curing depression Business contribution in getting higher education Meeting university transport costs Hostel fee Children’s education in well reputed education institutions Meeting education expenses of extended family members Healthy and good food

	Consumption Pattern	Purchasing luxuries Branded products Traveling northern areas
Contribution Towards Raising the Living Standard of Sample Households	Housing	Purchasing house Purchasing plot Maintenance and repairing of house Payment of house rent Payment of utility bills
	Contributions Towards Household's Expenditures	Day to day household expenditures Daughter's marriages expenses

The above category depicts, women entrepreneurs in KP are making tremendous contributions towards their own as well as their household's education through their small and medium entrepreneurial ventures. Many of the women entrepreneurs revealed during interviews that they are self-financing their education expenses. Many are financing their children's higher education in well reputed education institutions in Pakistan and are making significant contributions in making their future brighter.

"I use my income for paying my children's education costs since their childhood. Now they are studying in semester system which costs heavy amount of fees. I pay all of my children's semester fees. In addition to this, I have to send money each month to my son in Abbottabad. As he has to pay for his food and accommodation etc., so it became a huge amount in total" (Rukhsana)

Not only their children but some of the women entrepreneurs are also financing the education of their family members other than their children.

The data further revealed health of the household as another important indicator of wellbeing. The above category explains the contributions of women entrepreneurs not only towards their own physical and mental health but also towards the health expenditures of their other family members. A number of women entrepreneurs revealed the positive effects of their involvement in entrepreneurial activities on their mental health. Many women entrepreneurs during the phase of data collection revealed that their involvement in entrepreneurial activities is a way out of depressive incidents in their lives.

"In 2017 my mother died with cancer. After 2 months of her death, my father also died. It was the most difficult phase of my life. Within

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2 months I lost both of my parents. I left all my business activities. I was suffering with extreme depression those days. My husband advised me to restart my business activities. I restarted gradually and my business helped me in being out of that severe depression. It keeps me busy and I do not get time to get depress even.

The research further unveils the contributions of business in keeping women away from old age depression. The old age women entrepreneurs experience a happier and healthier life which they won't be experiencing without their involvement in entrepreneurship.

"I am 67 years old but my work is keeping me active and healthy. My work is keeping me away from old age depression. My business is keeping me as active even I forgot my age that is 67 years"
(Jamila Khatoon)

The category further explored the contributions of women entrepreneurs in curing their own as well as family member's physical illness. Thereby, leading to their household wellbeing.

The research study explored the household wellbeing of women entrepreneurs as per their own evaluations of wellbeing. Thus, women entrepreneurs narrated a number of indicators depicting the raised living standards of their households. After a detailed analysis of the data, contributions of women entrepreneurs towards improving their living standards are found as multifaceted. They with their incomes raised through entrepreneurial ventures are improving their living standards in a variety of ways.

Almost all of the women entrepreneurs are contributing a major part of their incomes in their household expenditures. A majority of them have significantly contributed in alleviating the financial crises of their family. For them the basic motivation to start up was to help and financially assist their male counterparts.

"My husband is unemployed since I got married. I also spent days when there was nothing to eat at home. I am very thankful to God that we are also eating better food now. If I leave this work there would be nothing to eat and wear for my children." (Maryum)

The results in the above category explored improvement in the living standards of women entrepreneurs and their households. Among many factors indicating a raised living standard, housing has been found as a major indicator. Many women entrepreneurs from poor families running their small

entrepreneurial ventures disclosed the contributions of their small businesses in paying rent of their houses.

“No this house is on rent. We pay 60,000 per month for this house and credit goes all to my business” (Aina)

In addition to this, many women entrepreneurs who were earlier living in rented houses were able to purchase land and build houses with their own income as income is the core determinant of house affordability (Milligan, Sue, Angela Fabian, Coope, and Errington 2006).

“Yes our new big house is in phase of construction now a days. I will be having a big space for my parlor over there and my business will flourish. I am very excited about that as I can extend my business activities when I will be having a bigger space. No doubt I have contributed a lot in building the house. Without my financial contributions it would not be possible for my husband alone to build our new house” (Sheeba)

It has been found that women through their incomes rose through their entrepreneurial ventures became capable of benefiting their household in a variety of ways.

Discussion and Conclusions

Women entrepreneurship in a Pakhtun society is highly embedded in social and cultural norms of the society. Family, childcare and coping with household chores is the first and utmost priority of women. This tends women to choose those jobs that give them “convenience” and demand flexible and lesser working hours so that to enable them to accommodate both job and family life (Lerner et al., 1997). Self-employment/ entrepreneurship thus, provides more flexibility and time to women to juggle with her household chores and childcare as compared to formal employment (Parker, 2009). The results of the research study explicitly reveal that women entrepreneurs in KP are blessed with immense potential to utilize their abilities and unique skills in entrepreneurship and contribute towards their own as well as overall household wellbeing.

The qualitative research study found that the role of women is changing over years bringing women out of the single term “home maker” to “bread winner” as well. A huge number of women enterprises to financially assist their father/ husband and are earning more than their counterparts. Surprisingly these small ventures have remarkable effects on their household wellbeing (Roomi & Parrot, 2008). Utilizing their entrepreneurial skills, they

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not only achieve a level of satisfaction, self-accomplishment and recognition but contribute their income towards their household wellbeing.

After collecting a huge data-set through in-depth interviews with women entrepreneurs in KP, the research study found a number of interesting insights into women entrepreneurs and their household wellbeing.

Women in KP are often denied from their right to education. In addition to this the increasing cost of education in Pakistan is further making it difficult for parents to send their daughters to school hence, further decreasing women's literacy rate in the region (Mehmood, Chong & Hussain, 2018). However, the research study highlighted the tremendous contributions of women entrepreneurs towards their own as well as household's education. The research explored that women entrepreneurs not only found path ways to finance and avail higher education themselves but are also meeting the education expenses of their children, siblings and other family members. The results highlighted that women entrepreneur's access to adequate incomes earned through their small entrepreneurial ventures, not only influences their options for attaining better education facilities but better medical facilities for their selves as well as sick members of the household. Moreover, the research study interestingly found positive effects of entrepreneurship, on the mental health of women entrepreneurs, making them healthy, active and fresh particularly in the old age. Many are the only source of income for their family meeting the health expenses of sick husband and other household members.

The research study further found a rise in the living standards of women entrepreneurs while living standard being the fundamental indicator of household wellbeing (Milligan et al., 2006). Almost all of the women entrepreneurs are contributing a major part of their incomes in their household expenditures. A majority of them have significantly contributed in alleviating the financial crises of their family. Women entrepreneurs revealed the contributions of their entrepreneurial endeavors in improving and increasing their consumption, household expenditure, housing and other facilities that are mandatory to a better standard of living.

According to the social and cultural construct of Khyber Pukhtunkhwa, Woman's primary responsibility is her family and children no matter how she grows in her business. Despite the traditional attitudes of the society and family priorities of women, still an increasing number of women are attracted towards entrepreneurship to lift their selves and families out of poverty and

contribute towards better health facilities, education and a better standard of living. Therefore, the contributions of women owned entrepreneurial ventures towards their household wellbeing must be recognized and steps should be taken to provide better financial, infrastructural and training facilities to women entrepreneurs in KP however, keeping in mind the social and cultural construct of KP.

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US Security Assistance to Pakistan in Post 9/11 Period

Faiza Bashir

Islamia College Peshawar

Shahida Aman

University of Peshawar

This paper attempts to understand the dynamics of United States aid assistance to Pakistan in the light of post 9/11 security developments in the world. The analysis of US foreign policy aid instruments generally indicates three broad objectives: strategic/politico-security benefits, economic interests and humanitarian concerns. Although one consistently recurring theme in US foreign policy aid provision, both in the Cold War period and the newer post 2001 ‘War on Terror’ period has been security. This theme has also defined US-Pakistan aid relationship in different times, with the exception of Bush administration, who unlike the Cold War period made an alteration by specifying funds for purpose-based usage in sub-fields. This paper argues that Bush administration sought to achieve US foreign policy objectives by providing strategic aid to Pakistan much at the expense of domestic public opinion. It further stresses that change in administration in the US brought obstacles in aid flows to Pakistan as President Obama not only reduced the amount of aid under specific heads, but also openly accused Pakistan of fomenting the militants (the good Taliban), which in turn hurt the US broader strategic goals in the region and raised irreconcilable issues of trust between the two countries. The new administration of Trump went a step ahead by suspending many of the aid programmes to Pakistan, bringing the all-time trust-deficit between the two countries to an all-time low. This paper primarily applies the realist and neo-realist theoretical framework to understand the aid and security relationship paradigm between the US and Pakistan.

Keywords: Military assistance, foreign policy, economic aid, US Pakistan relationship

“Foreign assistance is an essential component of our transformational diplomacy... to empower developing countries to strengthen security, to consolidate democracy, to increase trade and investment, and to improve the lives of their people...and to prevent the future of the failed states like

Afghanistan.”-Former Secretary of State Condoleezza Rice, speech to the State Department (Bureau of Public Affairs, 2006)

Of the various unveiling apparatuses that modern states have used as instruments of foreign policy and fighting wars, one that has produced contestation, aggression and conversely active support is military assistance. Foreign aid has long been considered as an instrument of influence. Use of military assistance as a trenchant ingredient of policy has been abandoned by the modern states except United States, who has been using it as legitimate and budgeted strategy. Nevertheless, in times of war military assistance is considered to be a legal and feasible choice. In post-Cold War politics, to generate their support, the donor states may create recipients who are eager to enter into such kinds of relationship (Mott, 1999).

Generally, “forgiven loans” and exclusive certification of arm sale are presented as an explanation for and objurgating military assistance. Policy planners often find excuses and cautiously pick cases of military assistance to justify their own policy decisions. On the other side, theorists view it in broader spectrum and include it in foreign aid.

The US uses aid as an instrument in forming and promoting joint security matters with its allies (Carol 2008). During Cold War, aid has its specific use in winning allies and buying support against communism (Lundborg 1998). Studies related to foreign aid suggest that the termination of Cold War turn the motive of aid towards humanitarian and developmental one, (Carol 2008) but the beginning of War on Terror harked back the Cold War doctrine of using aid to buy support (Fleck & Kilby 2010).

After the incident of 9/11, Bush administration brought a revolution in the US aid policy. This transformation include change in the motive of aid, its policies and quantity and mechanism to be added in US foreign policy (Fleck & Kilby 2010). Different aid programs were formulated to achieve specific objectives; in totality the purpose of aid is to expand US sphere of influence.

If we compare the aid flow of Cold War with that of War on Terror, it is very much clear that, the goal of aid is to generate support for US led global order and War on Terror. Nevertheless, the amount of aid has been increased substantially going towards the project that benefit the US in its post 9/11 security requirement (Woods 2005). Evidently, donor interests affect the bilateral aid. The large amount of aid in War on Terror have included funds specified for strategically significant partners like Pakistan (Fleck & Kilby

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2010). Keeping in view these strategically significant partners most of the alterations in aid allocation have been made during War on Terror (Moss, Roodman, & Standley 2005). There are other objectives of aid like US has proven the commitment to wipe out polio, reduce small pox and promote democratic values. Yet the opinion of elites prevails in the discourses of foreign policy (Picard & Buss 2009). In the elites' viewpoint, security concerns have dominated the post 9/11 scenario and foreign aid policy reverted to meet US security requirements. To Bob Woodward, US foreign aid policy has still humanitarian and economic reasons. It was Bush administration policy that completely ignored the previous goals of aid like humanitarian and spread of American values i.e. democracy (Woodward 2006).

Objectives of US Aid After Cold War



Foreign Policy Objectives
During WoT



Security Aid

Bush administration to pursue its security policy in the region once again catapulted Pakistan to an indispensable ally status in the regional security set-up. Consequently, Pakistan revisited its security policy and became a frontline state in the US led War on Terror. For realization of her interests in the region, the US again realizing the need for an old partner, waived the sanctions imposed on Pakistan during the 1990s. To enhance Pakistan's potential to take actions against the militants, the United States provided Pakistan military

assistance through various funds. This paper focuses on post 9/11 Pak-US security relations through the lens of US security policy in post 9/11. It focuses predominantly on the nature of US security assistance to Pakistan in post 9/11 period and the related dynamism associated with it. For exploring this facet of Pak-US relations, the paper is divided into five parts. The first part introduces the subject under consideration. The second part is based on discourses on military assistance and its relevance in contemporary world. The third part describes the US security assistance provided through three different funds, carried off by Bureau of Political-Military Affairs. The fourth part of this paper analyzes Pak-US security assistance program, provided through Coalition Support Fund and related funds. The fifth and last part of this paper conclude the whole discussion.

Military Assistance in Retrospect

Military assistance is not a new phenomenon; it is as old as global politics. It has been used across the world in different forms as an instrument of foreign policy since the very early times. In some cases, it is used by the donor for promotion of its interest as the core principle of foreign policy; while in other cases, it is used as a core principle by the recipients. In the contemporary world, the phenomenon evolved in the concept of mercenary soldiers employed by feudal lords e.g., England Coalition Wars against France. In the 18th century, the phenomenon was embedded in navy when Europeans armed and paid crews of foreign ships to intimidate their rivals. The idea of military assistance came to loom again as diplomatic and strategic instrument when the United States started Lend-Lease program of World War II. By means of such schemes, the United States used military assistance as additive to ameliorate allied military endeavors (Mott, 1999).

Soon after the war, the United States used military and economic aid as the prime instrument of its foreign policy during peace time to restore world order. Aid programs launched by the United States and the Soviet Union enhance the scope of military assistance when it was extended to the developing states in 1954 and was perceived more than just an instrument to strengthen the military potentials of the recipient nations. The United States expected that the military assistance it provided to the recipient would serve as a substitute of American forces to contain the Communist influence. The stipulated objectives that the US military assistance could serve came to an end after the disintegration of the Soviet Union. The United States deemed military assistance as instrument of foreign policy to create foreign forces to act as the US proxies which can operate at every stage with the exception of nuclear war (Mott, 1999).

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Over a period of time, governments have allocated huge amounts of money and enormous possessions to military assistance as distinct element of foreign policy.

Military Assistance: A Theoretical Perspective

From realist perspective many powerful nations of the world are providing military assistance to a number of countries despite wrangling, propaganda and outrages. Analytical ideas emerged while focusing only the happenings of the Cold War and witnessed the US involvement in Vietnam and the Soviet involvement in Africa as the reflection of a novelist tale and a credible testimony of incompetence of military assistance. While discrediting the utility of military assistance, the theorists forgot that it remained a core principle of state policy since Punic Wars.

Over a period of time, military assistance stands out to be unappealing or overlooked. Herodotus and Thucydides observed use of military assistance in the ancient Greece in colligation of political alliance to intimidate the enemy. Imperial Roman donor-recipient relationship of Julio-Claudian era witnessed the use of military assistance both in shape of grants to recipient kings and reinforcing recipient forces to match the Romans.

During the period of Renaissance merchants, the princes and the feudal lords had integrated in mercenary army to provide financial grants enabling them to contract muscles without waging a war.

The thinkers of post-Renaissance period who were exploring the extents of human conditions and political leaders dealing with donor-recipient relationship based on military assistance, didn't find it pleasing and relevant. But with the transformation in recording data scientifically like trade, capital flow, size and stockpiling armies, battle cause and effect, military budget got eminence unlike conventional data set, and it became conceivable to compute military assistance and the fall outs of foreign policy. Military assistance re-emerged in diplomacy and became part of appropriation bill during World War. Nevertheless, the theoretical grounds for policy decisions and analysis are shaky (Mott, 1999).

In the contemporary political theory, the concept of military assistance caught the eyes of theorists with the evolutionary process of US aid programs since World War II. Modern theories of military assistance underscore its use during peace times and pass over the ideas in warfare. Foreign aid encompasses both military and economic assistance, and theorists endeavor to

keep them conscientiously segregated. Jacob Kaplan associated it to “the absence of a compelling philosophy [for aid policy and] the lack of a rallying point in the form of either a set of tenets or a record of accomplishment (Kaplan, 1967).” The role of military assistance during war times has been overlooked by the theorist and scholars since they were more determined for preservation of world peace.

Truman Doctrine and Marshall Plan 1947-1955, was the reflection that the United States is realizing the need of preservation of peace and extending a helping hand to the war ridden area and building in new socio-economic and political mechanism; humanitarianism and relief from the destruction of war were the firm motivations of aid programs monopolized by economic aid. Korean war, Indochinese war, defeat of Chiang Kai-Shek and atomic program of the USSR exacerbated influence of communism and seemed eternal and worldwide. The United States confronted with strategic concerns and expanding communist influence in Europe rested her policy on two core propositions, containment of Communism and collective security. Military assistance made both the propositions feasible. It also popularized the principle of sharing the responsibility of joint defense, since states made their bases available for foreign nation and provided armed forces and political support in this regard (Council, 1992).

Marshall Plan provided theoretical foundation for linking economic aid to military and strategic policies. The US Mutual Defense Act of 1949 systemized economic and military assistance and transformed it from strategic policy employed during the wars to endless and calculated policy. Truman “Point Four” program of technical assistance put in the belief that economic growth in less developing countries (LDCs) could be nurtured through capital flow (Galdi, 1988) in the form of armament to contain Communism.

The next phase of theoretical development i.e., 1955–late 1960s witnessed a shift in the US policy towards alliances and cordiality in relations while competing with the USSR. Although the perils to security marginalized, a new trend in global politics was introduced in the form of elevated support to military assistance that substituted economic aid: European and Asian recouped from the sufferings of war and were in a position to handle the menace of Communism by themselves. The prevalent logic behind popularity of military aid was that both economic and military aid fall in the domain of foreign aid—an additive to the recipient nation to elevate their economic and security potential on their own without waging war (Council, 1992). The early theories of this era imitated the triumph of Marshall Plan, showing massive

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flow of money and goods given at right time, lead to economic growth and at the same time impede growth of Communism devoid of either military assistance (or) engagement of donor armed forces (Nowels, 1988).

Theoretical interest tilted towards politics as trend in Cold War shifted from military assistance to economic assistance, and the United States endorsed that poverty and dissatisfaction are the natural partners of Communism therefore aid should be provided not only military but economic and political as well. In 1960s, the United States used aid as a principal of its foreign policy encompassing both economic and military assistance. Consequently, the theorists found difficulty in segregating economic and military aid when it comes to US foreign aid appropriation bill.

The success of Communist forces in Vietnam disparaged the idea of military assistance of creating indigenous forces to fight traditional wars, and the assumption came to lime light justifying the role of military assistance in fighting insurrection and discrediting its role to foster economic growth. After the Vietnam war, the United States emphasized its internal security but still used military assistance in Sino-Soviet peninsula as a deterrent to encroachment and an early capability to fight against it (President, 1967). The aim was to create proxies as a component of US Forward Defense Strategy. The Nixon Doctrine (1969) brought the idea into effect again that military assistance can create a (Grimmett., 2009) surrogate force through “burden sharing.”

Before the Vietnam war, people were contented with the justification that military assistance is a means to prepare allies to handle local and regional threats without engaging the US forces directly. After the war, military assistance was regarded as a kind of force used by the United States that would always not be able to deter threats to their security with the hazard that US forces would be required to pledge (Hildreth, 1985).

The next phase of theoretical development—US defeat in Vietnam and détente—disregarded economic and military assistance as core principle of foreign policy. President Lyndon B. Johnson anti-poverty program considered poverty as the basic reason of instability and susceptibility to Communism (Hough, 1982). The US policy emphasized basic human needs while theorist focused on the behavioral facet of military assistance.

In mid 1970s, military assistance immensely diminished as the donor transformed military assistance recipient to buyers of weapons and officially

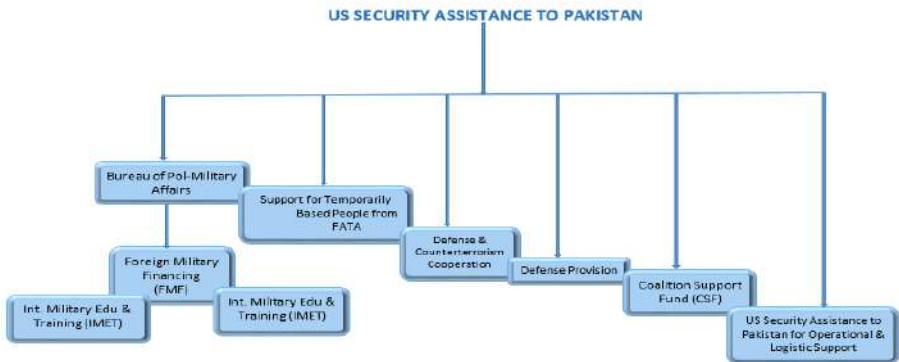
segregated military assistance from economic aid. Theorist focused their attention on transmission of armament either through donor aid or commercial deals, while military assistance touched its lowest point during Carter regime (1976-1980).

In the decade of 1980s, President Reagan introduced reforms and reinstated military assistance and economic aid as core principle of foreign policy and pronounced his arms sale policy as legitimate. However, the problem to differentiate between economic aid and military assistance came to surface in 1980s (Grimmett, 1988). Theorists realized the need of adhesive approach to manage both foreign and economic aid.

However, the event of 9/11 opened a new chapter of aid flow in the form of economic and military assistance. The United States sensed the need of providing military and economic assistance to materialize its stipulated objectives in Asia. In this regard, the revival of alliance between Pakistan and the United States is worth mentioning. To target its enemy, the United States gave new life to the ailing alliance with Pakistan. The United States extended economic and military aid through various funds as to enhance the potential of Pakistan in eliminating extremism and militancy from her soil (Markey, 2016).

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To develop further understanding of this donor-recipient relationship and the US strategy to achieve its foreign policy objective, it is necessary to go through aid programs meant to seek Pakistan's support in post 9/11 period.



Security Assistance Funding Under Bureau of Political-Military Affairs

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In the US, the Bureau of Political-Military Affairs managed security assistance funds. This bureau provides security assistance through three funds: Foreign Military Financing, International Military Education and Training and Pakistan Counterinsurgency Capability Fund.

a) Foreign Military Financing (FMF)

Foreign Military Financing (FMF) is an account that provides security assistance for buying US defense equipment and services. FMF is a forum that set the stage for long-term Pak-US security relationship. Pakistan's position in the US security mechanism got elevated since the US found an increasing role of Pakistan in counterterrorism, enduring peace in Afghanistan and nuclear non-proliferation efforts (Iqbal, 2015). The fund aims to transform and modernize Pakistan's armed forces to enhance its potential through up-gradation of equipment, training of forces and acquisition of new equipment. It aims to promote closer ties between Pakistan and the United States and boost their interoperability.

Besides enhancing Pakistan's counter-insurgency and counterterrorism potentialities, FMF is developing Pakistan military potential to meet its defense requirements. FMF also aims to support the US strategy of promoting regional peace and stability, combating terrorism and increasing role of Pakistan in stability operations. By assisting Pakistan in meeting its security needs, the US justifies its role as a reliable partner in attaining mutual security interests (Shapiro, 2010). The evident expression of this support is Obama's proposal to the US Congress for six-time increase in FMF in his 2016 budget sent to the Congress. The budget shows increase in FMF to Pakistan from \$42.2 million in 2014-15 to \$265 million in 2016 (Iqbal, 2015). The proposed aid to Pakistan aims to reinforce Pakistan's military against the extremists, to enhance the security of Pakistan's nuclear installation and hasten its economic development. (Iqbal, 2015). These efforts of the US showed that the Obama administration, apart from realizing its objectives by taking advantage of Pakistan's geographical position, contemplated Pakistan an important player in bringing peace to the region. The Obama administration realized Pakistan as a major stakeholder in bringing peace in Afghanistan. Nevertheless, things suddenly changed for Pakistan as Donald Trump came into power.

The US State Department signaled to cut down volume of military aid to \$100 million for the coming fiscal year. Previously, Pakistan has received \$ 225 million in respect of Foreign Military Financing (FMF), but the Trump administration has proposed reduction of \$100 million. However, it is decided

to provide \$200 million as economic assistance to Pakistan as in the previous budget (Abbasi, 2017).

According to US State Department, the current budget emphasized an increase in the FMF for Israel, Egypt, Jordan and Pakistan. Apart from \$100 million as FMF, the budget for the year 2018 also proposed \$200 million as economic assistance while \$25 million for law enforcement agency. Additionally, the budget also suggested the approval of \$11.3 million for the reinforcement of health sector in Pakistan (Abbasi, 2017). Many officials, owing to the mounting frustration with Pakistan, agreed that there is need of ameliorating if not ending economic assistance to Pakistan. FMF in the previous five years averaged \$300 million (Markey, 2016).

Pakistan's ambassador to United States while talking about the \$125 million cut proposed in the budget asserted that both Pakistan and the United States have reciprocal interest in the counter-terrorism efforts. He further said that their bilateral relations cover diverse nature of issues encompassing counterterrorism, and this collaboration is serving the joint interest of both nations.

While justifying the Congressional budget, the US State Department underscored the significance of Pakistan and its crucial role in counterterrorism efforts, nuclear non-proliferation, restoration of peace in Afghanistan and economic integration in South and Central Asia. Pakistan is also serving as international business market for the US businesses.

The budget emphasized that FMF will promote the US national security interest in Pakistan by ensuring enhancement of stability and security and fighting terrorism by dismantling sanctuaries of militant organizations. It was emphasized that assistance to Pakistan helps in building counterterrorism and counterinsurgency competence of Pakistani security forces to install peace in the Tribal Belt along the borders of Afghanistan, achieve the mutually agreed objectives i.e., flushing out Al-Qaeda elements and repel the perils emanating from the ISIS.

According to the budget, the proposed \$200 million as Economic Support and Development Fund will ensure Pakistan's lasting security and border management and regional security structure (Abbasi, 2017).

b) *International Military Education & Training (IMET)*

Pak-US military training program is another joint undertaking leading towards more cooperation. International Military Education and Training (IMET) is a platform that serves to strengthen Pak-US ties. This program is valuable for promoting expertise Pakistan's military leadership and building up its capacity to fight against the insurrectionaries in the future (Shapiro, 2010). Since 2009, about 1,120 members of Pakistan Army, Navy and Air Force have been trained by the US. Additionally, both the states are leading joint training and military staff exchange each year to enhance cooperation and interoperability between militaries of the two states.

The Bush administration set out program of enhancing the potential of Frontier Corps (FC), the primary obligation of which is to protect the borders that Pakistan shares with Afghanistan. In 2007, the US started utilizing its funds for grooming and outfitting FC and compounding its engrossment in backing up Pakistan's counterinsurgency efforts. The United States has also been giving training to Pakistan's elite Special Service Group Command. All this lingered on during the Obama administration. However, the scheme of training the FC has been trammled by Pakistan's hesitancy of sending troops owing to its need for crucial operations to a different place. Some analysts are of the view that the US can better train Pakistani soldiers than private contractor.

Other security related programs for Pakistan include cooperation in counterinsurgency, border safety, infrastructure building, training to PAF for reconnaissance on extremists and to the army on increasing their competence and awareness on human rights and rule of law etc. (Kronstad, 2013).

The funds set aside for civilian security are meant to ameliorate and underpin law execution system, by providing police training and setting up of counterterrorism Special Investigation Group. The US efforts are shackled by Pakistan's inadequacies that contain corruption, underpay and meager training to the personnel etc. Some of the experts associate these inadequacies with democracy in broader sense and call for the US and global emphasis on enhancing Pakistan civilian sanctuary (Susan & Kronstad, 2013).

c) *Pakistan's Counterinsurgency Capability Fund (PCCF)*

To channelize security assistance to Pakistan and to enhance level of mutual understanding, the US shaped Pakistan's Counterinsurgency

Capability Fund (PCCF).¹ This category has been established with the objectives parallel to CSF but the only alteration is that funds are appropriated for training and reinforcing Pakistani forces to effectively fight against insurrectionaries in Pakistan (Tyson, 2009). Through this fund, the US provided assistance to Pakistan for developing and preserving the potential of its armed forces to launch counterinsurgency and counterterrorism operations and to destroy the terrorist safe heavens in FATA and elsewhere in Pakistan. However, owing to issues of implementation of the fund, Obama's administration decided to rescind and exclude it from the 2014-budget (Dawn, 2013). Pakistan was disappointed with the decision, since the US had revoked the fund without achieving the desired objectives completely. The issue could be solved through supervision and accountability, but the US preferred to annul the fund which would definitely be a setback to the joint efforts of eliminating militancy and bringing peace to the region.

Apart from that, the US humanitarian assistance is also a distinguished accomplishment for Pakistan. The US had set up developmental plan for FATA for ameliorating health and education facilities, particularly the US is providing aid to facilitate the people of war affected zone (USAID Fact Sheets). The military operations launched against the militants in the tribal areas of Pakistan forced the inhabitants to migrate to other areas of the country which put further pressure on the government to provide basic facilities to the temporarily displaced people. On a similar occasion, when the US Secretary of State, John Kerry, visited Pakistan in January 2015 to attend Strategic Dialogues between Pakistan and the US, both the states emphasized the long-term cooperation between them and affirmed to collaborate on the following areas of ongoing activities.

Support for Temporarily Displaced Persons from FATA

During his visit to Pakistan, the US Secretary John Kerry reiterated to support Pakistan's endeavors to fulfill the needs of 700,000 temporarily displaced persons (TDPs) and declared that the US will give \$250 million as aid for food, health, sustenance, livestock and maintenances (US Department

¹ Appearing before both Senate and House panels in May 2009, Secretary of Defense Gates urged Congress to quickly provide significant new counterinsurgency funding for Pakistan, arguing that the newly authorized PCF/PCCF should be overseen by U.S. military commanders rather than by State Department civilians. Yet many in Congress voiced doubts about the wisdom of creating a major new stream of military funding under Pentagon oversight, as such aid traditionally has been subject to Foreign Assistance Act restrictions. When the House Appropriations Committee took up the issue, its members determined to place PCCF oversight in the hands of the State Department after FY2010, a plan then endorsed by the full House ("Gates Pushes Congress to Boost Pakistan Aid." *Washington Post*, May 1, 2009.

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of State, 2015). The US also vowed to support Pakistan in rebuilding of war ridden areas of Pakistan.

Defense & Counterterrorism Cooperation

The US and Pakistan enjoy compact security relationship. The US has also pledged to support Pakistan in case of malevolent threat to her internal security. It has also ensured its support in penalizing the offenders of December 16 episode. The Operation Zarb-e-Azb is a critical move to dismantle the sanctuaries of the terrorists in FATA. Under the security set up, the (Abbas, 2005) United States gives significant hardware to Pakistani troops for carrying out operation against the militants along Pak-Afghan border and to enhance Pakistan's role in global maritime security operation. The US support to Pakistan seems to be helpful in brushing aside the terrorists successfully. The US is likewise helping Pakistan in annihilating terrorism of all kind including those posing peril to regional security like Al-Qaeda, TTP, Haqqani Network and Lashkar-e-Tayyiba (US Department of State, 2015).

US Security Assistance to Pakistan for Operational & Logistic Support

Besides the security assistance provided through the above-mentioned funds, the US is also providing security assistance to Pakistan in acquiring modern weapons and equipment for increase its defense capabilities. The United States is also assisting Pakistan for launching operation in different parts of Pakistan, particularly in Pak-Afghan border areas. The US also has established Coalition Support Fund to reimburse money for the losses incurred by Pakistan during its fight against the militants.

Coalition Support Fund (CSF)

Pakistan and the United States are strategic partners in War on Terror and the US is extending its support to Pakistan in counterterrorism operations to destroy the militant's safe heavens, increase border security and realize the intent of Operation Enduring Freedom by means of Coalition Support Fund. Money is disbursed to Pakistan through this fund for the cost incurred in fighting terrorism (US Department of State, 2015). Since 2001, half of the financial transfer from CSF was made to Pakistan and nearly \$ 10.7 billion was disbursed till June 2013. Out of \$ 10.7 billion, only 2% was allocated to Pakistan Navy and Air Force while the remaining reimbursements are for Pakistan army (US Department of State, 2015). According to the Defense Department, money from CSF was used for 1,00,000 troops fighting in North Waziristan of Pakistan for their food, clothing, housing and armament (Kronstad, 2013).

During Bush administration, the Congress in FY2002 set aside millions of dollars to pay Pakistan and other countries helping the US in counterterrorist activities. In the later years, the Congress comprehended that standard accounting processes were not followed by the US Treasury in reimbursement to Pakistan. According to the sources of the State Department, Pakistan's request for CSF is intensely scrutinized by executive branch agencies, approved by the Secretary of Defense and can be withheld by Congressional action. But most of the funds have been misused by negligence owing to the lack of oversight. In 2008, the Bush administration also determined that Pakistan is diverting most of the funds towards consolidation of its military might against India (Walsh 2008).

The Government Accountability Office (GAO) was given the job to supervise the issue of reimbursement made to Pakistan from CSF. The 2008 reports of GAO illustrated that only few of Pakistani demands were rejected or delayed till 2007. However, the number of rejected requests was greater in 2007 than the previous years. The GAO determined that supervision and accountability was desirable over Pakistan's compensation entitlements for CSF (GAO Report, 2008).

The aid program to Pakistan is said to be prudently scrutinized and recompensed. The National Defense Authorization Act (NDAA) for FY 2008 (Susan & Kronstad, 2013) demanded design of Coalition Support reimbursement from the Secretary of Defense. In 2010, Richard Holbrooke, Special Representative for Afghanistan and Pakistan Ambassador asserted 60-65% of Pakistan's requests under CSF are realized, though an official document depicts that \$688 million remunerated in December 2012 signify 68% of total claimed by Pakistan (Susan & Kronstad, 2013).

During Obama's regime, it was initially decided to annul this fund by the end of 2014. However, Obama later signed a bill into law on 14th December 2014 to extend CSF for another year. But this extension was made with certain strings attached to it (Web, 2014). The assistance provided to Pakistan under CSF will not outstrip \$1 billion. The US Defense Secretary has to certify to the Congress that the funds were used for military operations in North Waziristan for the obliteration of Haqqani Network (The Nation, 2014). The Defense Secretary was also stripped off his authority to sanction \$300 million to Pakistan. Now for the release of such funds, prior Congressional approval was made mandatory (The Express Tribune, 2014). Moreover, it was decided to assess Pakistan's actions taken against other militant groups like TTP, Lashkar-e-Taiba and Quetta Shur Taliban (The Nation, 2014). Being

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frustrated with Pakistan's efforts in War on Terror, the US indemnified more than \$13 billion in CSF, released \$9 billion in economic assistance from 2002 to 2014 (Markey D. , 2016).

Things became more difficult for Pakistan when Donald Trump came to power. In July 2017, the US Defense Department withheld \$50 million CSF payment after Pentagon Chief Jim Mattis leveled charges of not taking stern action against Haqqani Network. The US Defense Department spokesperson asserted "Secretary Mattis told the Congress Defense Committees that he was not able to certify that Pakistan took sufficient actions against the Haqqani Network to permit full reimbursement of the fiscal year 2016 Coalition Support Funds". The US appropriated \$900 million out of which Pakistan received \$550 million, but Jim Mattis withheld \$50. The remaining \$300 million were repealed by Congress in respect of broader appropriation act.

Adam Stump further told "This decision does not reduce the significance of the sacrifices that the Pakistani military has undertaken over previous years. Pakistan still has time to take action against the Haqqani Network in order to influence the secretary's certification decision in FY17 (AFP, 2017)."

The decisions taken by the US State Defense to withhold military funds reflects the level of the US seriousness in eliminating militancy from Pakistan and its efforts of bringing peace in Afghanistan and the region as well. CSF is a fund that was established for the purpose to bear the mutually agreed cost of losses incurred for fighting militancy, but the strings attached to it turned the effectiveness of the fund down.

Defense Provisions

Since 2001, most of the armaments sales and aid to Pakistan incorporates the items that are valuable for counterinsurgency activities. From FY2002-FY2011, the amount under Foreign Military Sales agreement totaled \$5.2 billion (Grimmett, 2009). During operation in South Waziristan in late 2009, the US provided transport helicopters, parts of helicopters gunship, infantry equipment and intelligence and surveillance videos. In projected counterinsurgency operations, Pakistan obtained 1000 quarter-ton bombs and up to 1000 kits for making explosive bombs (Susan & Kronstad, 2013). The State Department argued that FMF are to be utilized only for counterterrorist activities.² Despite security assistance, criticism surfaced on Pakistan's

² F-16 aircraft are reported by some to be effective in Pakistan's counterinsurgency efforts, with improved training and enhanced capabilities allowing for more precise

diversion of all the assistance in beefing up its army against India and for paying less consideration to the elimination of terrorism (Grimmett, 2009).

The US officials are concerned that Pakistan has changed the US weapons in a manner that abuses Arm Export Control Act (Schmitt & Sanger, 2009). The accusation was levelled by the US intelligence agencies after Pakistan conducted the missile test on April 23, 2009. The US suspected that the said missile was a modified form of Harpoon missile provided to Pakistan during 1980s (The News, 2009). However, Pakistan strongly snubbed all these allegations. Pakistani officials claimed that Pakistan had indigenously developed this missile. The missile was actually a modified version of North Korea's technology to develop a land-based missile with the potential to strike India. Pakistani officials complained that defense equipment from the US is coming at very slow pace which obstructed military operations (Schmitt & Sanger, 2009). The US, on the other hand, replied that it had provided Pakistan 50 helicopters since 2006 to date; out of them, 12 are Cobra model. The delivery of some attacking helicopters was overdue owing to Pakistan's deferment (Lake, 2010).

However, *Wall Street Journal* on February 10, 2016, reported that Chairman of Senate Committee on Foreign Relations, Mr. Sen. Bob Corker, decided to stop Obama Administration from selling eight F-16 fighting jets to Pakistan. Coker in a letter to John Kerry, the US Secretary of State, termed Pak-US relations "complicated and imperfect"; regardless of the fact that their partnership realized some of the agreed objective. Pakistan stands out to be "a duplicitous partner, moving sideways rather than forward in resolving regional challenges (Markey, 2016)."

The accusations raised by the two cohorts shows the level of trust they have on each other. It is because of these accusations that efforts made by them to eliminate militancy lack sync. Resultantly, it provides opportunity to the militants to reorganize their efforts. Though, they are fighting for the same cause, but lack of trust leads to the ineffectiveness of their efforts. This is the reason why after a decade long war, they are unable to knock off militants completely.

targeting resulting in fewer civilian casualties (see the December 17, 2009, statements of a Pentagon official at <http://www.defense.gov/transcripts/transcript.aspx?transcriptid=4528>)

Conclusion

In contemporary politics, foreign assistance is considered to be the most essential component of a foreign policy. Regional and international powers provide aid to the strategically significant states to get their support for strategic and security interests. Strategic and security assistance has been an important ingredient of the US foreign policy, not only in the Cold War but also in the post 9/11 period. However, the US government in the face of opposition from its public and the parliament have been consistently upgrading their security assistance to countries like Pakistan, which has important strategic significance for it. The post-2001 Bush Administration established different funds and started different programmes to promote the foreign policy objectives in the strategic and security realms. The 9/11 development elevated Pakistan's failing geo-strategic interest in the eyes of the US government and resultantly earned it a massive injection of security and military aid to fight the militants and support the US strategic design in the region. This paper argued that a large amount of aid inflow to Pakistan in post 9/11 period comes through the CSF, which is viewed as a compensation to Pakistan for the costs incurred and recompense for facilitating coalition forces in fighting the war against militancy and terrorism in the region. It is also important to note that after the withdrawal of the US forces from Afghanistan (end of 2014), the US decided to rescind the fund (CSF), but was extended to another year by the Obama Administration with newer strings attached to it.

The findings of the paper also suggest that Trump Administration's coming into power brought the trust deficit between the two countries to a new height as President Donald Trump in his first tweet in 2018 admonished Pakistan of 'lies and deceit' and blamed her for providing safe heavens that sabotaged the US efforts for peace in Afghanistan. The attitude of the Trump administration highlighted the loopholes of the previous administration in its Afghan and South Asian strategy and cast strong and long-term doubts over Pakistan's credibility as the US ally in its War against terrorism. Trump exacerbated the distrust between the two states by further suspending \$900 million security assistance to Pakistan and terminating Coalition Support Fund (CSF) and suspended International Military Education and Training (IMET) program. This was supposed to serve as a stern action against Pakistan's alleged betrayal of trust. On Pakistan's side, the casualties and disproportionate suffering of human life with 60,000 lives lost and countless injured and a further economic collapse to the tune of \$ 126 billion in its siding of the WoT were highlighted by the government to play down US allegations of 'deceit' and 'lies'. Although security concerns remained a

significant component of the US foreign policy, however it can be argued from a realist perspective that Trump doesn't see the flow of aid to Pakistan in achieving the US foreign policy objective, especially in its security domain. Therefore, despite the repeated calls to Pakistan to 'do more' by previous administrations and the general perceptions by the US administration that Pakistan is not succeeding in fulfilling US foreign policy objectives, it never completely abandoned all security assistance to Pakistan though it did suspend certain heads of aid flows to Pakistan. This underlies the fact that Pakistan still carries weight in the US foreign policy as a potential ally to disarm militant groups and neutralize them in the region and initiate a long-term peace for Afghanistan by securing the Taliban support for the broad based and inclusive government in Afghanistan.

Pakistani perspective on its partnership with the US in post 9/11 period is that the assistance provided to it from different funds under different programs was intended to strengthen the armed forces of the country which, in turn, hampered the strength of the civilian institutions and, therefore, became a cause of derailing democratic process. This runs counter to the promotion of democracy as a fundamental US foreign policy objective. Another perspective also highlights that though military and strategic assistance has been increased multifold yet the civilian aspect of rehabilitation and reintegration of the ones affected most from anti-terrorism operations has been scantily paid attention to. The US has neither initiated any programme for the reconstruction of areas damaged or destroyed because of the military operations launched to destroy the sanctuaries of the militants, nor it has significantly contributed to reintegration in post operation period. Although, in the recently held Pak-US Strategic Dialogues, the US pledged to provide aid for such areas, but no specific program has so far been offered for a practical implementation of its pledges into plan of action. With the recent shifts in US aid policy towards Pakistan coupled with the long-term ramifications associated with security assistance programs, it is highly inevitable that such relationship between the two countries needs to be studied and researched from new perspectives for drawing with sharper observations and generalizations for the future of Pakistan US relationship in the region.

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**Self-Esteem and Psychopathic Traits among Undergraduate Students:
A Structural Equation Modelling Approach**

Sonia Shagufta and Shaista Nazir

Shaheed Benazir Bhutto Women University, Peshawar

This present study aimed to assess the role of self-esteem in the development of psychopathy among undergraduate students (N= 600). Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) techniques were used to analyze the model. On the measurement level, all fit indices were examined and on a structural level, relationships between latent variables were assessed. To explore the model, five latent variables including three factors of psychopathic traits: egocentricity, callous and antisocial traits, and two factors of self-esteem: positive self-esteem and negative self-esteem were identified. The result indicated the promising role of negative self-esteem in the development of psychopathy. Results also revealed that positive self-esteem was negatively related to both antisocial traits and egocentricity. Furthermore, negative self-esteem was found as positively related to antisocial traits of psychopathy suggesting that those students who were high on negative self-esteem were involved in antisocial acts. Overall results indicated that positive self-esteem buffer against antisocial and egocentric traits of psychopathy and found as a safeguard against developing psychopathic traits while negative self-esteem is the promising element in the development of psychopathic traits among students.

Keywords: antisocial traits; callous, egocentricity; negative self-esteem; Positive self-esteem;

Psychopathy is described as a collection of interpersonal, affective, and behavioral characteristics that include manipulation, lack of empathy, and deceiving others. Psychopaths show a lack of emotional attachment, a lack of regrets, artificial charm, deceitfulness, and are inclined to violate social and moral values (Hare, 1999; Hare & Neumann, 2005; Sellbom 2011; Shagufta, 2018; Shagufta, Sahibzada & Boduszek, 2019, Shagufta, 2020). Psychopaths

show a high level of egocentricity and callousness (Glenn, Koleva, Lyer, Graham, & Ditto, 2010, Shagufta, 2018) as well as antisocial and impulsive behavior.

Research suggests that most of the crimes, specifically violent crimes, are committed by a small group of adolescents between early childhood and adulthood (Fergusson, Horwood, & Nagin, 2000, Stattin, Kerr, & Bergmain, 2010). Recent research also shows that adolescents with high levels of psychopathic traits are at high risk of antisocial and criminal behavior (Van Zalk, & Van Zalk, 2015; Shagufta 2020a, Shagufta, 2020b).

Initially, psychopathy was studied as primary and secondary psychopathy. Primary psychopathy is characterized by superficial charm, grandiosity, feelings of boredom, manipulateness, callousness, and lack of guilt. Primary psychopathy has been found positively associated with narcissism and Machiavellianism, and negatively correlated with empathy and fear. Secondary psychopathy is underpinned by behavioral problems such as impulsivity, carelessness, violent criminal behavior, and inability to establish long-term relations. Later on, researchers found that psychopathy is comprised of three factors: egocentricity, callousness, and antisocial trait (Brinkley, 2008; Sellbom, 2011; Shagufta, 2018) rather than two factors. The research found that the antisocial trait of psychopathy was linked to egocentric characteristics among incarcerated adolescents (Scholte, Stoutjesdijk, Van Oudheusden, Lodewijks, & Van der Ploeg, 2010; Shagufta, 2018).

Mokros et al., (2011) found that the callous factor of psychopathy was linked to sexually sadistic disorders. Furthermore, researchers found that antisocial traits of psychopathy were related to impulsive, recidivistic, and violent criminal behavior (Brinkley et al., 2008; Shagufta, 2018, Shagufta, 2020).

Role of Self-esteem in the Development of Psychopathy

The concept of self-esteem is well established in all areas of psychological research and considerable research suggests that positive self-esteem is a characteristic of personality that buffer against negative mental health problems (Pyszczynski, Greenberg, Solomon, Arndt, & Schimel, 2004). Studies also indicate that lower levels of self-esteem played a significant role in the development of psychological problems (Lyubomirsky, Tkach, & Dimatteo, 2006).

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Researchers have acknowledged several factors that are related to psychopathy. One contributory factor that has been known to have an impact on psychopathy is self-esteem. Pastwa-Wojciechowska, KaŹmierczak, & BłaŹek (2012) conducted a study to assess self-esteem as an important element of psychopathic personality and characterize psychopaths as having high self-esteem. In their study, they used the notion of self-esteem as unidimensional, while recently it is suggested that self-esteem can be best conceptualized by two factors: positive self-esteem and negative self-esteem (Boduszek, Hyland, Dzingra, & Mallett, 2013). Therefore, the purpose of the current study was to understand the role of self-esteem by assessing positive and negative dimension in the development of psychopathy.

Onyedibe, (2011) hypothesized a link between self-esteem and psychopathic behavior in prison inmates (N= 302) drawn from Enugu Prisons. The study included both awaiting trial and convicted prisoners with ages ranged between 16 and 65 years. A cross-sectional design was adopted in the study. Rosenberg's (1965) self-esteem scale was used to measure self-esteem and the Psychoticism Scale of the Eysenck Personality Question (EPQ) was used to investigate psychopathic behavior. The results of the study suggested a negative relationship between low self-esteem and psychopathic behavior.

Falkenbech, Howe, and Falki (2013) found an association between self-esteem and psychopathy among inmates. They found that participants who scored high on factor 1 of psychopathy exhibited high self-esteem and low aggression. On the other hand, individuals with high scores on factor 2 of psychopathy showed lower self-esteem and higher aggression.

Previously, self-esteem was used to examine its association with psychopathy. Trzesniewski, Donnellan, Moffitt, Robins, Poulton, & Caspi, (2006) suggested that low self-esteem is the cause of many behavioral problems. Most of the students who were found with low self-esteem were suspended from their schools due to their involvement in violent activities such as bullying, pushing, and hitting other students (Fekkes, Pijpers, & Verloove-Vanhorick, 2005). It is also suggested that low self-esteem influences the mental health of individuals and lead them towards antisocial behavior that ultimately damages society (Donnellan, Trzesniewski, Robbins, Moffitt & Caspi 2005; Sola-Carmona, López-Liria, Padilla-Góngora, Daza, Aguilar-Parra, & Salido-Campos, 2016; Trzesniewski et al., 2006).

A previous study suggested that people with psychopathic personality traits have high self-esteem (Paulhus & Williams 2002; Zeigler-Hill, 2006). There has been plenty of research on self-esteem by using the high and low

concept of psychopathy; however, to date, no study has been conducted to understand the role of positive and negative self-esteem in the development of psychopathy.

A study conducted by McKay, Boduszek, and Harvey (2014) suggested that self-esteem can be best conceptualized by assessing positive and negative rather than high and low. Therefore, the main purpose of the study was to identify the factors: positive self-esteem and negative self-esteem concerning psychopathy among the student population. Positive self-esteem referred to valuing and respecting one's self. Positive self-esteem is associated with happiness, love with life, satisfaction, good mental health, and hopefulness (Corrigan, Watson, & Barr, 2006). Negative or low self-esteem is characterized by the feeling of worthlessness, uselessness, and lack of confidence. People with low self-esteem believe that they are incompetent, awkward, and have a fragile sense of self (Butler, Hokanson, & Flynn, 1994; Leary, Tambor, Terdal & Downs, 1995).

Considering the review from the literature presented above, it was hypothesized that positive self-esteem would harm egocentricity, callous and antisocial traits. It was also hypothesized that negative self-esteem would play a significant positive role in the development of antisocial factors of psychopathy.

Method

Participants

The sample included a total of 600 undergraduate students enrolled in different colleges and universities of Khyber Pakhtunkhwa (KPK). Half of them were male (n= 300) and half of them female students (n= 300) aged between 18 and 25 years. Students suffering or previously suffered from any mental or physical disability were excluded from the students.

Research Instruments

Levenson's Self Report Psychopathy Scale

Levenson's Self Report Psychopathy (LSRPS), devised by Levenson, Kiehl, and Fitzpatrick, (1995) is short and easily administered among students. Of the 26 total items, only 19 items were selected for the study as previously used by Brinkley, (2008), Sellbom, (2011), Shagufta, (2018). LSRPS is a self-report scale in which participants answer the statements on five points Likert scale range from 1= strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3= sometimes, 4= agree and 5= strongly agree. High scores on the scale indicated psychopathic traits (Levenson et al., 1995; Brinkley et al., 2001; Brinkley et

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al., 2008, Sellbom 2011; Shagufta, 2018). Cronbach's alpha for the total scale was $a = 0.83$.

Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale

Rosenberg's Self-esteem Scale (RSES) was developed by Rosenberg (1965). RSES is a frequently used scale to measure the high and negative evaluations of self. Initially, it was designed to assess the self-esteem of adolescents but now it has been implemented on a wide range of age groups. RSES scale is proposed to investigate the positive and negative views of self. The scale is underpinned by 10 items including five positives and five negative items. Five of the statements are reversed scored to avoid the response biases. Five points Likert Scale is used to assess the items ranged from strongly agree to strongly disagree. The reliability of the Rosenberg Self-esteem Scale is demonstrated high ($a = .91$).

Procedure

This research was approved by the Advanced Studies Review Board (ASRB) of the university. For data collection, different colleges and universities of Peshawar were visited. Permission was taken from relevant authorities of different colleges and universities. Data was collected through the purposive sampling technique. Initially, informed consent was taken from the students. Respondents were assured that the research data will be kept confidential and will be used only for the research purpose. They were further assured that nobody will have access to the data except the researcher. Respondents' participation was voluntary and they were permitted to quit at any point. A booklet including measures of the study along with a demographic sheet was given to the students. The selected participants were debriefed about the study.

Analysis

Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) techniques have been used to assess the model. Amos18 software has been used to analyse the data. SEM is a combination of factor analysis and multiple regression analysis. The historical assessment of SEM development was offered by Bentler (1986). SEM is most appropriate to assess the relationship between measured variables and latent constructs (Weston & Gore, 2006). In the present study, the model was analyzed both on measurement level and structural level. On the measurement level, all the factor loadings were assessed and on the structural level relationships have been found among latent variables. For this purpose, a model was specified with five latent variables including three traits of psychopathy: egocentricity, callousness, antisocial factor, and two factors of Rosenberg Self-esteem scale: positive self-esteem and negative self-esteem.

Results

Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistics (Table 1) show the Mean, Standard Deviation, and Cronbach's Alpha reliability (Cronbach, 1951) for subscales of LSRPS and RSES. The findings indicated that students exhibited a high level of egocentricity, moderate levels of callousness, and antisocial behavior. Results further demonstrated moderate levels of positive and negative self-esteem among undergraduate students. The reliabilities of the subscales of LSRPS and RSES have been assessed through the traditional measures of Cronbach Alpha. The results of the current study show that egocentricity ($\alpha = .86$) and antisocial factor ($\alpha = .79$) of psychopathy are highly reliable, however, the internal consistency for callous trait was acceptable ($\alpha = .63$). Results also demonstrated that RSES is highly reliable among students for both positive self-esteem ($\alpha = .70$) and negative negative-esteem ($\alpha = .72$).

Table 1

Mean Standard Deviation, Skewness, Kurtosis and Cronbach's Alpha for Egocentricity, Callous, Antisocial, Positive Self-Esteem, and Negative Self-Esteem

Variable	M	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis	Cronbach's Alpha
Egocentricity (EC)	27.17	6.28	0.13	0.60	.86
Callous (CA)	14.03	3.26	1.44	1.53	.63
Antisocial (AS)	13.60	3.45	0.09	-0.28	.79
Positive Self-Esteem (PSE)	13.86	5.45	1.23	1.92	.70
Negative Self-Esteem (NSE)	13.47	5.21	1.93	1.64	.72

Table 2

Correlation between Three Latent Factors of Levenson's Self-Report Psychopathy Scale (LSRPS)

Latent Factors	EC	CA	AS	PSE	NSE
Egocentricity (EC)	---				
Callous (CA)	.30**	---			
Antisocial (AS)	.22**	.26**	---		

Note: All correlations are significant at $p < .001$

Table 2 shows correlations among the three latent factors of LSRPS which indicated that the three subscales are moderately significantly correlated. The correlation between egocentricity and callous factor is $r = 0.30$ and between Callous factor and Antisocial factor is $r = 0.25$. However, the

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Correlation between Egocentricity and Antisocial factors ($r = 0.22$) is comparatively weak.

Table 3

Standardized and Unstandardized Regression Paths (with standard errors) for the Specified Measurement Model and Structural Model (N=600)

Item	B	β	SE
Measurement Level			
Factor 1 (Egocentricity)			
1. Success is based on survival of the fittest; I am not concerned about the losers	0.97	.58***	.06
2. For me, what's right is whatever I can get away with.	1.00	.61***	.06
3. In today's world, I feel justified in doing anything I can get away with to succeed.	1.00	.64***	.07
4. My main purpose in life is getting as many goodies as I can.	0.97	.57***	.06
5. Making a lot of money is my most important goal.	1.00	.66***	.05
6. I let others worry about higher values; my main concern is with the bottom line.	1.00	.63***	.06
7. People who are stupid enough to get ripped off usually deserve it.	1.00	.62***	.07
8. I tell other people what they want to hear so that they will do what I want them to do.	1.00	.68***	.06
9. I often admire a really clever scam.	0.95	.67***	.06
10. I enjoy manipulating other people's feeling.	1.00	.70***	.06
Factor 2 (Callous)			
1. I make a point of trying not to hurt others in pursuit of my goals	1.00	.91***	.04
2. I feel bad if my words or actions cause someone else to feel emotional pain.	0.99	.60***	.04
3. Even if I were trying very hard to sell something, I wouldn't lie about it	1.00	.73***	.04
4. Cheating is not justified because it is unfair to others.	1.00	.47***	.04
Factor 3 (Antisocial)			
1. I find myself in the same kind of trouble, time after time.	1.00	.70***	.06
2. I am often bored.	1.00	.70***	.05
3. I quickly lose interest in tasks I start.	0.98	.70***	.06
4. I have been in a lot of shouting matches with other people.	0.80	.65***	.06
5. When I get frustrated, I often "let off steam" by blowing my top	1.00	.66***	.03
Positive Self-Esteem			
1. On the whole, I am satisfied with myself.	0.92	.50***	.01
2. I feel that I have a number of good qualities	0.91	.82***	.03
3. I am able to do things as well as most other people.	0.93	.70***	.05

4. I feel that I'm a person of worth, at least on an equal plane with others.	0.98	.40***	.07
5. I take positive attitude toward myself	1.00	.91***	.01

Negative Self-esteem

1. At times, I think I am no good at all.	1.00	.85***	.06
2. I feel I do not have much to be proud of.	1.00	.87***	.07
3. I certainly feel useless at times.	1.00	.43***	.08
4. I wish I could have more respect for myself.	1.00	.88***	.07
5. All in all, I am inclined to feel that I am a failure.	1.00	.45***	.01

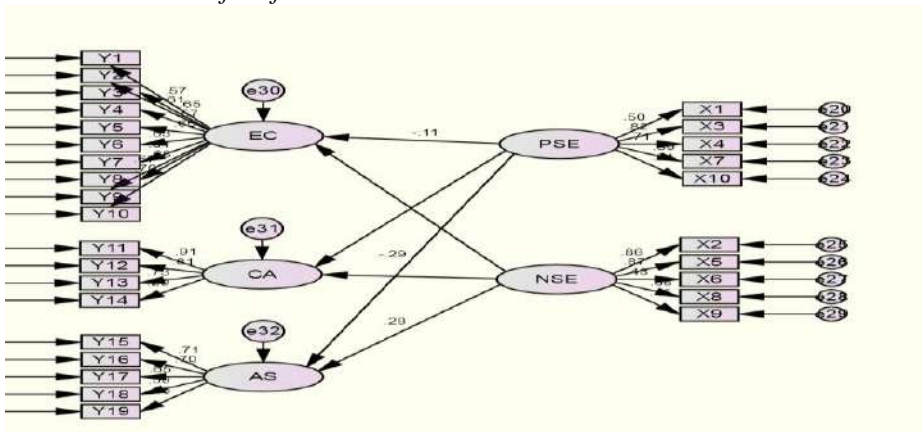
Structural Level

Positive Self-Esteem → Egocentric	-0.06	-.11*	.02
Negative Self-Esteem → Egocentric	-0.00	-.01	.03
Positive Self-Esteem → Callousness	.00	.00	.02
Negative Self-Esteem → Callousness	-.02	-.04	.02
Positive Self-Esteem → Antisocial Factor	-.19	-	.03
		.29***	
Negative Self-Esteem → Antisocial Factor	.21	.28***	.03

Note: $\chi^2(371) = 965.4, p < .001$; CFI = .91; TLI = .90; RMSEA = .05; RSMRS = .07

Table 3 indicates the standardized and unstandardized factor loading with standard error for both: measurement and structural level. According to Hair et al., (1998) CFA standardized factor loading should be .6 or higher because this shows that half of the variance in the observed variable is explained by the latent variable, however, .40 is acceptable. Present results are in line with Hair et al.'s (1998) suggestion. Results indicated that positive self-esteem and antisocial factor were significantly negatively correlated ($\beta = -.29, p < .01$) which revealed that those students who had positive self-esteem exhibited less antisocial traits of psychopathy. The structural level analysis also indicated that those students who were high on negative self-esteem were also showed more antisocial traits ($\beta = .28, p < .01$). Results also showed that positive self-esteem and egocentricity were related ($\beta = -.11, p < .01$) but this relation is negative which suggested that those students who had positive self-esteem were low on egocentric traits of psychopathy.

Figure1
Full SEM Model of Self-Esteem and LSRPS



Discussion

The study aimed to explore the role of self-esteem in the development of psychopathy. For this purpose, SEM model was specified including three factors of psychopathy (egocentricity, callous and antisocial) and two factors of the Rosenberg Self-Esteem scale (positive self-esteem and negative self-esteem) among the students' sample.

In the current study, the three factors of LSRPS showed good reliability (egocentricity = .86, callous = .63, and antisocial = .79) which is consistent with the previous study conducted by Brinkley et al., (2008): (*egocentricity* = .82, *callous* = .69, and *antisocial* = .63). Furthermore, Shagufta (2018) found high reliability for three factors of LSRPS: egocentricity (0.97), callous (0.93), and antisocial (0.96) higher than the reliability of the present study. The reason can be attributed to the sample differences because Shagufta (2018) used incarcerated adult offenders while the present study is conducted on a student sample.

The first hypothesis was to find a negative relationship between positive self-esteem and egocentric, callous, and antisocial factors of LSRPS. The results of the current study showed that those students who had more positive self-esteem exhibited less antisocial and egocentric traits of psychopathy which suggested that positive self-esteem can be proved as a safeguard against psychopathy. Present findings are consistent with previous studies conducted by (Fernandez, & Marshall, 2003) who found that people with distorted self-esteem were more egoistic (Paulhus, & John, 1998). However,

no relationship has been found between positive self-esteem and callous traits. Reasons can be attributed to the low reliability of the subscale among the student sample.

The second hypothesis of the study that “negative self-esteem would have a positive effect on the antisocial factor of psychopathy” is also supported by the results. Negative self-esteem had a positive effect on the antisocial factor of psychopathy which is consistent with the previous study of Weiss and Knight, (1980) who found that people reporting antisocial behavior also report negative self-esteem. The present results of the study are also consistent with the findings of Brown, (1993) who found that people with negative self-esteem engage in disruptive behaviors to enhance their self-concept. Furthermore, similar results were found by O’Moore and Kirkham, (2001) who stated that people with negative self-esteem are more likely to involve in behavioral problems. Similarly, Lane and Elliott (2001) found low self-esteem was linked to delinquent behavior in the sample of school students.

Donellan et al., (2005) found that people with low self-esteem are predisposed to antisocial behavior. The results of the current study are also in line with the findings of Garaigordobil, Durá, and Pérez, (2005) who found that adolescents with negative self-esteem are more likely involved in antisocial behaviors. Additionally, Trzesniewski et al., (2006) further reported that adolescents with negative self-esteem not only showed poor mental health but they were also high on criminal behaviors. Furthermore, Taylor, Davis-Kean, and Malanchuk, (2007) explained that students having low self-esteem showed more negative behaviors at school than the students with high self-esteem. Similar to the present study, Ostrowsky, (2010) found that people with negative self-esteem engaged in disruptive behaviors to overcome the feelings of inadequacy and inferiority. A previous study conducted by Onyedibe (2011) is also consistent with the present study which indicated that low self-esteem is a promising factor in the development of psychopathic behavior. Similarly, the results of the study are also in line with the research conducted by Falkenbech et al., (2012) who found that people with factor two features of psychopathy (antisocial) had low self-esteem.

The second hypothesis is also supported by Fong, Vogel, and Vogel (2008) who reported that people with low self-esteem had behavioral problems in school. Rosenberg, Schooler, and Schoenbach (1989) also found a relationship between negative self-esteem and antisocial behavior. They found that negative self-esteem nurtures delinquency and antisocial behavior. In the present study negative relationship between positive self-esteem and antisocial factor of psychopathy ($r = -.29$). There are very few studies that

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have been conducted to investigate the association between positive self-esteem and antisocial behavior; therefore, it contributes to the existing literature related to positive self-esteem concerning psychopathy specifically in Pakistan. Present findings are in line with the previous studies conducted by Baumeister et al., (1996) who stated that violence appears when positive self-esteem is threatened.

Conclusion

The research aims to investigate the role of self-esteem in the development of psychopathic traits among undergraduate students. The present study indicated that those students who were high on negative self-esteem were also high on antisocial traits of psychopathy. Results indicated the contributory role of negative self-esteem in the development of antisocial traits of psychopathy. Furthermore, present study found that students with positive self-esteem exhibited low-level antisocial and egocentric traits which indicated that positive self-esteem buffer against antisocial and egocentric traits of psychopathy. Overall results indicated that positive self-esteem is a safeguard against psychopathic traits while negative self-esteem is a promising element in the development of psychopathic traits among students. In the present study, no relationship has been found between callous traits of psychopathy and positive and negative self-esteem. Further study warranted to investigate this relationship.

Limitation and Suggestions

The present study has its limitation because there is no study without limitations. The self-report measure has been used in the present study which can estimate over and under responses of the subjects. Therefore, it can bias the results.

The present study suggested that positive self-esteem is a promising protective factor against the development of psychopathy. As parents, teachers, and friends play an important factor in the development of positive self-esteem, therefore, counseling centers at the community level should be available to guide parents to help their children improve their self-esteem. All schools, including both government and private sector, should hire psychologists who not only train teachers but also provide counseling to those students who are involved in antisocial behavior such as bullying, hurting, and disrespectful behavior. Psychologists should also examine self-esteem among students and specifically focus on those students who exhibit negative self-esteem. They should provide counseling to all those students who display negative self-esteem.

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An Analytical Study of Lower House in Pakistan: Legislation During Civilian and Military Rule

Imrana Begum

NED University of Engineering & Technology,
Karachi

Shehla Jamal

Govt. Islamia Arts and Commerce College for Women, Karachi

A legislature is one of the strongest pillars of a state where legislation is made with the consent of the two-thirds majority of the House. The legislative body of Pakistan comprised President, National Assembly, and Senate. The National Assembly forms on the basis of General Elections in which people elect their representatives to make laws for them. In Pakistan's chequered political history, this institution remained unable to establish credibility in society. Since the promulgation of the Constitution of 1973, the Lower House has been dissolved seven times by either military or civilian rulers, and it also remained non-existent until ten years. As per the Constitution, it was dissolved only once in 1977 on the advice of the Prime Minister to the President. General elections were also held during military regimes, and the House had been formed under it, but there was a difference between the legislation passed during civilian and military-led eras. The paper examines the role of the Lower House in the Constitution of 1973. It deals with its mandate and responsibilities. It analyses the legislation passed from this House during military and civilian rule periods, including the amendment bills that affected the governance system in Pakistan. It identifies issues and challenges the lower House has to face in regard to its smooth functioning. The paper suggests recommendations to improve the sanctity and credibility of this House that leads to strengthening democracy in Pakistan. The paper adopts analytical, qualitative, and deductive approaches to carry on this research work.

Keywords: General elections, National Assembly, legislation, dissolution, constitution.

In the constitutions of modern states, the doctrine of separation of power that has historical and political significance is considered the main precept of

democracy that has been recognized all over the world (Carolan, 2009). The *Spirit of the Laws* (1748), written by a French philosopher Baron de Montesquieu, describes the various forms of distribution of political powers among a legislature, an executive, and a judiciary. The scholar says that a government can carry its work in an effective manner if all institutions function without any intrusion of the others. Montesquien's theory left a deep impact on the development of administrative law all over the world.

The constitution of 1973 provides a parliamentary form of government, and the real executive authority of the state vest with the Prime Minister, who is elected by the members of the National Assembly. This Lower House is also called the Chamber of the People, where representation is made on the basis of population, and the members are elected through a direct, secret, and free vote of the people. In a democratic state, all institutions perform their functions and exercise power within the constitutional purview. Apart from the constitution of 1973, Pakistan has oscillated between civilian and military rule. In such a power game, national institutions get a setback. When military rulers took over, they dissolved the existing National Assembly. Although general elections for the lower house were held during military rule periods, it elected the prime minister and carried out constitutional functions, but the supremacy of the President undermined the parliamentary democracy and turned the governance system towards presidential autocracy. It also demoralized the significance of the National Assembly and centralized power in favour of the President. A great difference can be noted between the legislations passed during the civilian and military-ruled periods. The former strengthened democracy reflected the will of the people, and the latter just supportive to the President, who was also Commander in Chief of Pakistan's Army.

An overview of the Lower House of Pakistan

The Lower House of the Parliament of Pakistan is called Nation Assembly (NA). It is a national representative body which performs essential functions of the state. Therefore, it is a highly organized and reputable institution in order to gain respect and reflect all segments of the society (Haq, 2003). In the previous two constitutions, Pakistan had a unicameral legislature, however, in the constitution of 1973, the bi-cameral legislature has been adopted and subsequently the fifth Lower House of Pakistan was set up on the basis of first-ever General Elections held in December 1970 (Rizvi, 2002). As per "Article 51, the National Assembly shall consist of two hundred Muslim members," to be elected by a direct and free vote in accordance with law. Ten additional seats were reserved for women (Khan, 1986). Later in

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1985 through a “Presidential Order (P.O. No. 14 of 1985), seven seats were added to the general seats and ten more seats were reserved for women and ten seats were exclusively reserved for the non-Muslims in the National Assembly.” Thus, the total number of seats swelled to 237 members (National Assembly of Pakistan, website, 2021).

The fifth National Assembly was dissolved by the President in January 1977 on the advice of the Prime Minister (Ahmed, 1978). Early elections were held and the sixth National Assembly took office for only three months. On July 5, 1977, the civilian government was deposed after a successful military coup (Siddique, 2008). The military took the reign of Pakistan for the following eleven years but it had to conduct general elections in the beginning of 1985 on non-party basis (Maluka, 2007). Subsequently the seventh National assembly was formed under martial law that was dissolved by the President and Chief Martial Law Administrator in 1988. The decade from 1988 to 1999 is known as a decade of democracy in Pakistan where three National Assemblies were dissolved undemocratically by the Presidents and general elections were held four times instead of twice (Hussain, 1990). It is pertinent to discuss that in 1990, 1993 and 1997 general elections the seats of the NA were reduced to 217 due to the expiration of ten years for women seats (Report on the General Elections 1990, 1991). On October 12, 1999, again the democratic process was rolled back and Pakistan came under the military shadow. The military regime also held general election that resulted in the formation of twelfth National Assembly on November 16, 2002. In these elections the number of seats were increased to 342 members and it completed five-year term in 2007. In the successive general elections held in 2008, 2013 and 2018 people elected their representative for the lower house. In the general elections due in 2023 the number of the members will be reduced to 336 owing to the merger of FATA with Khyber Pakhtunkhwa and delimitation of constituencies as per national census results. The table below describes the seats of the Lower House of Pakistan.

Table 1

Lower House of Pakistan 1973-2023

Year	General Seats	Women Seats	Non-Muslims	Total
1973	200	10	-	210
1977	207	20	10	237
1985				
1988				
1990	207	-	10	217
1993				
1997				
2002	272	60	10	342
2008				
2013				
2018				
2023	266	60	10	336

Source: the author developed the table based on Data available on the website of the National Assembly, Government of Pakistan

Two consecutive tenures of the Lower House have not been interrupted by any military took over or mid-term elections, something that has never happened before (*The Express Tribune*, 2018). The fifteenth National Assembly took office on August 13, 2018, that marked the third consecutive transfer of power to a democratic government (*Radio Pakistan*, 2018).

National Assembly in the Constitution of 1973: mandate and responsibility

The constitution of 1973 has twelve parts. The Part 3, Chapter 2, Article 51 to 58 determines the mandate and responsibilities of the National Assembly of Pakistan. In a parliamentary form of government, the legislature performs a number of functions. The members of the National Assembly (MNAs) participate in assembly sessions through debates on national issues, adjournment motions, question hour and Standing Committees. The Lower House keeps check over the Executive and ensures the governmental functions under the Constitution (The Law Library of Congress, 2020). The main responsibility of every legislature is to make laws. It passes new laws, amend or repeals the old ones, when they become out-dated. A law is moved before the National Assembly, as a bill¹ or a legislative proposal. It goes through several stages of debate and deliberation in the legislature called the legislative procedure. In case it is accepted by the majority of its members then it goes to the Upper House or Senate for further discussion and deliberations. After approval from Senate, it is placed before the head of the state for his signature. Under Article 75,² the President shall assent to a bill within ten days then it becomes an act or law. It is then enforced by the executive organ of the state and interpreted by the courts (Haq, 2003). The National assembly performs the following responsibilities:

Financial function

The Part III, Chapter 2, Article 78-88, in the Constitution of 1973, deals with financial functions of the National Assembly. The Assembly controls finances of the state and it is the only House that scrutinizes public spending and exercises control over governmental expenditure through Public Accounts

¹ Bill means a motion for making a law.

² The Article 75 has been amended twice. In the 8th amendment the duration of Presidents assent was reduced from 45 to 30 days and in the 18th amendment the assent days were further reduced from 30 to ten days.

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Committee (<http://www.pac.na.gov.pk/>). It grants money to the government that cannot collect taxes without its approval. Being a representative body, it is a custodian of people's interest and public money (Narayan & Godden, 2000). It also supervises the inflow and out flow of state revenue, review and edit through discussions and finally approves the national budget. The Article 80 specifies,

“in respect of every financial year, cause to be laid before the National Assembly a statement of the estimated receipts and expenditure of the Federal Government for that year, in this Part referred to as the Annual Budget Statement (Khan, 1986).”

The Budget session of the Lower House is the most important session that normally begins in May and continues till June every year (Khan, 1986, p.342). Pakistan's fiscal year starts from July 1 and ends on June 30. The National Assembly enjoys exclusive powers to consider Money Bills. The money bills do not need the assent of the Senate.

Administrative functions

The Part III of the Constitution, Chapter 3, Article 90-100 deal with the federal government. The National Assembly is also responsible for administrative functions. The chief executive of the state is elected from this House. The Assembly provides minimum three-fourth of the Cabinet members to form the Government. The Prime Minister enjoys the support of the majority of the members in the House. The cabinet is also collectively responsible to the Assembly (*National Assembly of Pakistan, Acts of Parliament*, 2021). The Prime Minister and the federal ministers sit in the assembly, participate in discussion and debate. They answer questions put to them by the members, if the cabinet fails to satisfy the members, they can pass a vote of censure or lack of confidence and in such case the ministry has to resign.

Amendment of the constitution

The constitution of Pakistan cannot be amended until the amendment bill is not passed by the National Assembly. The Part XI deals with the amendments of constitution. The Article 239 stipulates

“A bill to amend the Constitution may originate in either House and, when the Bill has been passed by the votes of not less than two-thirds of the total membership of the House, it shall be transferred to the other House (Khan, 1986, p.197).”

Removal or impeachment of the President

The “Article 47 deals with the removal or impeachment of President.” The National Assembly has a power to impeach the head of the state. At a joint sitting by the votes of not less than two-third of the total membership of Parliament declaring that the president is not capable to hold the office due to inability, or its guilty of violating the constitution the president shall cease to hold office immediately on the passing of the Resolution (Rizvi, 2002). Bills and legislations are proposals for new laws or changes to existing laws which are presented for debate before the National Assembly.

Laws made by the NA affect everyone in the country. They must, therefore, be made only after a thorough and appropriate discussion and deliberation in the legislative assembly.

Under the 1973 Constitution the National Assembly is elected for five-year term, unless sooner dissolved. The seats in National Assembly, unlike the Senate, are allocated to each province and other units of the federation, on the basis of population.

Legislation under civilian rule

On April 14, 1972 the first session of the fifth National Assembly was held.³ It was attended by 144 members from West Pakistan and two from former East Pakistan as they had chosen to join Pakistan. The session was summoned in State Bank Building, Islamabad. (National Assembly of Pakistan, Parliamentary History, 2020). The parliamentary leader of the Assembly was Zulfikar Ali Bhutto who formed a constitution committee on April 17, 1972 to prepare the first draft of the constitution (Wasim, 2006). The draft constitution was prepared, unanimously passed and signed by the president after one year, on April 12, 1973. It was promulgated on August 14, 1973. Originally the general seats of the National Assembly were 200 with additional 10 seats reserved for women. The Assembly, after passing the Constitutional draft, passed 237 Acts of Parliament till January 10, 1977 including the finance Acts, administrative functions and six amendment bills. However, the Assembly did not complete its five years and dissolved constitutionally by the President on the advice of the Prime Minister. The second General Elections were held on March 7, 1977 (Khan, 2009) and subsequently the sixth National Assembly took office on 26 March, 1977. It

³ The first Constituent Assembly was formed on August 10 1947, the second on July 7, 1955, the third National Assembly met on June 8 1962, fourth on June 12, 1965, and the fifth on April 14, 1972.

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passed 21 Acts of Parliament together with 7th amendment till July 4, 1977 as per its mandate and responsibilities (National Assembly of Pakistan, Acts of Parliament, 2020).

After a gap of eleven years the eighth National Assembly was established under civilian rule that survived only nineteenth months from November 30, 1988 to August 6, 1990 (Crossette, 1990). It passed only eight Acts of Parliament including 11th amendment bill. For the ninth National Assembly General Elections were held in October and the Assembly took office on November 3, 1990 to July 18, 1993. It passed 60 laws having 12th amendment on July 27, 1991. The tenth National Assembly took office on October 15, 1993 and dissolved on November 3, 1996 after making 54 laws. The eleventh National Assembly was formed on February 15, 1997 and dissolved due to military took over on October 12, 1999. With 13th, 14th, 15th and 16th amendment it passed 51 laws for Pakistan.

The thirteenth National Assembly took office on March 17, 2008. The Assembly completed constitutional tenure on March 16, 2013. It made 94 Acts of Parliament including 18th, 19th and 20th amendment. The fourteenth National Assembly from June 1, 2013 to May 31, 2018 made 157 laws with 21st, 22nd, 23rd, 24th and 25th amendment during five-year tenure. The fifteenth National Assembly was formed on August 13, 2018 (Haq., 2018) and would complete constitutional tenure on August 12, 2023.

Legislation under military rule

A constitution is a sacred document to govern state affairs. In the constitutional history of Pakistan, the first two constitutions had been abrogated by the military. But the third Constitution was not abrogated by neither General Zia-ul-Haq nor General Pervez Musharraf, who ruled Pakistan twenty years. The Article 6 in Part 1, protects the Constitution from further abrogation. The Article says:

“Any person who abrogates or attempts or conspires to abrogate, subverts or attempts or conspires to subvert the Constitution by use of force or show of force or by other unconstitutional means shall be guilty of high treason (Rizvi, 2002, p.56).”

Contrary to Article 6, from 1973 to 2008 there had been two long periods of military rule in Pakistan. The first began on July 5, 1977 after a coup *d'état* that dissolved the National Assembly. The military regime held the Constitution in abeyance and enforced martial law.

However, since 1983 General Zia faced unescapable pressure to hold general elections and restore the constitution of 1973. Following the footsteps of General Ayub Khan he held a referendum on December 19, 1984 to manage five more years in presidential office (Borders, 1984). After doing so he announced general elections that held on February 25, 1985. Before the first session of the Lower House, he issued "Revival of the Constitution Order (RCO)" on 2 March (Khan, 2009, p. 269) then the seventh National Assembly was formed on March 20, 1985 under martial law. It passed 47 Acts of Parliament including 8th, 9th and 10th amendments.

In the constitutional history of Pakistan, the Eighth Amendment bill is significant that passed on November 11, 1985. The RCO was incorporated with some modifications in the Bill (Khan, 2009, p.374). The amendment changed the structure of whole Constitution more specifically it made the existence of National Assembly vulnerable. All regulations, orders, laws and notifications formed and issued during the martial law 1977 to 1985 were declared legal (Khan, 2009, pp.374-375). It amended 57, added 6 and deleted 2 articles in the original constitution of 1973 (PILDAT, May 2013). The amended Article 58 (2b) empowered the president to dissolve the National Assembly if in his opinion the government was not working in accordance with the Constitution. After deforming the Constitution, General Zia (who retained two offices the Chief of Army Staff and the President) declared an end to martial law on December 30, 1985⁴ (*The New York Times*, December 31, 1985). In such circumstances a weak legislative body emerged that survived only three years and dissolved by the president on May 29, 1988 (Mahmood, 2018)

The other military led era (after 1973 constitution) began on 12th October 1999 when General Pervez Musharraf overthrew the civilian government of Nawaz Sharif. The Constitution was again held in abeyance and the National Assembly, Senate and the provincial assemblies stood suspended. Provisional Constitutional Order (PCO) was promulgated. On April 30, 2002 a referendum was held to select Musharraf as a President, followed by general elections on October 10, 2002. The twelfth National Assembly was formed on November 16, 2002 and completed five years* (*PILDAT*, November 15, 2007). The Lower House passed 38 Acts of Parliament including the Seventeenth Amendment Act on 30th December 2003 (*Dawn*, December 30, 2003).

⁴ Martial law was lifted after eight and half years

* November 15, 2007

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The amendment altered 26 Articles and again changed the form of government from parliamentary to presidential by restoring the Article 58 (2b). The Article empowered the president but weakened the parliamentary system (Kazimi, 2009).

An Analytical Study of Lower House in Pakistan 1973-2018

In the past forty-eight years' history since 1973 the Lower House of Pakistan has been established eleven times rather than ten. In those eleven Lower Houses nine were formed in twenty-five years instead of five by the civilians and the military ruler who ruled for twenty years established only two Lower Houses.

The table below presents data of Pakistan's National Assemblies formed from 1947 to 2018.

National Assembly	Formed on	Dissolved on	Tenure expired Constitutionally	Dissolved by civilian	Dissolved by military
1 st	August 10, 1947	October 24, 1954		Malik Ghulam Muhammad	
2 nd	July 7, 1955	October 7, 1958		Iskandar Mirza	
3 rd	June 8, 1962	June 7, 1965	Three years term		
4 th	June 12, 1965	March 25, 1969			Yahya Khan
5 th	April 14, 1972	January 10, 1977	President on PM advice		
6 th	March 26, 1977	July 5, 1977			Military coup
7 th	March 20, 1985	May 29, 1988			Zia-ul-Haq Article 58(2b)
8 th	November 30, 1988	August 6, 1990		Article 58(2b)	
9 th	November 3, 1990	July 18, 1993		Article 58(2b)	
10 th	October 15, 1993	November 3, 1996		Article 58(2b)	
11 th	February 15, 1997	October 12, 1999			Pervez Musharraf Military coup
12 th	November 16, 2002	November 15, 2007	Constitutionally		
13 th	March 17, 2008	March 16, 2013	Constitutionally		
14 th	June 1, 2013	May 31, 2018	Constitutionally		
15 th	August 13, 2018	August 12, 2023			

Source: The Table is developed by the author. The data is collected from the National Assembly website, Government of Pakistan

Although military coups remain an illegal mean for overthrowing governments. The military dictators had to face legitimacy issues at national and international level as the Constitution of 1973 does not allow military rule in Pakistan.

There was a great difference in making legislation during military and civilian rule periods. If the National Assembly in civilian led era (1973-1977) passed 237 Act of Parliament in three and half year's period, the National Assembly which was established under military regime in 1985-1988 passed only 47 Act of Parliament in the same period. From 1988 to 1999 there was a decade of democracy but the four National Assemblies were dissolved undemocratically. In that ten-year period 173 Act of Parliament were passed by the four civilian governments. However, the successive military led era that remained in office for nine years and the National Assembly remained functional during 2002-2007, passed only 38 Acts of Parliament.

Law making has been a prime responsibility of a Parliament. The analysis between civilian and military led era confirms that the National Assembly passed large number of legislative bills during civilian period as compare to military one. The Assembly also passed nineteen amendment Bills during civilian rule and only three such Bills were passed in military regimes. Among those three, two (8th amendment in 1985 and the 17th amendment in 2003) derailed the parliamentary system of government and undermined the sanctity of the National Assembly. The said amendments empowered the President to dissolve the Lower House and it could only continue working until the President wished so.

In the constitution of 1973, Part 3, Chapter 1, deals with the Federation of Pakistan wherein, the role of President was ceremonial. The Article 41 says that the President of Pakistan shall be the head of the state and represents the unity of the Republic. The Article 46 defines the duties of the Prime Minister in relation to the President. The office of the President does not directly remain in touch with different ministries and offices however, the President shall be informed through a Prime Minister's briefing (Rizvi, 2002, p. 262). In the same Part, "Chapter 2, Article 50, entitled the "[Majlis-e-Shoora (Parliament)]," consisting of the President, and two houses the National Assembly and Senate."

The "Article 51 is about the National Assembly and its members," and the following Article 52, defines the duration of the National Assembly which is

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five years. The Article 58 is about the dissolution of the National Assembly its Clause (1) says that the President shall only dissolve the National Assembly if he is advised by the Prime Minister and the National Assembly shall automatically stand dissolved at the expiration of 48 hours of the advice (Rizvi, 2002, p. 229). The Article 58 and its Clause (1) was invoked only once in January 1977 when on the advice of the Prime Minister (Zulfiqar Ali Bhutto) the Assembly was dissolved by the President (Chaudhary Fazal Elahi). Although only seven months were left to the completion of the Constitutional tenure of the Assembly that was before August 14, 1977. The subsequent Assembly which was formed in March 1977 was dissolved due to the military took over.

The National Assembly was non-existent in the subsequent seven years from July 1977 to March 1985. In that period the constitution was in abeyance rather than abrogation owing to the Article 6. The Supreme Court of Pakistan legalised the military rule and banned all political activities. The western countries who did not validate military rule in the beginning two years had to ignore their policy when the Soviet forces entered in Afghanistan in the end of 1979. The US legitimized the military rule in Pakistan when the latter agreed to play a role of front-line state in Afghan-Soviet war. However, the political change in Moscow that led to change her policy in Afghanistan, there was a realization in Pakistan that military rule would not remain acceptable by the internal and external powers any longer. Pakistan had to restore the constitution of 1973 but the then President, General Zia, was not ready to abandon his powers he was enjoying since 1977. In order to make a favourable political environment for himself he first announced referendum in December 1984 and after securing office for next five years he announced General Elections under Martial law in 1985 on non- party basis. In the absence of any political party in House the President who was also a Chief of Army Staff picked up Mr. Mohammad Khan Junejo on March 20, 1985 as a Prime Minister. Although General Zia wished to permanently develop the role of military in politics and wanted to create National Security Council but he dropped the idea and bargained with the members of the National Assembly over passing eighth amendment bill. When the amendment bill was passed, he lifted martial law on 30 December 1985 (Jalal, 2014). In the eighth amendment Bill Article 58 (2b) was also amended. This amendment made the president from ceremonial to the actual head of the state, decreased authority of the Prime Minister and sanctity of the Lower House. The 58 (2b) empowered the president to dissolve the National Assembly. General Zia became a lifetime president and his name was inserted into the constitution. He further extended his hold by becoming the supreme commander of the armed forces and making senior appointments without consultation to the

prime minister. This amendment provided constitutional cover to military intervention in politics (Jalal, 2014, p. 252). The most important feature of 8th amendment was Article 270-A which made all orders, ordinances and martial law regulations and the presidential referendum of 19th December 1984 valid. The parliament passed all Ordinances released during martial law in a swift manner (Aziz, 2015). The parliament renamed as Majlis-e- Shoora (Advisory Council), rather than a law-making body, which had to obey and serve the ruler or *Amir*. The 1985 Assembly was dissolved by General Zia who dismissed Prime Minister Junejo on 29 May 1987 (Hussain, 1990) apparently on nominal charges. While the Assembly passed 47 legislative bills.

This was the first misuse of power by the president by invoking the Article 58 (2b). Being the chief executive of Pakistan M. Khan Junejo wanted to take decisions independently but the president who accumulated all powers in his hand did not allow him to act against his will. This was an encroachment in the parliamentary system where an elected prime minister and assembly were dismissed by the president. The dismissal became precedent for the future presidents. From 1985 to 1997 four governments became the victim of presidential power. Although, excluding one the other three presidents were civilians.

On 6th August 1990 the first government of Benazir Bhutto was removed by president Ghulam Ishaq Khan on the charges of corruption, nepotism and other acts “in contravention of the law (Crossette, 1990).” He also removed first Government of Prime Minister Nawaz Sharif on 18 April 1993 (Blood , 1995) on the allegations of corruption and mismanagement of economic resources Later on in 1993 Benazir Bhutto was again elected as a Prime Minister. Apparently, she safeguarded her government by electing the President of her own party; a relief to the ruling party as well as to the country. But it did not work out and the President Farroq Ahmed Legahri removed the government of Benazir Bhutto on 5 November 1996 (Parveen, 2000). In all four cases of removal of Prime Ministers, the elected National Assemblies were dissolved. The democracy could be saved by the parliamentarians by developing consensus against the 8th amendment bill immediately when the civilian rule was restored in 1988 (Sayied, 1993). However, in 1997 the PML-N won two third majority in the House and passed the 13th amendment bill that repealed the Article 58 2(b) (Newslines, 1997). After restoring the Article, the civilian government felt itself stronger than the previous four assemblies but unfortunately it was toppled rather than dissolved, by the military.

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On October 12, 1999 again, Pakistan was reverted to military rule. The then Prime Minister was arrested and the National Assembly was dissolved. The COAS General Musharraf again put the Constitution in abeyance like General Zia but did not enforce martial law. History was repeated and the Presidential referendum was held in 2002. After confirming five years in President office general elections were announced. The twelfth National Assembly was formed on 16th November 2002 and fortunately it completed five years' tenure on November 15, 2007. It passed 38 Acts of Parliament including only one Constitutional Amendment Bill that was 17th amendment. The amendment restored the Article 58 (2b) that again brought the National assembly at the mercy of the President. who was also the Chief of Army Staff. Unlike General Zia, General Musharraf did not use the said article. At the completion of five years' tenure of the National Assembly, General Musharraf had to announce next General Elections. A National Reconciliation Order was signed and the political leadership returned to Pakistan. With the participation of main political parties of Pakistan, General Elections were held on February 18, 2008 and the thirteenth National Assembly members took oath on 17th March. The Pakistan People's Party with its coalition partners was able to form government in the centre. As per Constitution the president had to address the joint session of the parliament within 90 days of the newly elected assembly. But the civilian government was determined to initiate the process of impeachment of the president. The General had to resign on August 18, 2008 and Pakistan was reverted towards civilian rule.

With mutual understanding among coalition partners, on April 8, 2010 the 18th amendment bill was passed that removed the seventeenth amendment from the constitution (Jetly, ISAS Brief, 2010). This amendment restored the actual constitution of 1973. The thirteenth National Assembly completed five years' tenure which had no precedent in Pakistan's political history. In the next general elections held in 2013 people cast vote in favour of PML-N that won two third seats of the lower house and formed the fourteenth NA. Except of normal functions, it passed five Constitutional Amendment Bills till May 31, 2018. The fifteenth NA was formed in August 13, 2018. In those elections people rejected the previous two political parties and cast vote in favour of Pakistan Tehreek-e-Insaf but it could not win two third seats in the NA. The PTI formed a coalition government that is a deterrent in enacting of what they promised in electoral campaign. It has to seek approval of their junior partners before making any legislation in the assembly.

Institutional strength stabilize democracy

Democracy rests on a delicate balance between two principles termed the rule of numbers and the rule of law. Institutions are considered pillars of a

state, and their strength progress democracy in a country. Michael Mann and Jack Synder, among other scholars, have highlighted international structural factors such as the spread of democracy in nation-building policies (Mylonas, 2012). In a democratic state, every institution functions within constitutional limits and maintains the supremacy of the Constitution before individual and institutional interests. The institutions of Pakistan remained unable to establish a balance among each other due to which democracy suffered, and it became a major cause of short periods of democracy and long periods of dictatorship in Pakistan.

Democracy does not function without separation of power, and all institutions of the state have to respect this principle. In Pakistan, the Constitution of 1956 and 1973 introduced a parliamentary form of government, but the basic principles of this system were ignored. Theoretically, parliament became a supreme body of the state because it represents the people of Pakistan; practically, it remained difficult to maintain a balance between two top offices, the President and the Prime Minister. It was easy for the Constitution makers to adopt the British system of governance, but they could not follow it with the British spirit. The skeptical civil-military relationship has also been another threat to the democracy in Pakistan.

The first-ever general elections were held after twenty-three years of the creation of Pakistan on December 7, 1970. The unnecessary delay left a serious impact on the growth of state institutions and democracy. The 1970 elections were held free and fair, but again there was a delay in convening the first session of the National Assembly and transferring power to the elected people who had won the majority. The lack of political training paved the way for the separation of East Pakistan. In such critical circumstances, the third Constitution was promulgated in 1973. The Constitution established and strengthened institutions in Pakistan, but the democratic process did not last long due to military intervention in politics.

Contrary to the military-led era, the civilian rulers did not sincerely try to omit the Eighth amendment from the Constitution through mutual understanding and eventually became the victim of it. President Zia, Ghulam Ishaq, and Leghari all misused power to protect personal interest rather than national. Since 2008 civilian rule began in Pakistan-----determined to restore the parliamentary system and strengthen democracy. The prestige of the institutions has been improving in Pakistan. At the time of the third transfer of power, it is pertinent to assess what National Assembly and

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democracy have delivered to the common people. To what extent it honored the pledge, and how can it become responsive to peoples' needs and concerns? The continuation of the democratic process and debate over national issues increasing people's interest in democracy, and if elected representatives resolve the issues of common people, then they can earn the trust of people too.

Issues and Challenges

The National Assembly remained unable to gain credibility in Pakistan's society as the state survived without this legislative body in 1977-1985 and 1999 to 2002.

The role of the National assembly had been minimized during the military-led eras, and the 8th and 17th amendments further drew down its significance. Article 58 (2b) posed a significant threat to the existence of this House. Contrary to the said amendments, the 18th and 20th amendments restored the integrity of this House. The power game between military and civilian rulers led to the unparalleled height of corruption and moral decline of politicians who ignored public issues and delayed the legislative process.

The culture among the institutions of Pakistan has been developed to not work under the constitution and exercise power beyond their limits. Institutional interference leads to political instability and economic decline.

To impose the charges of electoral rigging on the elected political party has been an old issue of the Lower House. In order to overcome this dispute, the 20th constitutional amendment bill was passed in February 2012 (Dawn, 2012). that provides an independent Election Commission and a neutral caretaker set up at a federal and provincial level. The caretaker government is responsible for holding general elections within ninety days. The caretaker prime minister, chief ministers, and chief election commission have to be appointed through mutual understanding and consensus with the opposition. After the said amendment, elections have been held twice in Pakistan in 2013 and 2018, but opposition leaders did not accept the following election results in good faith. The attitude of the opposition halted the due and standard procedure of the National Assembly.

Another issue is the legislative delay. The National Assembly cannot make meaningful legislation until the ruling party has not won majority seats in the House. Only four National Assemblies under the constitution of 1973 could win the majority in the past 48 years, i.e., 1973, 1977, 1997, and 2013. The PML-N government 2013-18 had a two-thirds majority in the National

Assembly, but the FATA reforms Bill was not passed on time due to the opposition of its junior partners. On May 24, 2018, seven days before the end of constitutional tenure to the National Assembly (Haq, 2018), it passed the bill approved by the cabinet on March 1, 2017 (*Dawn*, 2017).

On May 31, that was the last day of the Assembly, the president signed the bill [i], and the government put all burden of implementation on the succeeding government.

The ruling parties do not give precedence to significant legislation of national interest due to the opposition of coalition partners. The issues of coalition partners take preference over national interests.

Recommendations

In a parliamentary body, the National Assembly is the most central house. It represents the people of Pakistan. The Constitution defines the electoral process through which it comes into existence, and it further explains the ways of its dissolution. It is recommended that the sanctity of the state and its institutions should be established. Constitutional ways should be adopted for the dissolution of the Lower House i.e., Article 48 or 58, as Constitution is a supreme law of the land and parliament is a mother of all institutions.

Institutional balance must be ensured, and non-interference in other institutions or organs must be promoted as per Articles 29 and 30.

There should be a condition of fourteen years' education or bachelor's degree to contest the general election. It would also improve the higher education rate in Pakistan. The condition was introduced in 2002 and scrapped in 2008. The political leaders of Pakistan have to develop consensus to revive this condition to enhance the credibility and productivity of the Lower House. The legislative body needs educated, not wealthy members. The Higher Education Commission should verify the degrees of the members.

It is further recommended to amend Article: 52 of the Constitution, which deals with the duration of the National Assembly. The Article sets five years' term for the house. The political history of Pakistan is witnessed that our politicians are not so patient to wait for five years for the next poll. Through the amendment, the duration should be amended from five to four years. There ought to be a debate over this point at the national level, and all stakeholders must be involved to serve the national interest.

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Last but not least, in the curriculum of higher classes, from class sixth to twelfth, chapters must be included regarding the rights and responsibilities of the citizens of Pakistan and the role of institutions in a democratic state. When the young generation would reach the age of vote casting, that is, eighteen years, they would understand the significance of the vote, transfer of power to the elected people, acceptance of electoral results, functions of the state institution, and the importance of democracy. Such awareness would empower them to take action against any harm to the state and its institutions. The example of Turkey is relevant over here. When there was a coup d'état attempt on July 15, 2016, against the state and its institutions. Turkish people stood up for the protection of democracy.

Conclusion

The Lower House of Pakistan is a national representative body and a fundamental component of parliament. The people elect their representatives for this institution with the expectation that members would debate over national issues and laws would be made for their solution. When the MNAs do not fulfil this responsibility and waste time in useless debates, level charges against each other, and do not cooperate to make laws for social and economic development, people do not feel any importance of its existence. Whenever the military or civilian presidents dissolved the National Assembly, the social reaction was nominal. The irrelevance of people was a sign of a lack of trust in this institution. In 2008 there was again a transition of power from military to civilians. After the 11th General Elections in Pakistan on July 25, 2018, the fifteenth National Assembly took office. Since 2008, it is the third consecutive transfer of power to the civilian government. In the last three general elections, people sent three different political parties to the Lower House, and there is no fourth political party for the 2023 General Elections. In the General Elections held in 2018, the voter's turnout was the highest at 51.6%. The social enthusiasm during elections endorsed people's credence in democracy, and they expect that the people they elect for law-making would perform their duties with honesty and devotion. The ruling party's main agenda is eradicating corruption and extremism from Pakistan and pursuing a stable economy. The party is also following a policy of institutional balance and a healthy relationship with the military. The credibility of the National Assembly would enhance if the democratic process continues without any interruption and all institutions of Pakistan function in their domain and maintain harmony and coherence among each other.

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Role of Academic Self-Handicapping and Self-Regulated Learning Strategies in Mastery Goal Orientation among Adolescents

Kiran Azeem and Aisha Zubair

National Institute of Psychology, Quaid-i-Azam University, Islamabad

The present study attempted to investigate the role of academic self-handicapping and self-regulated learning strategies in mastery goal orientation among adolescents. The sample comprised of 550 school students (age range = 14-16 years). Instruments namely Self-Handicapping Scale (Jones & Rhodewalt, 1982), Self-Regulation Inventory (Cleary & Platten, 2013), and Achievement Goals Questionnaire-Revised (Elliot & Murayama, 2008) were used. It has been found that self-handicapping was negatively associated with self-regulated learning strategies and mastery goal orientation; whereas self-regulated learning strategies was positively linked with mastery goal orientation. In addition, it has been found that girls displayed less self-handicapping behavior and more self-regulated and better goal oriented behavior as compared to boys. Demographic group differences showed that adolescents enrolled in private schools with higher maternal education were less engaged in self-handicapping behavior and more self-regulated and achievement goal oriented as compared to government school students. However, significant differences were found on paternal education in relation to mastery goal orientation only.

Keywords: Academic self-handicapping, self-regulated learning strategies, mastery goal orientation, adolescents, schools.

Students' academic achievements are very much important for their future prospects. Students' personal habits, attitudes, traits, and their abilities greatly shaped their academic performance. For instance, procrastination, self-efficacy, self-discipline, motivation and engagements play a vital role in their learning and academic achievements. These academic achievements make students to work hard to reach their career goals and ensure a better future for them.

Academic self-handicapping is conceptualized as perceived incapacity or hindrance of the students in performing expected academic output (Barzegar & Khezri 2012). Self-handicapping is also experienced by the students when

they try to weaken their progress and more often to show impression management (Urđan, 2004). Tice (1991) explained self-handicapping as an attitude shown by a student to guard off and keep his/her current level of self-belief in a task in which he/she thinks that his/her peculiarity or honor is at stake. A behavior to be categorized as self-handicapped would happen prior to the task that pushes a student to perform badly in that task. Many examinees talk about the poor preparations they had for the exam and by doing this they try to give a reason for their bad performance. Only if they had studied for the exam they would not have self-handicapped (Akça, 2012). However, students who did not study simply because they forgot that there was any exam tomorrow are not self-handicapping behavior; however, the students who did know about the exam but did not study, they intentionally provided themselves an excuse for their low performance (Cocorada, 2011). Self-handicapping is adopted specifically to influence the judgments or attributions of other people (Chorba, Was, & Isaacson, 2012). Therefore, self-handicapping is intentional; it includes attitude adopted by a student to give an excuse of his failure or bad performance, and save his self-esteem (Urđan, 2004).

Self-Regulated Learning Strategies

The other variable which has been explored in the present study is self-regulated learning strategies. It means learning processes used by students which are generated by their own behavior, attitudes, and thoughts for the achievement of their learning tasks (Zimmerman, Boekarts, Pintrich, & Zeidner, 2000). Self-regulation means the independence and control in the course of which individuals implement, evaluate and modify his strategies for the achievement of goals proficiently (Pulkka & Niemivirta, 2013). Likewise, Zimmerman et al., (2000) deliberated that self-regulated learning strategy is a process which is reflected in terms of concrete and consistent behavioral actions focusing upon acquisition of new skills and expertise. Pintrich (2000) suggested different components of self-regulation which operates in three phases.

Forethought phase. Learners set different tasks by having a sense of belief in their abilities for completing those tasks efficiently (Pintrich, 2000).

Monitoring. In this process they focus on their performance and implement different processes selected by them to learn tasks and then compare the results with desired outcomes to determine whether their approach is right or not. In this way they are strengthening their self-belief that their efforts are being made in the right directions and are resulting in positive desired outcome (Cleary & Platten, 2013).

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Evaluating. During this process, students self reflect on their performance and evaluate whether the strategy adopted by them is effective or not. They want to succeed but the strategy adopted by them might not be right, this is the phase where they change their strategies and work hard, showing perseverance, using different method if needed, or obtaining feedback about their performance. To motivate, bring efficiency in learning process and to strengthen the self-belief individuals can use these processes (Zepeda, Richey, Ronevich, & Nokes-Malach, 2015).

Dimensions of Mastery Goal Orientation

Another construct that has been investigated in the present study as an outcome is mastery goal orientation. It has been defined as an integrated set of attitudes, perceptions, and characteristics that shows multiple ways of setting goals, making strategies and responding to different goal oriented situations faced by individuals (Gonida & Cortina, 2014). In addition, mastery goal orientation is reflected in actions of individual targeted upon the values attached to that goal achievement (Cleary & Platten, 2013). By understanding these, teachers can recognize the student's psychological process of achievement behavior, thereby, provide opportunities and motivate students to work hard towards the achievement of their goals (Farsani, Beikmohammadi, & Mohebbi, 2014).

Numerous studies (Cleary & Platten, 2013; Gonida & Cortina, 2014) indicated that an achievement goal orientation is an individual's level of performance in academic tasks which is strongly linked with mastery goals and performance goals. Alternative definition of mastery goal also includes task or ego goals and learning or performance goals (Grant & Dweck, 2003). The structure of the mastery or performance has been used in modern literature of achievement, individuals adopting mastery goal techniques try to achieve competence through learning and understanding and they improve their current level of competence from their previous level of competence through feedback and goal achievements (Pulkka & Niemivirta, 2013).

According to Elliot and McGregor (2001), individuals adopt performance approach to establish themselves superior as compared to others by doing well in achieving their goals in academic environment and always try to do better as compared to previous efforts. However, the individual adopting performance avoidance orientation is just trying to avoid performing worse than others (Gegenfurtner & Hagenauer, 2013).

Elliot and McGregor (2001) elaborated goal orientation in the context of provisions of proficiency tasks and aptitude feedback or self-evaluation. They divided goal orientation into four-dimensional approach, and divided mastery goal orientation into two dimensions known as mastery approach and mastery avoidance. Similarly, McCrea, Hirt, and Milner (2008) proposed goal orientation in 2×2 conceptualization comprising mastery-approach, mastery-avoidance, performance-approach, and performance-avoidance goals as follows:

Mastery-approach goal orientation. Under this approach students work on improving their abilities, competence level, knowledge level, skills, understanding level and making better strategies. Student falling under this category believe that ability is changeable (i.e. subtractive speculation of skills), multifaceted and compound set of tasks which should be built around the related competency and can be achieved by making good strategies and showing motivation and having self-belief (Elliot & McGregor, 2001).

Mastery-avoidance goal orientation. In this category students make efforts only to acquire bear minimum level of performance as compared to their fellows. They misunderstand information; they feel that their self-esteem is at stake and lack faith and conviction in their abilities (Effeney, Carroll, & Bahr, 2013).

Performance-approach goal orientation. It is apprehensive to situations when individuals try to perform better as compared to others, they have a sense of competition and want to be seen as competent and able and more efficient as compared to others. They believe in entity theory of ability, for them learning is a continuous process of achieving higher levels of performance, they involve in self-evaluation and ask for evaluation from others, and perceive failure as a sign of inability (Leondari & Gonida, 2007).

Performance-avoidance goal orientation. It occurs when individuals seek to refrain from unfavorable judgments from others. The students who apply this type of reference see learning tasks as a warning to their self-esteem and self-worth; they have low activity level and performance and are more anxious (Grant & Dweck, 2003).

Numerous studies (Hirt, McCrea, & Boris, 2003; Hip-Fabek, 2006) have explored the relationship between academic self-handicapping and self-regulated learning strategies; for instance, it has been found that there are situations where self-handicapper uses to influence the judgment of fellow students and teachers about oneself (Kazemi, Nikmanesh, & Khosravi, 2015).

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Academic environment also provides the opportunity to study the self-handicapping behaviors in relation to context. That is, the context in which self-handicap strategies are used and how the context influences an individual's self-handicapped behavior (Pomerantz, Altermatt, & Saxon, 2002).

Different studies (Zimmerman et al., 2000; Pape, Bell, & Yetkin, 2003) demonstrated that the procrastination in learning environment plays critical role in self regulating behaviors of the students. Students using self-regulated techniques perform well in achieving learning tasks as they set their own tasks, devise methodologies, and try to improve their level of competence on their own (Park & Sperling, 2012). Similarly, self-regulated learners show positive attitude towards them, have high self-esteem, and self-efficacy, and use mastery goal orientation techniques (Pintrich, 2000). On the other hand, students with poor self-regulation usually fail in adopting effective learning techniques and have low self-efficacy and self-esteem; and do not understand the task at hand rather they just try avoid not to do worse than their fellows (Pintrich, 2000). These qualities of poor self-regulators are usually found in academic procrastinators. Additional empirical evidence showed that students exhibit high level of self-handicapping due to that difficulty in time management, low interest in school lessons, and not being decisive in setting up their priorities (Radosevich, Vaidyanathan, Yeo, & Radosevich, 2004).

Steel, Brothen, and Wambach (2001) concluded that the self-handicapping seems to be a strong indicator of avoidance-based strategy, and a performance-avoidance goal which is also strengthened by Radosevich et al., (2004) inferring negative relationship between self-handicapping and mastery goal orientation. Moreover, indications of performance-approach goals would be difficult to produce, as performance-approach goals represent skills that concentrate on standardizing achievements and may adversely identified to self-impairments (Barzegar & Khezri, 2012). Performance-approach goals likewise hold self-presentation concerns (Zepeda, Richey, Ronevich, & Nokes-Malach, 2015) and they may be decidedly identified to self-handicapping (Cocorada, 2011).

According to Urdan (2004), a student chooses objectives in view of his/her environment's expectation. In a classroom, where teachers give more importance to grades and consider grades as benchmark to judge the student's competence; in such an environment the students would probably follow performance goal approach. On the other hand, students who believe that they cannot get good grades tend to adopt performance avoidance approach to

avoid being seen as incompetent. These type of students are only concerned about being looked or judged as incompetent, and will not seek help, thereby limiting their academic challenges. Studies (Al-Harthy, Was, & Isaacson, 2010; Urdan, 2004) further suggest that students being judged as incompetent or weak based on their grades; adopted goals that were weakening to their learning. Students adopting performance-avoidance goals try to protect their self-esteem and pride by not being looked as incompetent on unintelligent (Farsani et al., 2014). Those students might have more chances of leaving schools due to their reluctance to work hard and seeking help from others for proper guidance (Eccles & Wigfield, 2002). Students who adopt performance-avoidance goals tend to have low self-efficacy, and show reluctance in seeking help as they consider it as a sign of incompetence (Zepeda et al., 2015).

Few studies have demonstrated connections between achievement goal orientation and cognitive and self-regulated learning strategy use. For instance, Elliot and McGregor (2001) asserted that sixth grade students' self-regulated learning is absolutely joined with a task goal orientation. According to theories of self-regulated learning (Winne, & Hadwin, 2008; Zimmerman et al., 2000), tasks set by the learner for oneself to inspire to behave in a manner that would result in achieving that task efficiently and perform better in the future. Distinctive studies (Winters, Greene, & Costich, 2008) have analyzed how learning forms intercede the affiliated among achievement goals and outcomes, describing these learning processes as cases of intellectual commitment, self-regulation of learning, or the technique use.

Dialect learners have exposed incredible enthusiasm for the region of goal orientation and self-regulation and their interaction to learners' achievement. Learners' scholastic achievements are exaggerated by learner's self-regulated and goal-oriented methodology (Schunk & Zimmerman 2003). Researchers (Radosevich et al., 2004) examined the liaison of goal orientation and self-regulatory processes in an achievement background. The level of self-regulation useful for the students and the assets owed for task achievements would bring about fruitful dominance of mastery goal orientation (Park & Sperling, 2012). Additionally, performance-avoidance goal orientation strategy is negatively related with subjective self-regulation (Gegenfurtner, & Hagenauer, 2013).

The current study aimed to observe the feasible links between self-handicapping and self-regulated learning strategies in mastery goal orientation. Fewer studies have been done on self-handicapping in young school children to see the development context of individuals who utilized this strategy. However, the present study attempted to determine the effect of

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academic self-handicapping behavior on the performance and achievement of the adolescents.

The gap between academic self-handicapping and academic performance has been seen in the existing literature. The present study is attempted to inspect the impact of self-handicapping behavior on the performance of the students. Previous studies have identified the pattern of self-regulated learning strategies among university and college students, and they also found self-handicapping as a motivational strategies used by adults. However, the present study attempted to identify this pattern among adolescents.

In the light of aforementioned literature, the objectives of the present research were outlined as:

1. To examine the relationship among academic self-handicapping, self-regulated learning strategy, and mastery goal orientation among adolescents.
2. It also attempted to determine the role of various demographics (gender, type of school, and parental education) in relation to academic self-handicapping, self-regulated learning strategy, and mastery goal orientation among adolescents.

Hypotheses

The following hypotheses were postulated.

1. Academic self-handicapping is negatively related with self-regulated learning strategy and goal orientation.
2. Self-regulated learning strategy is positively associated with goal orientation.
3. Girls are likely to express less self-handicapping behavior with better self-regulation and higher goal orientation as compared to boys.
4. Adolescents enrolled in private school would display less self-handicapping inclinations with more self-regulation and goal oriented behaviors as compared to government school students.
5. Adolescents with higher parental (maternal and paternal) education will express lower self-handicapping behavior, better self-regulation, and more goal oriented behaviors.

Method

Sample

The sample ($N = 550$) comprised of school students, including girls ($n = 265$) and boys ($n = 285$) enrolled in 9th ($n = 269$) and 10th ($n = 281$) class. The sample was selected through convenient sampling method. The sample comprised of both public / government ($n = 280$) and private ($n = 270$) schools of Islamabad and Rawalpindi. The age range of the respondents

varied from 14 to 16 years ($M = 15.28$; $SD = 3.57$). The sample was selected from segregated ($n = 354$) and co-education ($n = 196$) institutions. The educational level of the parents were divided into three groups, that is matric and intermediate ($n = 152$), graduation ($n = 237$), and post-graduation ($n = 161$).

Instruments

The following measures were used to assess constructs of the study:

Self-Handicapping Scale. The Self-Handicapping Scale (Jones & Rhodewalt, 1982), having 15 items was used to measure self-handicapping behavior of the students. The scale was uni-dimensional in nature with no subscale. The responses of the scale acquired on 5-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). There were three reversed scored items, and the possible range of scores that could be attained on this scale was 15 - 75 with high scores indicating higher tendencies of self-handicapping. The composite score of the scale was shown to have high internal reliability ($\alpha = .79$; Jones & Rhodewalt, 1982), while in the present study alpha of .86 was achieved for this scale.

Self-Regulation Strategy Inventory. A 15 item Self-Regulation Strategy Inventory (Cleary & Platten, 2013); was used to measure self-regulated strategies of the students. The scale comprised of both positively and negatively phrased items. The scale consisted of three subscales: Managing Learning Environment (6 items), Seeking Learning Information (5 items), and Maladaptive Regulatory Behavior (4 items). The responses on the scale were acquired on 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*never*) to 5 (*always*); while responses on Maladaptive Regulatory Behavior Subscale were reversed scored. The possible score range of the scale would be 15-75 with high score on the scale indicate better self-regulated strategies employed by students. The composite score of the scale was shown to have high internal reliability ($\alpha = .92$; Cleary, 2006), whereas an alpha of .81 was attained for this scale in the present study.

Achievement Goals Questionnaire-Revised. To measure goal orientation of the students; a 12 item Achievement Goals Questionnaire-Revised (Elliot & Murayama, 2008) was used. The scale consisted of four subscales: Mastery Approach Goal (3 items), Mastery Avoidance Goal (3 items), Performance Approach Goal (3 items), and Performance Avoidance Goal (3 items). Responses were acquired on 5-point Likert scale varying from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*); whereas responses on Mastery Avoidance Goal Subscale and Performance Avoidance Goal Subscale were reverse scored. The possible score range that would be attained on this scale was 12-

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60 with high scores indicating better achievement goal orientation of the students. The internal consistency of the scale has been reported as satisfactory ($\alpha = .84$; Elliot & Murayama, 2008); while, in the present study, alpha coefficient of .79 was achieved for this scale.

Procedure

First of all official permission was taken from the administrative heads of the schools to administer the research questionnaires on the students. The data was collected from the different schools of Rawalpindi and Islamabad. Initially informed consent was obtained from the participants and they were briefed about the purpose of the study. Respondents were also assured of the confidentiality of data. Later, questionnaire booklets were administered on individual basis. Participants signed the consent form and they were requested to read the statements carefully and mark the most appropriate option of the statements. Written instructions as well as verbal narrations were given to the participants so as to maximize the clarity and reduce ambiguity regarding the completion of questionnaire. Afterwards they were thanked and appreciated for their cooperation and valuable time.

Results

Pearson product moment correlation was conducted to determine the relationship among academic self-handicapping, self-regulated learning strategies, and mastery goal orientation. It also helps in identifying the direction of the relationship between variables. Independent sample *t*-test and one way ANOVA was computed to determine the group differences across gender, type of school, and overall parental education.

Table 1

Correlation Matrix Among Academic Self-Handicapping, Self-Regulated Learning Strategies, and Mastery Goal Orientation (N = 550)

Variables	SH	SRLS	MLE	SLI	MRB	MGO	MAG	MAV	PAG	PAV
SH	—	-.42**	-.29**	-.34**	.26**	-.39**	-.35**	.32**	-.30**	.20*
SRLS		—	.69***	.52***	-.49***	.51***	.41**	-.37***	.37***	-.30**
MLE			—	.64***	-.37**	.24**	.37**	-.20*	.23*	-.41**
SLI				—	-.61***	.26**	.32**	-.24**	.29**	-.28**
MRB					—	-.22**	-.11	.31**	-.14	.21*
MGO						—	.71***	-.51***	.60***	-.63***
MAG							—	-.48***	.37***	-.44***
MAV								—	-.42***	.40***
PAG									—	-.35***
PAV										—

Note. SH = Self-Handicapping; SRLS = Self-Regulated Learning Strategies; MLE = Managing Learning Environment; SLI = Seeking And Learning Information; MRB = Maladaptive

Regulatory Behavior; MGO = Mastery Goal Orientation; MAG = Mastery Approach Goal; MAV = Mastery Avoidance Goal; PAG = Performance Approach Goal; PAV = Performance Avoidance Goal.

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$

Table 1 demonstrated the relationship among academic self-handicapping, self-regulated learning strategies, and mastery goal orientation. Results indicated that self-handicapping is significantly negatively associated with overall self-regulation learning strategies, managing learning environment, and seeking learning information as well as with mastery goal orientation, mastery approach goal, and performance approach goal. On the contrary, self handicapping is significantly positively linked with maladaptive regulatory behavior, mastery avoidance goal, and performance avoidance goal.

In addition, overall self regulated learning strategies along with managing learning environment and seeking learning information have shown significant positive association with overall mastery goal orientation, mastery approach goal, and performance approach goal. On the other hand, maladaptive regulatory behavior (self regulated learning strategy dimension) revealed significant positive association with mastery avoidance goal and performance avoidance goal (mastery goal orientation dimensions); whereas, it is significantly negatively related with overall mastery goal orientation. However, relationship of maladaptive regulatory behavior with mastery approach goal and performance approach goal was nonsignificant. These findings provide substantial support for hypotheses 1 and 2.

Table 1 also demonstrated adequate construct validity of self regulated learning strategies by indicating significant positive association of dimensions of managing learning environment and seeking learning information with each other as well as with the total construct. In addition, maladaptive regulated behavior is significantly negatively related with both dimensions (managing learning environment and seeking learning information) and the total construct of self regulated learning strategies.

Findings presented in Table 1 further indicated ample evidence of construct validity of mastery goal orientation by showing positive association of mastery approach goal and performance approach goal with each other as well as with the overall construct of mastery goal orientation. Conversely, dimensions of mastery avoidance goal and performance avoidance goal displayed significant negative relationship with mastery approach goal and performance approach goal and overall construct of mastery goal orientation.

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Table 2

Gender Differences on Academic Self-Handicapping Self-Regulated Learning Strategies, and Mastery Goal Orientation (N = 550)

Variables	Boys (n = 285)		Girls (n = 265)		t (298)	p	95 % Cohen's		CI d
	M	SD	M	SD			LL	UL	
SH	51.28	6.01	45.33	6.5	5.11	.00	1.16	3.9	.54
SRLS	42.00	5.17	48.39	7.0	5.90	.00	2.40	9	.57
MLE	20.24	6.09	23.48	6.7	2.16	.05	0.93	5.4	.35
SLI	16.53	7.66	19.29	5.0	2.53	.04	1.19	3	.37
MRB*	8.77	3.08	10.44	3.2	2.97	.02	2.53	2	.39
MGO	40.34	6.55	44.90	8.2	3.71	.01	1.96	8	.42
MAG	10.32	2.69	13.09	2.9	2.75	.03	3.25	7	.38
MAV*	6.47	2.98	9.15	3.0	3.67	.01	2.93	5	.40
PAG	10.55	2.92	13.00	3.0	4.11	.00	0.59	.07	.51
PAV*	10.26	2.74	12.51	3.1	2.03	.05	1.30	9	.33
				9				8	

Note. SH = Self-Handicapping; SRLS = Self-Regulated Learning Strategies; MLE = Managing Learning Environment; SLI = Seeking And Learning Information; MRB = Maladaptive Regulatory Behavior; MGO = Mastery Goal Orientation; MAG = Mastery Approach Goal; MAV = Mastery Avoidance Goal; PAG = Performance Approach Goal; PAV = Performance Avoidance Goal.

* Scores on these subscales are reverse scored

Table 2 shows significant gender differences in relation to academic self-handicapping, self-regulated learning strategies, and goal orientation among adolescents. Findings indicated that girls' express less self-handicapping behavior and more self-regulated and mastery goal orientation as compare to boys. It has also been observed that girls reflect better seeking learning information and engaging learning environment, and lesser maladaptive regulated behavior. Similarly, girls have shown high mastery approach goal and performance approach goal as compared to their counterparts. In addition, girls expressed less mastery avoidance goal and performance avoidance goal

in comparison to boys. These findings offer ample empirical evidence in support of hypothesis 3.

Table 3

Differences on Type of Schools Across Academic Self-Handicapping Self-Regulated Learning Strategies, and Mastery Goal Orientation (N = 550)

Variables	Private (n = 270)		Public (n = 280)		t (298)	p	95 % Cohen's		CI
	M	SD	M	SD			LL	UL	
SH	46.31	11.01	40.44	12.22	6.73	.00	1.16	3.99	.78
SRLS	39.28	10.62	35.05	10.66	5.49	.00	2.40	5.43	.65
MLE	22.14	7.29	19.61	8.08	4.36	.01	2.93	6.50	.49
SLI	15.22	6.47	11.47	7.25	4.18	.01	1.19	7.42	.44
MRB*	13.71	3.08	09.31	3.28	5.06	.00	2.53	5.68	.52
MGO	42.05	12.55	38.77	11.80	6.42	.01	1.96	3.67	.71
MAG	14.64	7.57	10.19	7.63	5.90	.00	1.25	5.65	.69
MAV*	10.47	3.11	08.82	3.44	3.27	.04	1.93	4.07	.40
PAG	12.42	4.09	09.08	3.22	3.80	.02	2.59	6.39	.42
PAV*	12.83	2.17	10.50	4.66	2.61	.05	2.30	7.68	.36

Note. SH = Self-Handicapping; SRLS = Self-Regulated Learning Strategies; MLE = Managing Learning Environment; SLI = Seeking And Learning Information; MRB = Maladaptive Regulatory Behavior; MGO = Mastery Goal Orientation; MAG = Mastery Approach Goal; MAV = Mastery Avoidance Goal; PAG = Performance Approach Goal; PAV = Performance Avoidance Goal.

* Scores on these subscales are reverse scored

Results presented in Table 3 showed group differences across study variables in relation to type of schools. It has been found that students enrolled in private schools exhibit lesser self handicapping, maladaptive regulatory behavior, mastery avoidance goal, and performance avoidance goal as compared to adolescents studying in public schools. On the other hand, private school students display better self regulated learning strategies, managing learning environment, seeking learning information, mastery approach goal and performance approach goal; thereby providing complete support for hypothesis 4.

Table 4

Differences on Parental Education of Adolescents across All Study Variables (N = 550)

Variables	Intermediate (n = 76)		Graduation (n = 110)		Post-Graduation (n = 80)				Tukey's Post Hoc <i>i > j</i>
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>	
Maternal Education									
Self Handicapping	37.14	11.26	34.04	12.70	31.66	11.37	5.68	.00	1 > 2,3; 2 > 3
Self Regulated Learning	38.44	9.27	41.21	8.31	44.47	10.81	4.57	.01	3 > 1,2; 2 > 1
Mastery Goal Orientation	39.28	9.64	43.55	10.25	47.76	8.38	5.91	.00	3 > 1,2; 2 > 1
Paternal Education									
Self Handicapping	38.44	9.27	37.21	8.31	37.47	9.81	1.57	.17	ns
Self Regulated Learning	42.28	10.64	43.55	10.25	42.76	9.38	1.81	.11	ns
Mastery Goal Orientation	35.14	9.26	37.04	9.70	40.66	10.37	3.68	.01	3 > 1, 2

Total sample = Intermediate (n = 152), Graduation (n = 237), Post-Graduation (n = 161)

Table 4 demonstrated group differences on parental education in relation to study variables. Results indicated differential pattern for maternal and paternal educational levels; where higher maternal level of education is associated with lesser self handicapping tendencies, better self regulated learning strategies, and mastery goal orientation of the adolescents. On the other hand, higher paternal level of education is linked with higher mastery goal orientation only; however, nonsignificant differences are observed on self handicapping and self regulated learning strategies in relation to paternal educational levels; hence offering partial support for hypothesis 5.

Discussion

The major objective of the present study was to explore the role of academic self-handicapping and self-regulated learning strategies in mastery goal orientation among adolescents. It also attempted to determine the role of various demographics (such as gender, type of school, and parental education) in relation to academic self-handicapping, self-regulated learning strategy and mastery goal orientation among adolescents.

Findings show that self-handicapping is negatively associated with self-regulated learning strategies and goal orientation; thereby supporting the first hypothesis. The existing literature also found the similar patterns of relationship between self-handicapping behavior and poor academic performance (Winters et al., 2008). Self-handicapping conducts are characterized as a withdrawal of exertion from an assignment (e.g., not to prepare for a test); however, some studies indicated that self-handicappers do

feel satisfied when they do not get success in any particular task than those students who are engaged in self-handicapping (Akça, 2012).

Findings also showed significant positive association between self-regulated learning strategy and goal orientation, indicating that students with better self-regulated learning strategies are more goal oriented. The results of present study are quite in line with earlier research, for instance studies (Radosevich et al., 2004) have consistently declared that mastery goal orientation and self-regulation are positively associated with each other. Furthermore, based on the theoretical assumption about the consequences of the mastery achievement goal, those students who are goal oriented and self-regulated preferred challenging tasks and have more positive attitude towards their class activities (Grant & Dweck, 2003). Later empirical evidences (Effeney et al., 2013; Leondari & Gonida, 2007) also found that students who are highly self-regulated are more likely to be dominated, give importance to their work, and are deeply involved in learning activities (using deep learning strategies; for instance, association, amplification, critical thinking) throughout the utilization of meta-cognitive self-regulation.

Results further indicated that girls reflect lesser self-handicapping behavior and more self-regulated learning strategies and mastery goal orientation, thereby supporting the third hypothesis. These findings receive substantial support from earlier set of studies (Kazemi, Nikmanesh, & Khosravi, 2015; Pape et al., 2003) demonstrating that girls reveal better seeking learning information and engaging learning environment and lesser maladaptive behavior. Similarly, school girls are likely to reflect high mastery approach goal and performance approach goal; whereas, lesser inclinations of performance avoidance goal as compared to boys. Existing literature (Rabia et al., 2017; Steel et al., 2001) asserted that fifth grade students and senior high school male students used more self-handicapping strategies as compared to girls. Additionally, Aldous and Mulligan (2002) inferred that boys in the sixth grade are greatly prone to chase executive approach objectives as compare to girls; however, they are more apt to performance goal than girls. Similarly, Elliot and McGregor (2001) asserted that teenager boys exhibit superior performance orientation than females; whereas college-aged females show greater mastery orientation than college-aged males. However, other studies have found that 9th grade female students' performance objective orientations and classroom goal structures are positively related (Al-Harthy et al., 2010).

Findings also indicate that adolescents who are enrolled in private schools are less engaged in self-handicapping behavior and are more self-regulated and goal oriented as compare to government school students. These findings

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can be readily explained in the context of native evidences as handful indigenous studies (Kausar et al., 2017; Kazemi et al., 2015) have jointly inferred that private school students are more achievement oriented and intrinsically driven for better academic performance as compared to public school students. Similarly, evidences (Rabia et al., 2017; Khan et al., 2017) from Pakistan mutually pointed out the vast differences in the school climate and classroom practices which, in turn, would have greater influence on the self regulated learning styles and achievement goal orientation of the students. Additional set of studies (Barzegar & Khezri, 2012; Park & Sperling, 2012) from various settings also highlighted the importance of two factors which are constantly related for the differences in academic outcomes between the students of private and public; that is, socio-economic characteristics and peers. Private school students are more inclined to have a positive link with academic success and they have peers with highly educated parents who can also produce a positive impact on their academic performance and educational attainments (Church, Elliot, & Gable, 2001).

The present study establishes significant differences among adolescents with varying levels of parental education; however diverse pattern surfaced in relation to maternal and paternal education. It has been found that adolescents with higher maternal education are less likely to be engaged in self-handicapping behavior and more prone to better self-regulation and achievement goal orientation. Earlier studies (Gonida & Cortina, 2014; Pomerantz et al., 2002) describe the probable reasons for this specific impact of maternal education by asserting that mothers play a significant role in shaping the early academic behaviors of young children and their own skills and abilities would have an enduring effect on the child's cognitive and psychological development. Likewise, Pulkka and Niemivirta (2013) added that study habits of primary school children are greatly determined by the maternal regulatory practices as compared to paternal disciplinary actions. Moreover, differences on paternal education showed that adolescents with higher father education exhibited higher achievement goal, however non-significant differences are found on self-handicapping and self-regulated learning strategies. In this regard, Gonida and Cortina (2014) explained that young children tend to associate with their fathers in terms of perceiving their future goals and aspirations; while, they are more prone to relate with their mothers for emotional and physical support. Existing literature (Steele-Johnson, Beauregard, Hoover, & Schmidt, 2000) also found that grade 8th and 9th students' achievement orientation and structure are significantly related, and those students whose parents are highly goal oriented get higher grades than other students. Other researchers (Gonida & Cortina, 2014) also found

that students who get support during homework completion from their parents are more goal oriented and self-regulated as compare to others. While, Church et al. (2001) declared a significant relationship between mothers' education and students' achievement inferring that higher educated mothers had higher expectations from their children and these expectations are also related to their children's academic achievement. In addition, Winne and Hadwin (2008) inferred that those children are more advanced in educational achievements and in higher occupational mobility whose parents especially fathers take participation in learning activities with them.

Limitations and Suggestions

The potential limitations of the current study are duly pointed out. Firstly, the size of the sample in the present study was relatively small and included only 9th and 10th grade students. Due to the time constraints, data was collected only from few public and private schools of Islamabad and Rawalpindi. Secondly, present study opted quantitative research method to explore the role of academic self-handicapping and self-regulated learning strategies in mastery goal orientation among adolescents. In the current study self-report measures of data collection were used which may involve the element of social desirability and responses bias. Thirdly it was a cross sectional research designs; therefore, it would be unfeasible to draw causal inferences.

Therefore, it is suggested for future studies to include a wider age range and sample to increase the diversity of the sample. Future studies should examine a more representative sample including college and university students. In upcoming studies, the sample should be selected from many public and private sector schools to increase variability of the sample. Moreover, future studies should explore self-handicapping, self-regulated strategies, and goal orientation within different segments of the society such as university and college students to enhance the sample diversity. The future studies should choose qualitative research to get reasonable information regarding the corresponding variables of the study.

Implications

The present research highlighted the important relationships among academic self-handicapping, self-regulated learning strategies and mastery goal orientation. This research is primarily a psychological study in the field of educational psychology, and such a study can form the basis for future explorations within this field. This study can be replicated on adults and adolescents. The outcomes of the present study would give a better insight about the future of students to identify and understand that their own personal

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characteristics (i.e. academic self-handicapping, self-regulated strategies, and achievement goal) that could play an important role in their educational performance, and resultantly, it will make them capable to attain better self-regulated strategies and achievement objectives to reduce self-handicapping behaviors. Both parents and teachers should focus on the personal development, progress and the knowledge of the lessons instead of comparison and competition. Moreover, educationists are encouraged to design conducive classroom environments that can assist to foster the students' sense of personal competency and academic efficacy to overcome the scholastic difficulties.

Conclusion

The major derivations of the study indicated the predictive role of self-handicapping behaviors and self-regulated learning strategies in mastery goal orientation among adolescents. It is further found that gender, type of school, and maternal education play significant role in shaping self-handicapping and self-regulating behaviors along with mastery goal orientation.

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Psychological Skills and Performance Efficacy in Hockey Players: The Mediating Role of Sportsmanship

Vicar Solomon

Special Education Department, Punjab.

Farah Malik

University of the Punjab, Lahore

The current study was designed to find out relationship between psychological skills and performance efficacy and mediating role of sportsmanship in domestic, national and international hockey players. It was a correlational research employing cross sectional research design in which the sample of 261 hockey players was recruited via purposive sampling. The assessment measures included Psychological Skills Scale for Hockey Players and Cricketers (Solomon, Malik & Kausar, 2019), Youth Sports Value Questionnaire-2 (Lee, Whitehead, & Ntoumanis, 2007) and Collective Efficacy for Sports Questionnaire (Short, Sullivan, & Feltz, 2009). Results showed a significant relationship between psychological skills, sportsmanship and performance efficacy in hockey players, however, perceived psychological support was found to be significant positive predictor of sportsmanship and sportsmanship coined as a significant positive predictor of performance efficacy. Furthermore, sportsmanship was found to be significant mediator between perceived psychological support and performance efficacy. This research will work as an empirical proof for Pakistan Hockey Federation (PHF) to conduct psychological skills training for hockey players for the enhancement of their performance efficacy by signifying the importance of sportsmanship.

Keywords: psychological skills, sportsmanship, performance efficacy

The main focus of sports psychology has always been to emphasize the importance of psychology in sports settings. The heightened competition stress lead towards a sudden diminished performance both physically and psychologically by influencing on performance abilities of players (Dweck, 2009). Sports psychology enables players and coaches to concentrate on psychological skills of players by controlling negative emotions and optimizing performance and assist players in focusing positively on their respective games. Sports have been more refined and coaches who had been

unable to utilize the mental aspect of their players had faced disgrace in their respective fields due to their poor performance (Marshall & Harrison, 2015). The end of 1990s was marked as the era of fitness revolution, the 2000s named as the sports science and analysis period and now the next era will be marked as dealing psychological aspects of sports (Gucciardi, 2016). The role of coaches in team sports is vital and oblivious as coaches flourish their players physically, psychologically, technically and tactically and enable them for accomplishing optimal goals. Coaches play a critical role in the lives of young athletes and have the potential to influence, positively or negatively, their sporting experiences (Lambert, Passmore & Holder 2015).

Today, sport psychological thinking is an indispensable condition for an integrated approach as number of factors and aspects required to be focused when optimizing sport performance and players should be viewed through a system approach as there are many exogenous factors affecting his functioning. Psychological skills encompass learned behaviors employed by players pragmatically and pave their way towards distinction in sports (Sheard, Golby & van-Wersch, 2009). Another study postulated that psychological skills are important characteristics that are beneficial for players in accomplishing excellence in performance during crucial match situations and critical conditions. They incorporate different psychological techniques including sports injury rehabilitation, performance related perfectionism and balance between sports and others aspects of life (Crust & Swann, 2013). On the other hand, it is expected for support to teach their participants regard for opponents, responsibility, fair play, trust, team cohesion, healthy competition and urge to be excellent. Parents and coaches need to work together in facilitating players with atmosphere that can establish positive playing experiences. Coaches are regarded as important figure in making sports positive and enthusiastic for their players (Kao, Hsieh & Lee, 2017). Sportsmanship and morality have a vital role in sports at school level. It is widely believed that sports can promote sports related behaviors, values and character building. Sports provide different social facilities to attain social values contributing to morality and character building in the society (Lee, Whitehead & Ntoumanis, 2007). Sportsmanship is necessary for character building and sports deliberately promote morality and judgment by defiance to rules and regulations of game. Morality promotes sportsmanship including trustworthiness, integrity and responsibility (Ryska, 2003). Sports and other physical games and activities facilitate players with different opportunities for being skillful, strategic, committed, respectful and being dignified. These strategies provide six main features of character including trustworthiness, respect, responsibility, fairness, caring and good citizenship. However, the major limitation is that sportsmanship would not facilitate

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positive character development specifically keeping winning factor in mind (Barez, 2008).

Psychological components related to sports have been classified as significant in improving one's sports related performance, however, the prediction of performance is based on the principles of sports psychology (Chen & Cheesman, 2013). Performance can be linked with principles of applied sports psychology and generally refers as a discipline that involves intuitive appeal for experienced psychology (Schutz, Eom, Smoll & Smith, 1994). Applied sports psychologists need to have specialty knowledge for every aspect and their respective area of expertise, however, sporting context implicate specialized training other than general performance principles. Performance psychology tries to help individuals in being the best as per their abilities of becoming in their performance activities (Jooste, Steyn & den-Berg, 2014). An individual being taught about performance issues helps him or her to accomplish a set goal. Moreover, coaching and consultation are considered as major modalities that best fit in performance psychology foundation of applied sports psychology (Mouratidou & Barkoukis, 2015).

Whitmore (2002) stated that coaching manuals adhere to different psychological components and potential value of these factors is important in increasing performance. Mouratidou and Barkoukis (2015) indicated that understanding limitations and optimal performance factors have always been area of interest for sports psychologists. In different competitive conditions, performance related demands of athletes can be categorized into three factors i.e. the physical ability to perform continued physical exercises, being involved in high intensity exercises, the ability of being athletic and the ability to progress a high power output, however, performance is indomitable by a players' technical, tactical and psychological ability. Solomon and Kausar (2017) examined knowledge and awareness of cricketers about psychological skills and their perception of significance of psychological skills in cricket. Focus group discussions and in-depth interviews were conducted with Pakistan U-19 Cricket Team and Pakistan International Cricket Team. Data gathered through focus group and individual interviews coined that psychological skills were required due to changing cricketing patterns with the passage of time; psychological skills consisted of several components i.e. sense of cohesiveness; psychological control; psychological preparation; freshness of mind; adherence to instruction of coaches for mental strengths. Psychological skills were perceived to be important for cricketers to enable them deal with pressure effectively and help them develop positive mind set. Solomon and Kausar (2015) also conducted a research to find out differences between psychological skills and choking in first class, national, and

international cricketers and no mean differences were found for playing levels and playing positions in psychological skills and choking. Psychological skills significantly negatively correlated with psychological distractors and choking and psychological distractors emerged as significant predictors of choking. Thus, in a nut shell, sports are metaphor for life that guarantees one’s success by distinguishing oneself from others due to one’s skills, determination and hard work by connecting between one’s sportsmanship as good sportsmanship encompasses different aspects of a sportsman’s life such as equal respect for teammates and opponents, integrity and above all unselfish sport participation for being a great sportsman (Lane, 2014).

Objectives

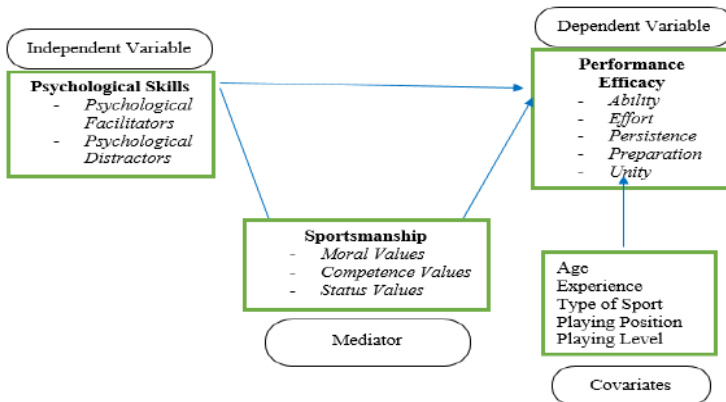
The objectives of this study were:

1. To find out relationship between psychological skills (psycho-performance skills, perceived psychological support and psycho-competitiveness), sportsmanship (moral values, competence, values and status values) and performance efficacy (ability, effort, persistence, preparation and unity) in hockey players.
2. To determine the mediating role of sportsmanship between psychological skills and performance efficacy.

Hypotheses

1. There is likely to be relationship between psychological skills (psycho-performance skills, perceived psychological support and psycho-competitiveness), sportsmanship (moral values, competence values and status values) and performance efficacy (ability, effort, persistence, preparation and unity) in hockey players.
2. Sportsmanship will mediate the relationship between psychological skills and performance efficacy in hockey players.

Hypothesized Model of the Study



Method

Correlational (cross-sectional) research design was employed.

Sampling Strategy and Sample

The sample consisted of 261 Hockey Players (N= 261) as calculated by G-Power 3.0 sample calculator (Faul, Erdfelder, Langa & Buchner, 2007) collected from different hockey clubs of Punjab via non-probability purposive sampling technique.

Inclusion/ Exclusion criteria.

- Hockey players currently playing at different clubs and departments under the plat form of Pakistan Hockey Federation (PHF) were approached.
- Hockey players who have minimum one year of experience of playing hockey and hockey at region, district or departmental level were included.
- Hockey players facing any kind of ban for playing their respective sport by club/ academy due to some disciplinary actions were excluded.
- Hockey players having any kind of disability and physical injury didn't take part in this research.

Assessment Measures

Psychological Skills Scale for Hockey Players and Cricketers (PSSHPC)

Psychological Skills Scale for Hockey Players and Cricketers (Solomon, Malik & Kausar, 2019) that consisted of 84 items with three sub-scales: Psycho-Performance Skills, Perceived Psychological Support and Psycho-Competitiveness included 38, 24 and 22 items respectively. The overall score range on was 84 (minimum) to 336 (maximum), however, the score range on psycho-performance skills is from 38 (minimum) to 152 (maximum), whereas, scoring range for perceived psychological support and psycho-competitiveness is 24 (minimum) to 96 (maximum) and 22 (minimum) to 88 (maximum) respectively with internal consistency for overall scale .94 determined by using Cronbach's alpha and .92, .90 and .87 reliability respectively for each sub-scale.

Youth Sport Values Questionnaire-2 (YSVQ-2)

Youth Sport Value Questionnaire-2 (YSVQ-2) developed by Lee et al., (2007) is 13-item questionnaire having three sub-scales to measure moral, competence and status values with four or five items.

Collective Efficacy for Sports Questionnaire (CESQ)

Collective Efficacy for Sport Questionnaire (Short, Sullivan & Feltz, 2005) is a 20-item questionnaire that measures collective team collapse on a 9-point scale with low scores indicating greater collapse. The 20 items measure five

different elements of collective efficacy. The five elements that are measured are ability, effort, persistence, preparation and unity.

Demographic Information Sheet

Demographic information of the participants were obtained by using a demographic information sheet including playing level, playing position, duration of playing a specific game, marital status, education, residence and monthly income.

Results

At first, descriptive statistics i.e. means, standard deviations, frequencies and percentages were computed to provide a preliminary profile of the sample characteristics. The mean, standard deviation, and reliability coefficients of assessment measures were computed. Pearson Product Moment Correlation was used to investigate relationship between psychological skills, sportsmanship and performance efficacy in hockey players. Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) through AMOS was used to find out mediating role of sportsmanship between the relationship of psychological skills and performance efficacy.

Table 1

Demographic Characteristics of Sample (N=261)

Variables	<i>Hockey Players N=261</i> <i>f (%)</i>
Age	M (SD) 22.88 (6.82)
U19 (16-19)	97 (37.16)
U23 (20-23)	87 (33.34)
Above 23 (24 Onwards)	77 (29.50)
Experience in Years	M (SD) 5.59 (4.89)
Playing Level	
Club	108 (41.4)
National	92 (35.2)
International	61 (23.4)
Marital Status	
Married	47 (18)
Unmarried	214 (82)
Have you ever faced any psychological problem during game?	
Yes	139 (53.2)
No	122 (46.8)
If yes, then whom did you consult?	
Captain	31 (22.3)
Coach	70 (50.3)
Any-other	31 (22.3)
No-one	7 (5.1)
Required Psychological Consultancy in future?	
Yes	164 (62.8)
No	97 (37.2)

Note: f= frequency, %= percentage, M = Mean, SD = Standard Deviation

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Table 2

Descriptive Statistics of Psychological Skills (Psycho- Performance Efficacy Skills, Perceived Psychological Support and Psycho-Competitiveness), Sportsmanship (Moral Values, Competence Values and Status Values) and Performance Efficacy (Ability, Effort, Persistence, Preparation and Unity) in Hockey Players (N=261)

Variables	k	M (SD)	Range		α
			Actual	Potential	
Psychological Skills	84	270.17 (29.24)	325	336	.94
Psycho- Performance Efficacy Skills	38	111.16 (18.13)	148	152	.92
Perceived Psychological Support	24	81.92 (11.00)	96	96	.90
Psycho-Competitiveness	22	77.55 (8.63)	88	88	.87
Sportsmanship	13	42.17 (12.74)	65	65	.83
Moral Values	5	17.11 (4.94)	25	25	.61
Competence Values	4	14.74 (4.26)	20	20	.64
Status Values	4	10.32 (5.74)	20	20	.68
Performance Efficacy	20	162.68 (28.85)	200	200	.92
Ability	4	33.11 (6.37)	40	40	.74
Effort	4	31.86 (7.10)	40	40	.75
Persistence	4	31.49 (6.88)	40	40	.68
Preparation	4	33.70 (6.27)	40	40	.80
Unity	4	32.41 (6.31)	40	40	.67

Note: k = Number. of items, M = Mean, SD = Standard Deviation, α = Cronbach's alpha

Table 2 contained descriptive statistics of the study and showing number of items for scales and sub-scales, mean, standard deviation, and Cronbach alpha reliability.

Table 3

Correlations among Age, Experience, Psychological Skills (Psycho-Performance Efficacy Skills, Perceived Psychological Support and Psycho-Competitiveness), Sportsmanship (Moral Values, Competence Values and Status Values) and Performance Efficacy (Ability, Effort, Persistence, Preparation and Unity) in Hockey Players (N=261)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
1. Age	-	.87***	.09	.11	.03	.02	.01	.02	.01	-.01	.13*	.08	.14*	.06	.16*	.11
2. Exp.		-	-.07	.11	-.01	-.01	-.01	-.01	-.02	.01	.14*	.10	.14*	.07	.14*	.13*
3. PSk			-	.82***	.73***	.65***	.13*	.16**	.23***	-.01	.23***	.21**	.18**	.15*	.20**	.23***
4. PPr				-	.27***	.20**	-.01	.03	.06	-.10	.06	.11	-.02	.02	.07	.09
5. PPS					-	.65***	.22***	.22***	.31***	.06	.31***	.21**	.33***	.24***	.26***	.27***
6. PCo						-	.22***	.22***	.25***	.11	.25***	.20**	.25***	.18**	.22***	.23***
7. SMS							-	.84***	.87***	.81***	.40***	.35***	.28***	.38***	.34***	.35***
8. MoralV								-	.71***	.44***	.40***	.35***	.25***	.38***	.36***	.37***
9. ComV									-	.53***	.38***	.34***	.28***	.33***	.33***	.33***
10. StatusV										-	.24***	.22***	.18**	.25***	.17**	.18**
11. Per.Ef.											-	.83***	.84***	.86***	.87***	.84***
12. Ability												-	.59***	.64***	.66***	.68***
13. Effort													-	.66***	.70***	.59***
14. Pers.														-	.69***	.64***
15. Prep.															-	.70***
16. Unity																-

Note: * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$, Exp.=Experience, PS=Psychological Skills, PPr.=Psycho-Performance Efficacy Skills, PPS=Perceived Psychological Support, PCo=

Psycho-Competitiveness, SMS=Sportsmanship, MoralV=Moral Values, ComV=Competence Values, StatusV=Status Values, Per.Ef.=Performance Efficacy, Pers.=

Persistence, and Prep.=Preparation

Table 3 revealed that for hockey players, age was significantly positively correlated with performance Efficacy, effort and preparation. Playing experience was significantly and positively correlated with performance efficacy, effort, preparation and unity. Psychological skills were significantly positively correlated with competence values, performance efficacy and unity, sportsmanship, moral values, ability, effort, persistence and preparation. Perceived psychological support was significantly positively correlated with sportsmanship, moral values, competence values, status values, performance Efficacy, ability, effort, persistence, preparation and unity.

Sportsmanship was significantly positively correlated with performance Efficacy, ability, effort, persistence, preparation and unity. Moral values were significantly positively correlated with status values, performance efficacy, ability, effort, persistence, preparation and unity. Status values were significantly positively correlated with performance efficacy, ability, effort, persistence, preparation and unity.

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Structural equation modeling using IBM AMOS SPSS was conducted to evaluate the mediating role of sportsmanship between psychological skills and performance Efficacy in cricket and hockey players. Model fit presented in table 4.

Table 4

Fit Indices for Psychological Skills, Sportsmanship and Performance Efficacy in Hockey Players

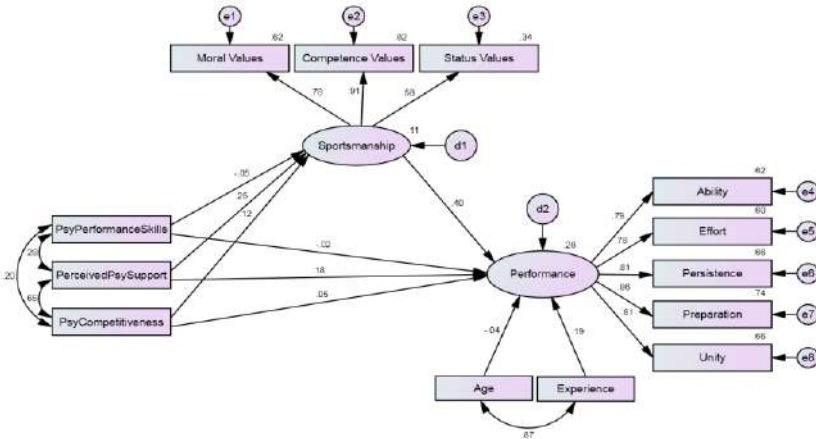
Model	χ^2	df	χ^2/df	GFI	CFI	NFI	RMSEA	SRMR
Model Fit (Gender)	178.44	114	1.57	.95	.98	.97	.03	.03

Note: N=261, GFI= Goodness of fit index, CFI=comparative fit index, NFI = -normed fit index; RMSEA=root mean square error of approximation, SRMR=Standardized root mean square.

Model fit indices indicated for psychological skills, sportsmanship and performance efficacy in hockey players. Absolute model fit by gender and marital status were $\chi^2 (114) = 178.44, p < .001$. The chi-square test of absolute model fit is sensitive to sample size and number of parameters estimate, investigators often turn to various descriptive fit indices to assess the overall model fit (Kenny 2003). Hence model fit was analyzed by using relative fit (GFI, CFI, NFI, RMSEA, SRMR) of model. Hu, Li-Tze, Bentler and Peter (1999) recommend χ^2/df in between 0 and 3, RMSEA and SRMR values .08 or lesser and Comparative Fit Index (CFI), Normedfit Index (NFI) and Goodness of fit Index (GFI) values of .9 or higher are considered as good while $.9 \leq .8$ is consider permissible sometimes. However indices of model fit indicated the best fit for the proposed model accruing to given criteria.

Figure 1

Empirical Results from a Complex Multivariate Model Representing Standardized Regression Coefficients by Hockey Players (N=261)



A complex multivariate model of two endogenous variables and three exogenous variables. Completely standardized maximum likelihood parameter estimates.

Table 5

Standardized Direct Effects of the Paths for Hockey Players (N = 261)

Predictors	Sportsmanshi		Performance	
	p		Efficacy	
	B	SE	B	SE
PerceivedPsychologicalSupport	0.25*	0.10	0.18	0.1
PsychoCompetitiveness	0.12	0.09	0.05	0.09
Psycho Performance Efficacy Skills	-0.1	0.06	-0.02	0.06
Sportsmanship			0.40**	0.07
Playing Experience			0.19	0.11
Age			-0.04	0.11
Total R ²				

The results of direct effect showed that perceived psychological support was found to be significant positive predictor of sportsmanship for hockey players. Sportsmanship was found to be significant positive predictor of performance efficacy for hockey players.

Table 6

Standardized Indirect Effects of the Paths for Hockey Players (N = 261)

Predictors	Performance Efficacy	
	B	SE
Perceived Psychological Support	0.10*	0.10
Psycho-Competitiveness	0.05	0.09
Psycho Performance Skills	-0.02	0.06

Results of indirect showed that sportsmanship was found to be significant mediator between perceived psychological support and performance efficacy for hockey players.

Discussion

Psychological issues in sports are usually discussed in Pakistan but researchers need to conduct more studies in this area to increase one’s knowledge about psychological support, whereas, physical characteristics have always been a hot topic for Pakistan Sports Board and especially for Pakistan Hockey Federation, this study was carried out to find the relationship between psychological skills and performance efficacy and mediating role of sportsmanship among these variables in hockey players.

First of all, it was hypothesized that there is likely to be relationship between psychological skills, sportsmanship and performance efficacy in hockey players. However, on separately inspection of results for hockey players, it was found that psychological skills were significantly positively correlated with psycho-performance skills, perceived psychological support, psycho-competitiveness, coaching competence, creating the relationships, communication influencing skills, communication attending skills, facilitating for learning and results, making the responsibility clear, sportsmanship, moral values, competence values, status values, performance efficacy, ability, effort, persistence, preparation and unity. The reason behind these findings can be marked as the fundamental role and contribution of psychological skills in hockey and psychological skills of players tend to influence hockey players' skills related to performance, psychological support that is derived from coaches, management and teammates and competition related psychological tactics. Psychological skills of hockey players simplify both for coaches and players to be mutually beneficial for each other as they have an important role towards coaching competence, maintaining coach-athlete relationship, mutual communication, communication facilitating skills, mutual aptitude towards learning and realization of importance of responsibility during competition. Moreover, psychological skills directly affect sportsmanship and performance efficacy of hockey players including their moral values, status values and competence values, ability, effort, persistence, preparation and unity.

Furthermore, Lewinson and Palma (2012) examined the relationships that exist between psychological skills and confidence among ice hockey Lacrosse and soccer goalkeepers and it was resulted that psychological skills as important, but rarely used them to enhance performance. Goalkeepers scored higher on both the personal coping resource score and confidence than non-goalkeepers on the personal coping resource score and confidence. Moreover, the relationship between personal coping resource and confidence scores showed a significant correlation exists. This study indicates goalkeepers possess a different set of psychological skills and confidence level than their counterparts. In the light of these results it can be concluded that psychological skills have distinction features in relationship with coaching competence, sportsmanship and performance efficacy in team sports.

Secondly, it was hypothesized that sportsmanship (moral values, competence values and status values) will mediate the relationship between psychological skills and performance efficacy in hockey players. Direct effect showed that perceived psychological support was found to be significant positive predictor of sportsmanship for hockey players. Sportsmanship was found to be significant positive predictor of performance efficacy. Results of indirect showed that sportsmanship was found to be significant mediator between perceived psychological support and performance efficacy for hockey players. These results were supported by a research where at least four individual difference factors have been studied in relation to youths' moral functioning in sport. First, social perspective taking has been implicated in the expression of moral thoughts and prosocial behaviors. Second, youths' moral emotions and emotional regulation skills affect youths' moral judgments and actions during moral dilemmas. Third, moral disengagement occurs when individuals switch off their moral standards and disconnect themselves psychologically and emotionally from the right thing to do. Fourth, moral identity is defined as the extent to which being a moral person is central to self-concept. Taken together, children's and teenagers' cognitive maturity and self-regulatory skills influence their moral reasoning and pro-social behaviors (Clough & Strycharczyk, 2012).

On a broader spectrum, the importance of sportsmanship can be highlighted with variables and it can be claimed that there is a significant role of sportsmanship in the lives of team sports players (Deuster & Silverman, 2013). It was investigated in another study whether achievement goals have differential effect on sportsmanship orientations in competitive sport and it was found that all achievement goals were significant predictors of sportsmanship orientations. On the other hand, the interpersonal relations tend to have a significant role towards sportsmanship as a study investigating the

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mediating role of interpersonal relations between intrinsic motivation and sportsmanship on players resulted that self-concept of interpersonal relations mediated the relation between intrinsic motivation and sportsmanship. Also, intrinsic motivation was directly and positively associated with self-concept of interpersonal relations, which, in turn, was positively and significantly related to sportsmanship (Yoosefi & Bahrami, 2012). Scanlan, Russell, Magyar and Scanlan (2009) examined the relations among students' perceptions of motivational climate, sportsmanship attitudes, and attitudes toward content and teachers in physical education and it was found that perceived mastery climate is a predictor of students' attitudes toward teacher and content and positive sportsmanship attitudes. In contrast, perceived performance climate was not a predictor or mainly predicted negatively the students' attitudes toward the physical education teacher, content, and sportsmanship attitudes.

Conclusions

Researchers are of the view that physical and technical abilities when accompanied with psychological and behavioral characteristics especially winning attitude and high morale, may enhance international players' performance manifold. Players are required to address all those factors that are essential for successful sporting performance not only physical but also psychological (Mahoney et al., 2014). Including psychology in day to day life, competitions can help players to constrain from choking vulnerable situations. Lack of psychological skills can directly convert a champion into a world of losers as such skills can assist help players to tackle choking situations in a batter way (Dweck, 2012). Finally, it has been recommended that different psychological skills are needed to inhibit players from decreasing their performance under pressure in their relevant fields. Moreover, the importance of self-talk and self-confidence must be enhanced by improving positive thinking and diminishing the negative thoughts and eventually enabling players to morally and ethically perform by depicting heightened level of sportsmanship (Sheard et al., 2009).

Limitations

There are several limitations encountered while conducting this study

1. The major limitation was the inclusion of only hockey players as team sports players and other team sports players didn't take part in this study.
2. The sample was collected only from different cities of Punjab and other hockey players from other provinces were not approached.
3. Only male hockey players within the age range of 15 to 50 years participated, thus limited the generalizability of current study.

4. Use of self-report measures without considering the behavioral observations for the operationalization of various constructs of this research might have introduced common method variance which might lead to certain compromises in the validity of measurement of these constructs.

Strengths

The strengths of the current study were:

1. Hockey players were approached from only registered clubs and academies under the platform of Pakistan Hockey Federation (PHF).
2. These results can be helpful for initiating awareness in hockey players on psychological skills training programs.

Recommendations

Some useful suggestions to make the study more better are as follows:

1. Alternative sampling and data collection strategies might be needed to avoid sampling biases which affect the results of the study and random multi-stage sampling is suggested to use in further studies to avoid sampling bias.
2. Future research must be conducted for assessing psychological skills, sportsmanship and performance efficacy including players other than hockey as well.
3. Future researches should inquire family related demographics i.e. family system, number of siblings, socioeconomic status etc. as they might have a significant influence on overall performance efficacy of hockey players related to psychological skill and sportsmanship.
4. Most importantly, hockey management and high officials may also be approached in future for obtaining maximum information regarding psychological skills of players along with sportsmanship and performance efficacy.

Implications

The implications of the current study are as under:

1. Psychological skills training programs can be initiated in the light of results of current study and there can be interactive panel discussion including hockey players and coaches for better mutual understanding.
2. Awareness seminars might be conducted for increasing the knowledge of players on psychological skills and both players and coaches can interact about the impact of their psychological skills and sportsmanship of on their performance efficacy.

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3. This study lays the groundwork for more research to be conducted on performance efficacy of hockey players in relation to different unique and significant factors other than psychological skills, sportsmanship. However, current study variables can be explored in different ways as well.

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