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China’s Involvement in Afghanistan Since 2014: Opportunities and Challenges

Mokhtar Ahmad Ahmadzai and Hashmat Ullah Khan
School of International and Public Affairs, Jilin University China

Afghanistan is facing terrorism and serious law and order situation, which is a severe concern to China. Beijing has strategic, economic, and political interests in this neighbouring country. China, the emerging power, and peacefully rising state needs peace and stability in its neighbourhood. A peaceful and stable Afghanistan is required for China's rise and fulfilling the "Chinese Dream". The U.S withdrawal has created both opportunities and challenges for China. This study mainly focuses on the question "why China has enlarged its level of involvement in Afghanistan since 2014? what are the opportunities China has and the challenges China has been faced?" Since 2014 China is following four points approach in its foreign policy towards Afghanistan. First, working to bring peace; second, develop its economy; third, strengthen governance and fourth, acquire international support. It has also emerged as the largest foreign investor in Afghanistan. China is struggling on humanitarian base and contributing to the rebuilding of the conflict-ridden state. This study is an attempt to know about China's involvement in Afghanistan since 2014 and highlights the opportunities both the countries have and strive to know about the challenges faced.

**Keywords**: China, Afghanistan, U.S. withdrawal, terrorism.

Afghanistan is China's immediate neighbour shares 76km borer. Both countries are enjoying good friendly relations based on mutual respect and understanding. A significant feature of their relationship is that China and Afghanistan have no political or ideological differences (Hsiung, 2009). They also never faced any political differences in past (Ng, 2010). As concerned the 9/11 event and the downfall of the Taliban regime, and restoration of legitimate govt. Beijing restored immediately her diplomatic ties with the new Afghanistan's government which were stopped when Taliban captured the Kabul (Kley, 2006). Since that time Afghanistan and China relationship improved. Political leaders of both the respective countries are regularly visiting each other states. The Ex-presidents of Afghanistan, Mr. Karzai and Mr. Ashraf Ghan's first official visits to Beijing showed the rising recognition of the significance of their bilateral relationship for each other. This is also a sign of Beijing's role in Afghan affairs in the current scenario (Bashardost, 2019). Although PRC is Afghanistan's neighbour, strategic partner, and a major external direct investor, Beijing is keeping a low-profile overall in Afghanistan compared to other regional players (Wishnick, 2014). As concerned China's policy in this regard, she considers that Afghanistan should not go again into the hand of the Taliban, which will destroy China's relations and her ongoing projects in Afghanistan like Ainak
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projects etc. China is following a four tiers policy in Afghanistan since 2014. First, protecting security and stability; second, improving its economic system; third, strengthening governance and respecting the right of Afghans to decide their future; and fourth, acquiring a soft image in the international community (Huasheng, 2012).

China's Involvement in Afghanistan in the Post-2014 Era

The foreign policy of Beijing is based on five principles, among which the most important are the peaceful coexistence and non-intervention in the domestic affairs of other sovereign countries. Chinese foreign policy towards Afghanistan and her involvement in Afghanistan in the post-2014 era is also based on these principles of non-intervention in domestic affairs and respect for sovereignty. In the post-2014 era, the involvement of China in Afghanistan can be divided broadly into six aspects. First, assisting Afghanistan in building various major schemes to strengthen public welfare and advance the living standards of the citizens of Afghanistan. Second, encouraged different companies of China to invest in Afghanistan to improve the independent growth capability of Afghanistan. Third, providing training facilities to professionals of various departments of Afghanistan to assist the state institutions and strengthen governance. Fourth, assisting the "Afghan Own and Afghan Based" peace process among the stakeholders in Afghanistan to play a positive role in bringing peace in the country. Fifth, helping Kabul to strengthen her relations with neighbour’s states in order to integrate Afghanistan into the regional integration and cooperation process. Six, provide financial aid to Kabul as it faces financial problems to shield it from collapse.

In the month of February 2014, Mr. Wang Yi, the Foreign Minister of China, visited Afghanistan and during his meeting with his counterpart, ensured China backing for Kabul in achieving smooth and sound political, economic and security transitions. After that, in July 2014, China had appointed Sun Yuxi as her first special envoy to Afghanistan, an experienced diplomat in Afghan affairs (Iqbal, 2016).

The country is facing insecurity, which also endangered its neighbours, including China and international peace and security. China being a good neighbour of Afghanistan and a responsible global power is playing a perfect and critical role in Afghanistan's peace process as a moderator and negotiator, particularly in the post-2014 era. Beijing needed to enlarge its involvement in the post-withdrawal era. China has numerous advantages that other mediating powers are lacking, making her a good player to break the deadlock in Afghanistan's conflicts and playing the role of "honest broker". China has never interfered in any conflict there nor sided with any faction, thus have no adverse memories. China has a comparatively positive image in Afghanistan. The role of China has been appreciated by all stakeholders and even by many worthy international organizations. China has also convinced Pakistan to help the peace process.

In the post-2014 era People's Republic of China is providing aid to Afghanistan on humanitarian-basis and also taking an active part in the rebuilding of this war effected, war-torn and fragile country. On October 28, 2014, China and Afghanistan issued a joint statement that the two countries would continue to deepen the Sino-Afghan strategic and cooperative relationship and fortify their collaboration in the economic, political, cultural and defence fields, and cooperation in regional and global affairs in this new period
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(Ministry of Foreign Affairs). In 2014, The Chinese government had provided Afghanistan an aid of 81.7 million dollars and another package of 245 million dollars in the following three years. In addition, China trained 3,000 specialists and experts in mining, medicine, agriculture, education, and other fields for Afghanistan and provided 500 Chinese government scholarships to Afghani students. On the other hand, from 2001 to 2013, the total aid from China to Afghanistan was about 326.7 million dollars, so this expansion of aid was a major adjustment in policy (Yongbiao, 2018). Moreover, China has provided professional training to 800 different officials of Afghanistan and also offered and still offering comprehensive technical trainings to local Afghani People in various sectors. China also trained 300 officials of Afghanistan’s police and provided 480 million-yuan aid to the Afghan security forces (Bashardost, 2019). Moreover, during newly elected Afghan President Ashraf Ghani’s visit to China on 31st October 2014, China Premier Li Keqiang pledged an additional US$244 million in aid in the next three years, as well as offered training programs and scholarships for students (Ludwig, 2015). Moreover, China has also built a teaching building, auditorium and a hostel at Kabul University, the national vocational training center, highway from Kunduz to Jalalabad, repaired the highway from Kabul to Jallalabad and Samangan to Bamiyan and custom office on Torkham. China also provided 309 million dollars to the housing scheme composed of the building of 10,000 apartments in city of Kabul, for the families of the army and police officials who are killed in service while the remaining would be given to the other government officers (Iqbal, 2016). In November 2015 during his visit to Afghanistan the voice president of People’s Republic of China offered 1,500 more scholarships to Afghani students to get higher education (Panda, 2014). In the year 2017, People’s Republic of China provided 90 million dollars to different developmental projects of the Badakhshan province alone. Apart from these the CTE and Huawei companies are also working on the development of optical fiber national grid. Kabul is also one of the beneficiaries of China’s opening policy. As friendly neighbours, China and Afghanistan are increasing policy coordination, trade, connectivity and economic integration. According to the Afghanistan Ministry of Defense, a new military base is constructed in the province of Badakhshan by the China economic aid. In addition to this China has also funded a mountain brigade situated in this Badakhshan near the border (Ramachandran, 2018).

China sees Afghanistan as an important trading partner. China-Afghanistan bilateral trade is enhancing every year (Table 1). China has made special contributions to economic and trade development of Afghanistan, for example about 300 kinds of agricultural products exempted from tariffs. At present, China is an important trade partner of Afghanistan, the second-largest investor in Afghanistan, the second-largest importer, and the fifth-largest export market.

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<th>Year</th>
<th>Bilateral trade volume</th>
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<tr>
<td>2013</td>
<td>33785</td>
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<td>2014</td>
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<td>2015</td>
<td>37359</td>
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The China-Afghanistan bilateral trade volume has got increased in the post-2014 era and both countries continue to display a tendency toward more trade and economic exchanges. China imports are increasing from Afghanistan since the China-Afghanistan financial relations have increased and gotten stronger in recent years. The Sino-Afghan Air Corridor was also opened in the month of November 2018 to strengthen trade between the two states. Kabul is looking for to export pine nuts, which demand has increased many folds in the market of China after opening this air corridor. It is estimated that this air corridor will empower Kabul to export 23,000 tons of pine nuts annually to the market of China, while expensive stones and saffron are also exported to China through this new trade corridor. China is one of the most important trade partners of Afghanistan. Their bilateral trade volume reached to 544 million dollars in 2018 (Zia, 2019). China has exempted Kabul from tax imports on 278 items and has deepened its economic relationship (Bashardost, 2019).

### China’s Post-2014 Interests in Afghanistan

Afghanistan has exceptional and huge importance in the geostrategic calculus of People’s the Republic of China. The geopolitics of China neighbourhood has four obvious peculiarities, i.e., strategic, political, economic and geographical. In the quickly changing international security milieu, these aspects demand a more profound collaboration not only between Beijing and Kabul but also seriously need regional integration and close cooperation of all regional states excited for regional stability, peace and harmony built on mutual respect and esteem. In the post-2014 U.S scenario, productive engagement with Kabul is assisting the Beijing strategic, political, financial interests as well as will guarantee Chinese internal security safeties. Afghanistan is providing China the shortest transportation route for getting benefits from the mineral and energy resources of Afghanistan as well as the Central Asian Republics (CARs) and its Caucus. While Kabul is also looking towards the People’s Republic of China for a key role in the economic development as well as in the restoring peace and stability in Afghanistan. On the other hand, China also looks to be approaching for playing a constructive role in contemporary Afghanistan.

Both the countries are looking forward to political stability because it is pre-requisite for their interests. It is a mutual interest about which both the countries share the same sentiment of understanding. China needs political stability in Afghanistan mainly for its own security, protection of her huge investment in the country, and also for the security and smooth progress of her investments in South and Central Asian countries as well as for the BRI project. If there would no stability in Afghanistan, it would not negatively affect Chinese interests in the country only but in the whole region. On the other hand, Afghanistan is in urgent needs of political stability because it is of critical importance for both peace and its economic development in the country.

China has three main interests and concerns in Afghanistan, two of which would require a long-term U.S. and NATO presence. First, ensuring the stability of Xinjiang by
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preventing the spread of extremism, separatism and terrorism from Afghanistan; second, developing economic and trade links, including obtaining projects of natural resources exploration; and third, limiting the growing influence of India and the United States (Ludwig, 2015), in Afghanistan as well as in the whole region. The presence of the United States, either alone or along with NATO and ISAF-Afghanistan helps to keep the first problem at bay and establishes enough stability to allow China to pursue the second. Only the third interest could be done if the United States withdraw. Davood Moradiyan of Afghanistan Institute for Strategic Studies Kabul says that Beijing does not want Taliban authority in Afghanistan and is also worried about the vacuum that would be created in the post U.S withdrawal era which the Taliban might fill, while China also does not want the stay of the United States forces in its immediate neighbourhood (Khan, 2015). It is clear, China is not going to jump into Afghanistan after U.S withdrawal, but however, it is likely that China has increased its involvement in Afghanistan. China wishes that Afghanistan may not be used against her. She has also economic interests in Afghanistan. Therefore, interested in the stability of Afghanistan.

Western Withdrawal Plan and China’s Policy Adjustment

After Barak Obama election as the U.S. president in 2009 he initiated to bring some changes in his Afghan policy and on June 22, 2011, he had announced the withdrawal of U.S. troops from Afghanistan by December 2014. This announcement compelled China as well as other regional countries to revisit their foreign policies towards Afghanistan. The United States set up a schedule to hand over the charge of security to Afghan National Army by 2014, and the process is still underway to decrease the number of U.S. troops in Afghanistan. Before this on June 18, 2013, North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) handed-over the security to Afghanistan’s National Army and the ISAF Forces also officially handed-over the control of 95 districts to Afghan security forces. The United States had a plan of keeping 13,000 troops for the maintenance of security and training of Afghan forces which will be available on the call of the Afghanistan army till 2024. Since 2001 the United States lost the lives of more than 2300 of its soldiers, 19,000 injured and spent 650 billion dollars in Afghan war (Afridi and Afridi, 2015), but still peace is a dream. Mainly due to its geo-political and strategic location and power politics of big powers in the region, Afghanistan has been subjected since long to foreign attacks, and proxy wars quite often. Infect it is the Afghanistan’s geo-political and geo-strategic location which attracted big powers from Alexander to USSR and now the United States.

The US withdrawal is leading to change the whole landscape of the Afghanistan issue and its impacts on regional peace, security and stability as well as relations of Afghanistan with neighbouring countries including China. The US and NATO withdrawal created clashes among different ethnic and political groups trying for maximizing their power and share in Kabul which led to serious political instability. Therefore, every regional state including China gave special place in its foreign policy towards Afghanistan after the announcement of withdrawal. The withdrawal is creating both vacuum as well as security dilemma which matter a lot for China. The American military presence in Afghanistan is the part of a broader strategy to contain China. China wants that U.S. withdraw from Afghanistan but does not want to withdraw without restoring peace and stability because in such a situation it will become a direct threat to
neighbouring countries. As concerned Chinese involvement in Afghanistan in the post-2014 era on October 28, 2014, President Xi Jinping during his meeting with Afghan President Ashraf Ghani at the Great Hall he emphasized that Afghanistan is now undergoing the triple-transition in politics, security and economy, and China supports Afghanistan in safeguarding national independence, sovereignty and territorial integrity as well as the reconciliation process featured "Afghan-led and Afghan-owned". In accordance with policy On October 31, 2014, China hosted the 4th Foreign Ministerial Conference of the Istanbul Process on Afghanistan which was the first international conference on Afghanistan after the establishment of the new Afghan government. Ministers and senior representatives of all member states and supporters of the Istanbul Process, including 14 member states in the region, sixteen extra regional countries, 12 regional and international organizations and four guests from the host state, attended this conference (Yongbiao, 2018). It was the first time that China hosted a major international conference on Afghanistan, which was sign of China’s more active participation in Afghan affairs. Since 2014, China has become actively involved in Afghan affairs. In Afghanistan, China is continuously improving her soft image which is showing that China’s interests are different from the interests of U.S. and other Western countries. US and her allies in Afghanistan planned to eradicate Taliban and install such a government in Kabul who would serve their interests in better way. While on the other hand, China is struggling on humanitarian bases and contributing positively to the rebuilding of war affected state. In fact, there are several horizons where the interests of both China and Afghanistan are similar and where they could find many new supportive prospects and opportunities (Ziegler, 2006). In the post 2014 period Beijing upholds a good aid set in Afghanistan and cooperating in copper mining, oil and gas exploration and communications development. China is mostly involved economically. Her investments in Afghanistan increased many folds and became the largest investor in Afghanistan. Such role playing by China in Afghanistan is fundamental for restoring peace and security in the state as poverty and lack of economic opportunities lead to conflicts and anarchy, and this is the core reason of terrorism in Afghanistan as terrorist organizations can easily get manpower for themselves.

China desires a peaceful and stable Afghanistan and wants to develop durable partnership with Kabul. The United States is claiming that China is getting benefits in Afghanistan at the expense of the United States and her allies and calls China a free rider. But China has a wider viewpoint because whoever get victory there will essentially need of foreign investments, peace process, stability, institutions building, capacity building and economic development for the durable solution of Afghan issue and China is contributing to all these fields since 2014 positively. Chinese help and support in the above-mentioned areas along with prospects for peace and political stability in Afghanistan also has direct prospects for people of Afghanistan because they are suffered a lot from war and instability. This is providing leverage to China in Afghanistan over the United States and other Western powers.

Opportunities

China’s involvement in the post-2014 era in Afghanistan has created many opportunities for both the states. China’s fundamental policy emphasizes is building a good partnership with neighbouring countries, focusing on creating an amicable, secure,
and prosperous neighbourhood and featuring amity, sincerity, mutual benefit, and inclusiveness. Being neighbours China and Afghanistan relationship become increasingly very significant for each other particularly in the post-2014 era. The U.S. withdrawal has created many opportunities. At present China is playing an important role in economic development of Afghanistan which is pre-requisite for peace, stability and prosperity in a war turned country as continuous war since many decades deteriorated the whole country. Currently several Chinese firms are engaged in different developments projects in this country. The Chinese huge economic investment is a key aspect in restoring peace, prosperity, and stability. It is evident that economic development and prosperity of people directly affecting peace, security and political stability in war affected countries like Afghanistan. Beijing has many economic interests and China has leverage over other stake holder players due to its soft image in Afghanistan as well as five principles of peaceful coexistence. Chinese approach is different from U.S. and her allies. U.S. and her allies say that peace can bring economic development and prosperity in Afghanistan while China has of the opinion that economic development can probably bring peace, stability, and prosperity in Afghanistan. For any emerging power like China creation of soft image is very important especially in the neighbourhood. It helps to build smooth, good, and mutually beneficial relations with other countries. China is a soft power not like the United States. Beijing believes on peaceful coexistence, non-interference in the internal affairs of neighbours and mutually beneficial cooperation which are helpful in soft image creation of China. Mostly in Afghanistan she is engaged in developmental projects, investments in natural resources, capacity building programs, peace process and above all avoided to alignment with any specific fiction or group. Through this way and means China has built her soft image in Afghanistan.

China has also included Afghanistan in Asian Infrastructure Investment Bank in March 2017, which was established in 2013 by Chinese President Mr. Xi Jinping. It has more than sixty member countries. Afghanistan's membership in this bank opened a new phase for rapid economic development.

In the post-2014 era China and Afghanistan have established dynamically good relationship. China’s support is necessary not only to make Afghanistan and stable country but also to decrease its dependence on US and West. An important aspect of China involvement in Afghanistan is that she had never any ideological or political conflicts with Afghanistan, which provide her a unique and special privilege, not available to those states which are fighting to bring stability, peace, and democracy for their vested interests in Afghanistan. China is rare among the other players as she is not and was never close to any group of the conflict and power struggle. All concerned parties in Afghanistan are pleased to see China expanded involvement and role in the country. Beijing has balanced relations with almost all political groups as Beijing never supported or favoured any specific faction or group against the other; a policy towards Afghanistan that must be learnt by other from People’s Republic of China. The post withdrawal era is a best time for both Afghanistan and China to open a new chapter in their mutual relationship. The troops of the United States and other allies are quickly withdrawing from the Afghanistan and leaving behind an extensive vacuum in the country. These developments inside Afghanistan are making sense for China to step-up
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adeepen working partnership with Kabul (Panda, 2014).

With the deepening of China’s understanding of the Afghanistan issue and the enhancement of China’s interests there, she is more actively involved in Afghan affairs. This thing is also proved by the statistics of academic publications in China. According to the China National Knowledge Infrastructure database, the number of Chinese academic papers, newspaper articles, and academic dissertations on Afghanistan increased between 1998 and 2016 (Table 2). This reflects the increasing China’s concern and understanding of the issue of Afghanistan. The year-wise increasing number of publications in China regarding Afghanistan is showing her increasing interests and concerns. It shows the increasing importance and concern of Afghan affairs in China.

Table 2
Papers/Articles on Afghanistan in China by Year, 1998-2016.

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Prospects of Chinese Foreign Direct Investment in Afghanistan

U.S. geological survey shows that Afghanistan is blessed with different natural resources of total one trillion dollars which are including 1.6 billion barrels oil and sixteen trillion cubic feet gas and 240 million tons Copper (Ross, Trombly & Barr, 2014). Apart from these Afghanistan is lucky to have largest unexplored reserves of iron, marble, coal, metals, precious gemstones lithium, cobalt, mercury, gold, lithium, thorium, chromite, potash, graphite, sulfur, asbestos, shingle and above all hydrocarbons found in about 20 areas, some of them are explored while larger number of them are still unexplored, due to terrorism, law and order situation and the unending conflict. When the sites of these natural resources opened for international investors in 2007 then People’s Republic of China showed her keen interest in the exploration of these reservoirs. The biggest opportunity in the post-2014 era both for China and Afghanistan is the role of China in the economic development of Afghanistan as economic development is key for bring peace and durable stability in Afghanistan. Afghanistan needs foreign investment in exploration of these resources and in many other areas. At present China is investing in Afghanistan in projects related to mining, exploration of natural resources and infrastructure development. So far, China has invested 4.4 billion dollars through its many firms mainly Metallurgical Corporation of China (MCC) and Jiangxi Copper Corporation (JCCL). Estimates of its Iron reservoirs are 421 billion dollars (Khan, 2015). Furthermore, in the North of the country the hydrocarbon rich Amu Darya basin is situated. The Aynak field, discovered in 1974 and surveyed by Soviet Union geologists in 1979, but not ever excavated. It is estimated that it holds 88 billion dollars copper reservoirs and estimated to contribute minimum 250 million dollars and may be more in taxes paid to Afghanistan by China depending on the market price of copper (Ludwig,
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2015). Since 2007 when Afghanistan’s government opened its reservoirs for foreign investors China is taking active part in investment. According to Daily Outlook Afghanistan, People’s Republic of China is the largest investor in Afghanistan (Daiyar, 2009). In this regard the most important Chinese projects are the Aynak copper field and Amu Daria oil and gas projects. At present, China is working on Aynak Copper project worth of 3.5 billion dollars through its Metallurgical Corporation Company for the period of 30 years which is the biggest FDI throughout the Afghanistan’s history. Its income to Afghanistan is expected to be 45% of country’s total budget (Bukhari, 2012). Infrastructure projects, such as power plants and railway tracts construction are also included. It is estimated that it will produce revenue more than all other projects of Afghanistan (Torjesen, 2010). Statistics show that this site has reservoirs of approximately $88 billion. The total volume of this project is 20 percent of all FDI Afghanistan since 2001 (Bukhari, 2012). This project is generating 4000 direct jobs for Afghani citizens and will produce about eleven million tons copper in the next twenty-five years. The MCC also signed another agreement regarding Aynak project to build rail track from the North of Pakistan via Aynak and Kabul to South of Uzbekistan (Wines, 2009). Another important point in this regard is that the success of this project will increase more the Foreign Direct Investment of Afghanistan. Chinese corporations will find a leverage in comparison with other corporations. Along with this project a 400 Mega Watt power plant is also constructing by China as well as water exploration and water purification plant for the people of the area. The MCC company is also constructing roads, schools and mosques in region.

The project to explore three oil fields in Amu Darrya River Basin is also pursuing by China National Petroleum Corporation which is for a period of twenty-five years. Its contract was signed in December 2011. It is the first oil producing project in Afghanistan. Its survey estimated that these oil fields contain reservoirs of about eighty-seven million barrels. CNPC is investing 400 million dollars in exploring oil in Amu Dara River Basin and the estimates show that this project is going to generate 7 billion dollars revenue for the war effected and fragile Afghanistan. It is decided in the agreement that China will pay Afghan government 20 percent tax on revenue, 15% royalty and 70% of revenue on income. It is estimated that annually 304.35 million dollars will give this project to government of Afghanistan and total 7 billion dollars in the whole 25 years period of the contract (Tahiri, 2017). Apart from this the Alluvial iron reservoirs are also abundant, and the Haji Gaak and nearby mines are estimated to contain about 2,260 million metric tons steel with marks advanced than 62 heaviness out of a hundred iron (Tahiri, 2017). This is another very good opportunity for China to invest as well as also for Afghanistan because it will generate huge amount of revenue for economically very weak Afghanistan.

The Foreign Direct Investment and exploration of natural resources is offering another platform to China to increase its involvement in Afghanistan in post-2014 era. Moreover, by providing jobs to Afghani people in these mines and oil exploration projects, China is helping the Afghan government in bringing peace in the country because jobless mob is more luckily to join terrorist organizations. By developing natural resources in the country further expand her economic relations with Kabul and to some
extent can fulfill the growing demand of her fast-rising industrial sector. Along with this, these resources exploration including oil, gas and copper etc. is going to provide huge amount of revenue to the government of Afghanistan and it is playing very positive role in improving the condition of its war affected and fragile society. The economic support and assistance of China is not required only to boost up already exhausted economy of Afghanistan but also necessary to decrease it depend on U.S. and Western aid. Afghanistan is a very weak and underdeveloped state with life-threatening poverty, joblessness and poor infrastructure. Currently, about 90 % of its annual budget is founded by foreign aid, where these Chinese projects are blessing for Afghanistan. Since the establishment of political government in Kabul after 9/11, China appeared as a key player in the rebuilding of war turned society.

China is working for supporting the exhausted economy of Afghanistan. Her struggles in Afghanistan are improving the living standard of its citizens and trying to end the extended war. She is also financing profusely the infrastructure projects in Afghanistan. This large-scale economic investment of China is a key aspect in restoring peace, prosperity and stability in Afghanistan. Chinese helps in improving the economy of Afghanistan is playing a significant function in reducing the opportunities and motivations of extremist and terrorist movements. Given the fact that fundamentalism can be reduced using the economic program, this is predictable, because a large part of the ominous movements in Afghanistan are due to the lack of job opportunities and economic insufficiencies. Afghanistan is the country that has the highest unemployment among youth. Andrew Small, a United States based Chinese expert, says “China is the only player who can foot the level of investment needed in Afghanistan to make it succeed and stick it out”. Afghan officials as well as its common People also duly acknowledge Chinese help and support. In a meeting with Yang Jiechi the Foreign Minister of China, Hamid Karzai the then president of Afghanistan said that Afghanistan highly appreciates and is proudful of being friend of China. He also paid cordial thanks to China for her help, assistance, and support in bringing peace and aid for rebuilding (Bukhari, 2012). In the upcoming years, the two-sided collaboration would rise and would make favourable environment for cooperation in different areas of mutual interests. These ties would be helpful in elimination of terrorism. Beijing is playing a dynamic role for restoring stability and peace not only in Afghanistan but in the whole region.

China considers that terrorism has socio-economic causes. To eradicate terrorism, it is necessary to remove its socio-economic causes. Joblessness, lack of economic opportunities and poverty are some of the main causes of terrorism in Afghanistan. It is evident that many people are joining terrorist and militant organizations due to joblessness and economic burden of their family. China is one of the big foreign investors in Afghanistan which is creating thousands of jobs and other economic opportunities. Her investments are considered very important for political and economic stability in the country. It is a key aspect in restoring peace, prosperity and stability. The investments in Aynak Copper project and Amu Darya oil fields creating thousands of jobs for local people. It is sure that jobs creation and economic opportunities are helpful in political stability and elimination of militancy and terrorism in different parts of the world. The study of Bhatia and Ghanem (2017) says that lack of enough job opportunities is fuelling extremism and terrorism. The report issued by Combating Terrorism Center in
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2016 about 4,600 Daesh foreign fighters in Middle East and North Africa also shows that majority of them were failed to secure jobs. People without job have the highest probability to became extremist. Likewise, Taspinar (2009) study also says that economic development is an important counter-terrorism narrative. Adelaja and George (2020) used panel data of different countries and their results show positive correlation between joblessness and terrorism. Moreover, Keita (2015) study argued that unemployment is directly linked with terrorism in African country Mali. Izzi (2020) studied different causes of terrorism in Africa. This study argues that among other the lack of employments for youth making them vulnerable to terrorist organizations which are offering them money and provision of employment opportunities protecting them from joining terrorist organizations.

Jobs Opportunities Created by Chinese Projects

There is a wide rage unemployment throughout the country and even among the employed about 80 % is insecure. Nearly 3 quarters of the total population is under the age of 30 years. This huge youth population of around 8 million is entering the labour market with no or very low education while there is very few employment opportunities. The poor security environment due to continuous war creation of job opportunities and are incapable to keep-up with population growth rate. As China in the largest foreign investor in Afghanistan therefore a lot of jobs are created by Chinese projects for local People. Only the Aynak project is going to generate 4,000 direct jobs and the World Bank estimated that it could create further 7,600 indirect and 62,500 induced jobs (Iqbal, 2016). Likewise, 7,000 jobs are creating by the Amu Daria oil and gas projects for local People and many more indirect jobs. This is a very good sign for war-turned Afghanistan and especially eradication of terrorism from the country. As Afghanistan is facing highest unemployment therefore youth is easily available for the recruitment of terrorist organization. In its projects China is mainly employing local citizens and indirectly through this employment, she is providing for improving the structure of war-turned state. It is because that People’s Republic of China desires to prevent local people from going to involve in any type of illegal activities.

Wakhan Corridor as the New Eurasian Land Bridge

Wakhan Corridor lies near to the Chines city of Kashger. According to the Ambassador of the Islamic Republic of Afghanistan to the People’s Republic of China, that Government of Afghanistan has requested Beijing to open this Wakhan corridor. If opened, then surely the citizens of Afghanistan will get a lot of benefit from this route. Therefore, it is proposed to Chinese government to construct a road, and even a railway track through this way to connect Afghanistan with China. In October 2014 Afghan President Mr. Ashraf Ghani during his official visit to China also proposed to his counterpart President Mr. Xi Jinping that we should work to construct a transportation link through Wakhan Corridor (Panda, 2014).
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Figure 1: Map Showing Wahan Corridor.

Lapis Lazuli Corridor

Another very good opportunity is the Lapis Lazuli Corridor. Afghan President Ashraf Ghani inaugurated this corridor in the Herat province of Afghanistan in December 2017 to boost up trade in the whole region. The Agreement of Lapis Lazuli corridor was signed on the sideline of the Regional Economic Cooperation Conference on Afghanistan (RECCA-VII) in November 2017, aimed of increase trade, strengthen economic relations and connectivity in this region. Afghanistan is a gateway to Europe and Caucasus and the Lapis Lazuli route links Afghanistan to Europe via Turkmenistan, Azerbaijan, Georgia and Turkey and serves as a good rout for international trade among states of Central Asia, South Asia and Europe. It is very significant Corridor for China also who is the largest exporter to the connecting countries by this corridor. It is leading for realizing wide-range growth through transit trade (Zia, 2019).

OBOR Initiative and Afghanistan

In the present international system, it looks that the epicenter of global economy is changing to Asia from West due to the rise of China. Thus, the rise of China become the main concern for Western countries particularly the United States. Since the launching of One Belt, One Road Initiative, Afghanistan has repeatedly expressed interest in the China-Pakistan Economic Corridor (CPEC), which is reasonable. Afghanistan needs massive investment to promote economic growth, and its unique strategic location provides the possibility for it to play a bigger role in the Silk Road Economic Belt. In this regard, Afghanistan can provide China one of shortest and easiest passage road to Central Asian and European markets and can better facilitate the BRI project which is win-win opportunity. Moreover, China needs markets for its exports while also require energy imports. Here, Afghanistan is a good market for both commodity consumption and China's energy security, because in Afghanistan there are a lot of energy resources. On the other hand, Afghanistan importing a large amount of its consumer goods from China through passing the second or third country. If Afghanistan gains the One Belt One Road project, this will be most important for communication and economic development. The main characteristic of this project is the regional integration.

Peace Process

Being the permanent members of the UN Security Council, China is taking responsibility very positively of international affairs. In a way, Afghanistan provides an opportunity for China to participate in international affairs. She is playing a very positive role in the peace process in Afghanistan and its active participation in the reconstruction
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and peace process is not only benefiting the people of Afghanistan, but also a very good opportunity to expand cooperation and even consensus with the US and other countries. Since 9/11, China and US relations have experienced a fundamental transition. Cooperation has become a key factor in bilateral relations. This thing also increased Chinese soft image in the hearts and minds of local Afghan people. They are acknowledging China positive role which is also beneficial for Chinese projects in Afghanistan as well as for overall relationship with Afghanistan. Her role is also appreciated both on local level as well as on international level. Actually, China has a wider viewpoint about the situation in Afghanistan because whoever get victory there will essentially need of foreign investments, peace process, stability, institutions building, capacity building and economic development for the durable solution of Afghan issue and China is contributing to all these fields since 2014 positively.

China-U.S. Cooperation on Afghan Issue

There are some disagreements regarding Afghanistan issue between China and US, but at the same time there are also common interests. Both countries want a stable Afghanistan, which is the most important point of consensus. China clearly showed its support to the United States. In a joint declaration with the United States president Barak Obama, the Prime Minister of China assured the Chinese support in Afghanistan, in order to counter extremism and terrorism and to ensure internal peace and security to advance sustainable economic, political and social development. China and the US have already started some cooperation on Afghanistan issue. For example, a few Afghan diplomats have been jointly trained by China and the US (Yongbiao, 2018). Also, Chinese investments in Afghanistan can be seen as valuable support for the US strategy in Afghanistan. After Ashraf Ghani’s visit to China and China’s declaration of $ 326.7 million in aid to Afghanistan, a senior official of the State Department of the United States said that the Washington praises China and welcomes it to play a larger role in the issue of Afghanistan. In many areas, China and the United States have conflict of concepts and ideas but in several areas, both the countries are collaborating also in Afghanistan. China is playing a productive role in the war effected state because it is a responsible rising power. The United States wish a stable and peaceful Afghanistan, and a stable peaceful Afghanistan is also in China’s interest. China’s main aim of growing role in this neighbouring country is the restoration of peace because including other effects of terrorism in Afghanistan on China she is facing the threats of spreading extremism and terrorism from Afghanistan as both the states share common border.

Challenges to China’s Involvement in Afghanistan

Along with opportunities China is also facing many underlaying challenges in Afghanistan. These challenges are of diverse nature, not only security related. Afghanistan has continued to be a battlefield for outside powers for the accomplishment of their strategic interests and wasted objectives. Due to geo-strategic location coupled with polar nature of Afghan society where ethnic groups are fighting for gaining power with the help of foreign powers have ruined the state and society in Afghanistan, destroyed its institutions, infrastructure, trade and its routes disrupted and dried-up the stream of labours and wealth. During and in the post-Soviet Union occupation anarchy prevailed in the state and ultimately the 9/11 event has given the opportunity to US,
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NATO and ISAF for the intervention, and ultimately withdrawal in the post-2014. In this circumstance since 2014 China-Afghanistan relationship established well, but there are still many underlaying problems and challenges primarily security which is creating problems for China to work smoothly. China is also facing many challenges in Afghanistan due to Western presence as well as terrorism. The main challenge in China and Afghanistan bilateral relations is the presence of US in Afghanistan which is the main competitor of China in regional as well as in global politics. The US forces in neighbouring Afghanistan is also a threat to China’s interests in region as well as her security and stability. US is countering China from Afghanistan. Moreover, terrorism, militancy, law and order situation, low economic profile of Afghanistan, weak institutions and disability of Afghanistan are some leading issues which are affecting China and Afghanistan relations and Chinese presence in the post 2014 scenario.

Security Dilemma

Security condition in Afghanistan is very bed. The UN Assistance Mission in Afghanistan recorded 3,812 civilian casualties in the first 6 months of this year, and about 1.1 million People are internally displaced due to war which clearly show the intensity of the situation in Afghanistan. Despite of 18 years continuous US led war on terror in Afghanistan the security situation is still very bed. This has also created many challenges to China’s involvement, relations with Afghanistan as well as the national security of China. Deteriorated security situation in Afghanistan has negative impacts on China directly and indirectly. The future of Afghanistan is also unpredictable. Terrorism in Afghanistan has also impacted on China’s western border region and any change in country have important effects on regional countries security. China’s investments also face increased risks. In the post withdrawal era different situations will arise, but the most hostile and dangerous one is the continuation of terrorism and worst law and order situation throughout Afghanistan. This anarchic and radical situation will lead to destabilize the whole region. In this country there are long-lasting stakes of neighbouring, regional and extra regional players in a peaceful and stable state of Afghanistan. In the post 2014 era it is also feared that destabilized Afghanistan will leading to worsen the issues of drag production and trafficking, increasing extremism, terrorism, militancy and violence not only in Afghanistan but in the whole region. This condition has also overwhelming negative effects on China and her investments in the country as well as on other neighbouring countries. Afghanistan provides many opportunities to China including access to natural resources, cross border trade routes, investments opportunities, infrastructure building and the chance to increase her worth in international affairs. All these are imaginable when there is peace and stability in the country after the United States Withdrawal. In the post withdrawal scenario, China needs to walk very carefully and cautiously in assuming any key duty or responsibility in Afghanistan. Yet it has plans to stay a bit away from wreck of the conflict, war and security vacuum. A good option for China is SCO to play role in the post withdrawal period. SCO has given the observer membership status to Afghanistan which is showing that Shanghai Cooperation Organization is getting preparation to assume a notable task in the post U.S withdrawal Afghanistan. Beijing also focuses on its efforts against drug-trafficking as that is a key source of funding to militant groups and poses a threat to public health in the region. In the post withdrawal era, it is feared that the drugs production will increase which will also affect China.
Worsening Security in Afghanistan Hamper Economic Cooperation

Maintaining security in Afghanistan is the biggest issue. The United Nations in its new report has claimed that the security situation in Afghanistan has recently been worsened, said that the conflicts between security forces and Taliban militants increasing day by day. It has recorded five-percent increase as compared to last year. The situation is getting worsened at a time that the security forces are facing a new terrorist front (the Daesh terrorist group) which has established bases in different mountainous regions in the country. In the post 2014 era international community including US are giving less attention to the security of Afghanistan, because their full attention is towards how to get safe way to withdraw their forces from Afghanistan. Afghan army and police are yet not capable to compete Taliban, Al-Qaeda as well as Daish. Paying attention to the empowerment and well training of the national army and police is not only the responsibility of the government, but it is also the work of international allies who have frequently promised to help the Afghan army. The US-led international coalition is well aware of the problems that Afghan army are police are facing but still they are paying less attention.

The in-depth study of Chinese policy shows that she is following the policy of harmonious world and this policy also aimed that China wants peace in whole world and particularly in her neighbourhood. She is doing economic cooperation with Afghanistan and is largest investing country in Afghanistan, but the security problems in Afghanistan put China in a difficult situation. The high frequency of terrorist activity in Afghanistan has frightened off Chinese companies and investments. On many occasions Chinese employees were attacked and kidnapped in Afghanistan in which many were killed and injured while pursuing the developmental projects and humanitarian activities. In the 11 years since the Aynak contract was signed in 2008, the project has made little progress, mainly due to the security problem. This project has been attacked 19 times so far and many China engineers and other workers faced direct threats, killed, injured and abductions. China National Petroleum Corporation working on Amu Daria oil and gas project, engineers and other employees also came under similar threats by insurgents.

Challenges in Peace Process

China is one of the main stake holders of peace process in Afghanistan. There are many underlying challenges she is facing being a facilitator of the peace process. The main challenge is the disagreement among militant groups itself. Likewise, the affiliation of terrorist organizations like Islamic Movement of Uzbekistan (IMU) with Islamic State of Iraq and Syria (ISIS) also making uncertainties about the future of peace-talks and possibilities of the political settlement between the government of Afghanistan and Taliban. China is working in a state of affairs where the jeopardies and risks attached with peace talks are very high, as only a group of Taliban participated in peace process and reached to an agreement while many other groups of Taliban as well as other militant groups are still not willing to come to the negotiation table. While keeping the troublesome ground reality in mind, the common Afghani people have high expectations from China. Muhammad Ismail Qasimyar who is adviser to the High Peace Council noted while expressed his hope that China could assist and help Afghanistan in winding up the ongoing fighting and war in the country by playing her worthy role in peace
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process. The High Peace Council considers China’s hard work in the reconciliation process as both productive and result oriented (Alizai, 2015). Unfortunately, this is a fact that the reconciliation process in Afghanistan is a too much complicated matter which is very tough to handle by anyone even including China. Afghanistan is a multi-dimensional and multi-ethnic country with several strong stakeholders in its current battle and peace process. All the players and stakeholders have different interests and goals and employing diverse tactics and approaches which lead the peace process to not any realistic approach. China because of her neutral foreign policy towards Afghanistan has gained the focus of several hopeful eyes. Though China is determined to strictly limit to being a peace process facilitator, not as the party to the conflict. It is for Afghanistan to bargain efficaciously with the Taliban and other fighting groups.

The Power Vacuum in Afghanistan

A power vacuum has been created as a result of the withdrawal of US and NATO troops from Afghanistan. This vacuum can also be filled by non-state actors mainly terrorists. If this issue is not managed after the withdrawal of US and its allies troops from Afghanistan, it will create an uncertain situation in Afghanistan as well as this will be a challenge for the security structure of the region. This issue will also surely pose challenges to China.

Power Struggle in Afghanistan in the Post-2014 Era

When foreign forces withdrew from Afghanistan, a new game for gaining power will begin amongst the great powers as well as regional players. This thing is not good for Chinese involvement in Afghanistan. it seems that in the near future the collaboration and close cooperation among big-powers and regional players is not evident. This condition is creating serious security challenges not only for the state of Afghanistan only but also for China, South Asia and Central Asia. On the other hand, peace and stability in Afghanistan have many positive impacts on the security of People’s Republic of China and its interests in the whole region. Thus, peace and insecurity became the common interest and common threat for both the states.

To summarize the main argument, in the post-2014 era instability in Afghanistan is a serious concern for China. Therefore, China increased her involvement in Afghan affairs which has created many opportunities and at the same time many underlaying challenges. The increased involvement improved the volume of bilateral trade, increased Chinese FDI in Afghanistan in infrastructure sector and exploration of natural resources, creating jobs and other economic opportunities for local people, increased aid, increased scholarship for Afghan students, inclusion of Afghanistan in BRI and CPEC, contribution to peace process and engagement with US. At the same time China is also facing many challenges in the post-2014 era. These challenges are worsening security situation, attacks on Chinese workers, ethnic and political challenges to the peace process, power struggle among different groups, ethnicities and regional players and the power vacuum created by US and NATO withdrawal.
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Conclusion
The US withdrawal plan has compelled China to rethink its Afghan policy. China involvement in Afghanistan become increasingly very significant for each other in the post-2014 era. The constructive engagement and relations of China with neighbouring countries including Afghanistan is based on Beijing’s foreign policy principles of peaceful coexistence, good neighbouring policy, win-win strategy and mutual benefit. China wants Afghanistan peaceful, developed, well-managed and run by Afghans themselves, there should be a political solution of the ongoing Afghan issue, and all stakeholders must contribute to rebuilding Afghanistan. The U.S withdrawal from Afghanistan created both opportunities and Challenges for regional countries especially big powers like China. Therefore, in the post-2014 era, China is primary foxing on bringing peace and stability to protect Afghanistan from again becoming an anarchic state because it will definitely affect China economic, political and strategic interests. The US and her allies in Afghanistan plan to eradicate the Taliban and install such a government in Kabul that could serve their interests better. While China is working on humanitarian basis and contributing to the rebuilding of this war-affected country. Presently, some Chinese firms are involved in numerous construction and economic projects of national importance in different areas of Afghanistan and China is also emerged being the largest foreign investor in Afghanistan mainly in mineral and energy sectors, which has very positive impacts on bringing peace, stability and prosperity in the war turned Afghanistan. She is assisting Afghanistan in building diverse major schemes to strengthen public welfare and advance the living standard of the citizens of Afghanistan, encouraged different companies of China to do investment in Afghanistan in order to improve the growth capability of Afghanistan, providing training facilities to professionals of various department of Afghanistan in order to assist Afghanistan’s institutions and improve governance, assisting “Afghan Own and Afghan Based” peace process, helping the government of Afghanistan to strengthen her relations with neighbours states and also provides economic aid to protect the government from collapse. These are the fundamentals for the solution of the Afghan issue. These types of help and assistance are more and more in line with the expectations of local inhabitants than the just deployment of troops. While working in Afghanistan Beijing is also sticks to the principles of non-interference in the internal affairs of sovereign states and un-conditional aid to weak countries. This policy and strategy of China determined a very good example for other big powers in this regard. Beijing is well-aware of all problems and realities and doing an effort with full enthusiasm to ensure regional peace and stability.

Recommendations
In the light of the detailed discussion on “China’s Involvement in Afghanistan since 2014,” the following recommendations are put forward for the improvement and making more beneficial the bilateral engagement, improve economic and security conditions of Afghanistan, eradicate terrorism, find a new market of about 38 million people to Chinese goods and regional integration.

Recommendations for China.
✓ In the post-withdrawal era Afghanistan needs to strengthen its institutions, economy, make strong security forces and economic aid to run the governmental operations.
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China should increase its help and assistance in the above-mentioned areas in order to make Afghanistan strong, stable and developed state.

- China should increase its aid, technical assistance, training facilities to Afghan officials, as now U.S. and NATO are giving less attention to these areas.
- One of the durable solutions of the Afghan issue in the post-withdrawal era is educating more and more the people of Afghanistan in order to make them capable to run Afghanistan. China should increase its role in educating people and increase scholarships for Afghan students.
- To improve bilateral trade, China may open the Wakhan Corridor.
- China should deepen its collaboration in the field of oil, gas and copper exploration as well as the development of other mineral resources.
- Afghanistan needs to be a full member of SCO. All other neighbours of Afghanistan are members of SCO and if she also gets full membership then it will be better for Afghanistan as well as beneficial for China’s involvement in Afghanistan and for the relationship of both countries.

Recommendations for Afghanistan.

- It is necessary for Afghanistan to further improve its relations with regional countries because the regional countries can better help rather than extra-regional countries in the restoration of peace, stabilization of the country and resolution of its economic problem.
- Afghanistan should fully avail the opportunities created by the increased involvement of China in the country since 2014.
- Afghanistan should increase the security of Chinese workers in order to maintain Chinese investment and progress in natural resources and other projects.
- Afghanistan should utilize the good offices of China in negotiations for decreasing political and ethnic differences among different groups.

References

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Twenty-First Century Competencies: How Can Teacher Education Programs Prepare Teacher Candidates for Successful Teaching Career Paths?

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This study investigated teacher candidates’ perceptions of 21st-century competencies, compared the perceptions among teacher candidates from different majors and academic achievement levels, examined the relationship between teacher candidates’ perceptions of the competencies and their learning achievement, and determined approaches to enhance such competencies. A survey was conducted among 250 teacher candidates from 13 different majors, and six university lecturers were interviewed in an open-admission university in Thailand. The results revealed that the teacher candidates realized the high importance of 21st-century competencies regarding the role of teachers as facilitators, learning management skills, technology and media literacy skills, morality and professional ethics, assessment and evaluation, knowledge and understanding of the social context, communication skills, and research skills. Teacher candidates from different majors and with varied academic achievement levels had the same perceptions of 21st-century competencies in all but two areas: knowledge and understanding of the social context and communication skills. Furthermore, no relationship was found between teacher candidates’ perceptions of the competencies and their academic achievement. The results suggest that faculty and other related organizations must realize the importance of developing teacher candidates’ 21st-century competencies by creating efficient, high-quality programs, to prepare them for a successful career path.

Keywords: 21st-century competencies, teacher candidate, teacher education, perceptions

The current era of rapid advancements in information technology worldwide requires each country to adapt to changes that directly affect its way of life. Countries also encounter external pressures such as changes in global economic and social contexts. These significant transformations caused by the “Industry 4.0” should, according to Thailand’s 20-year national strategy, strengthen the country, while also maintaining connections with the global community, in accordance with the concept of “sufficiency economy” and through the “Pracharat” mechanism. Following the country’s policy agenda, the Thai government primarily aims to prepare its citizens for the 4.0 era (Maesincee, 2016).

Since teachers’ primary responsibility can be regarded as nurturing the youth into becoming good citizens, this profession is considered critical for the development of...
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the country in the Thailand 4.0 policy. The country’s progress depends not only on capital or material resources but also on human resources, education, and the abilities of the citizenry, because they are key to the nation’s adaptation to contemporary challenges. Increasing the capacity of individuals in society to make a living and providing all children with equal access to good education will make them competent citizens capable of maintaining the stability and sustainability of the nation. Therefore, Thailand’s educational system needs to set human resource development goals, and plan, develop, and prepare the workforce to enter the job market upon graduation. Arif et al., (2019) also suggested that choosing a career to pursue in the future is a very complicated decision; therefore, preparing the children for future careers needs to be taken into serious consideration. Adjusting curricula and employing flexible teaching methods can develop and enhance a variety of skills and competencies in preparation for the changes and “borderless competition” of the 4.0 economic and social era (Office of the Education Council, 2017).

According to the National Education Plan 2017–2036, there are four objectives of educational management: 1) develop a quality and efficient education management system and process; 2) develop good citizenship, characteristics, skills, and competencies among Thai people; 3) develop Thai society as a learning society that fosters morality, ethics, unity, and collaboration to achieve sustainable development of the country; and 4) lead Thailand to break free from the middle-income trap and reduce inequality within the country.

For these reasons, the production of excellent teachers is pivotal. The approach to developing quality teachers includes the careful selection of teachers and a training process that attracts talented people with a passion to educate. The teacher training process helps in developing teacher candidates’ attitudes toward teaching and strengthens their pedagogical skills. Cohen (2000) suggests that teachers must have a sense of professional commitment and be fully devoted to teaching. Teachers with a strong sense of honesty and commitment to the profession will be enthusiastic, responsible, and diligent.

Schools primarily influence teachers’ commitment and desire to continue their teaching career path. In addition to schools, the Teachers’ Council, pursuant to Section 53 of the National Education Act, B.E. 2542 (1999), under the supervision of the Ministry of Education, has the power to set professional standards. To this end, the Teachers’ Council of Thailand Board issued the Regulations on Professional Licenses B.E. 2559 (2016) and launched an amended version No.2 B.E. 2562 (2019) outlining rules, procedures, and conditions for issuing a new teacher’s professional license. Accordingly, applicants are required to pass the teachers’ professional competence assessment. With some exceptions, the assessment is not a requirement for those who have obtained, before the academic year 2019, at least a bachelor’s degree or the equivalent in the field of education and met the standards of professional knowledge and experience established by the Teachers’ Council of Thailand (Thai Government Gazette, 2019).
SUCCESSFUL TEACHING CAREER PATHS

A study by Kitjatorntham et al., (2011) on good practices in training Thai teachers in the past revealed that teacher development has to be in line with the demands of the country. They suggested that emphasis should be placed on exchanging knowledge, using group processes, devoting time to practice, encouraging the spirit of being a teacher with supplementary courses, increasing learning resources from a variety of sources, and gaining more professional teaching experience during their internship from professional development schools. With the right resources, training, and planning, these teachers graduating from the teacher education program share common characteristics such as diligence, patience, and responsibility. They are also curious to gain more knowledge and touch students’ lives and tend to have faith in the teaching profession.

Sinlarat (2015) compared professional teaching standards in other countries and those in Thailand, found that the content in the latter was too broad, and suggested a need for new-generation teachers who can act as leaders in both the educational field and society. A clear framework for teacher candidates’ competencies will serve to develop their 21st-century skills. According to Chomphukam (2019), teacher candidates need to possess 21st-century competencies (e.g., the knowledge and understanding of basic teaching foundation, effective learning management, and social contexts; media and technology, communication, and social skills; social conscience and awareness; and morality and ethics).

McClelland (2004) investigated the relationship between the qualities of individuals in an organization and their skill level, knowledge, and abilities. The intelligence quotient (IQ) and personality tests are inappropriate methods for evaluating competencies. Instead, everyone should be provided with opportunities to perform tasks that can show their abilities rather than be judged by scores on standardized tests.

In accordance with the main objectives under the qualifications framework for higher education and with an aim to be an organization of excellence in education, the Office of the Higher Education Commission (2011) emphasizes preparing a high-level workforce to have at least five necessary 21st-century characteristics—ethics and morality, knowledge and cognitive skills, interpersonal skills and responsibilities, numerical analysis skills, and communication and information technology skills. These characteristics are similar to those that students are expected to develop during their studies and participation in various curricular and extracurricular activities conducted by educational institutions. In addition, they need to be able to demonstrate their knowledge, understanding, and competence through these characteristics.

Educational learning objectives have undergone considerable changes, as evident in the United Nation’s sustainable development goal 4.7, which emphasizes education for sustainable development and global citizenship. Such changes are the result of the acceptance of the requirement for educational methods to provide students with various capabilities, including communication, critical thinking, cooperation, and problem-solving. These 21st-century objectives, which are observed in curricular reform and general education, have been encouraged globally, considering changing work and societal requirements. Although this study primarily focused on the assessment, it also
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affirmed the necessity for any principal reform in educational philosophy to guarantee alignment of the fields of pedagogy, curriculum, and evaluation. The purpose of educational systems is to satisfy society’s requirements, but they do not necessarily equip citizens to fulfill all such requirements. There is a universal presupposition that those who proceed through an educational system successfully will acquire the abilities both required and respected by society. Educational systems now have new learning areas that are included as particular objectives of the educational experience because of the previous failure to attain the standards expected by society.

A major study to map countries’ endeavors to align students with this 21st-century educational system was conducted to help them develop 21st-century abilities. It was carried out by the World Bank, and UNESCO’s International Bureau of Education. Direct permission to publish the data was provided by the appropriate governments. The data were collected from a total of 152 nations, of which 53 (35%), including the Dominican Republic, Madagascar, Morocco, and Spain, showcased particular abilities in their vision or mission statements, and/or basic policy documents, but not in their curricula. However, in some nations, curricula were unavailable online. Furthermore, particular skills were mentioned in the curricular documents of 58 (38%) nations, although no progression of the skills was evident. These countries include Chile, Norway, India, New Zealand, and Zambia. Only 17 nations defined how skills develop and advance with time and at various educational standards. These countries include Australia, Iceland, Mexico, and the United Arab Emirates. Twenty-five (16 %) nations showed no evidence of any of the aforementioned indicators. The four most frequently recognized skills in 25 countries, including the Democratic Republic of Congo, Egypt, Iran, and Russia, were creativity, communication, problem-solving, and critical thinking, and were outlined in the national policies of all 152 nations.

Importantly, nations have specifically recognized skills other than academic ones because abilities such as entrepreneurship, social skills, and information technology (IT) skills have been identified. Similar results have been obtained by another series of studies that concentrated on the movement toward fostering abilities at the local level. UNESCO’s Education Bureau in Bangkok coordinates the Asia-Pacific Education Research Institutes Network (Eri-Net), which consists of 10 or 11 nations. Some countries were of minor significance in the study. These include Australia, China (Beijing, Shanghai), Hong Kong Special Administrative Region, India, Japan, Malaysia, Mongolia, the Philippines, Republic of Korea, Thailand, and Vietnam. According to the participating nations, the principal objective of education is to obtain intellectual skills and knowledge. The most frequently quoted transversal abilities were reflective, innovative, and critical thinking, as well as cooperation, communication, and reasoned decision-making (Care et al., 2018).

With the transition to a knowledge-based socioeconomic system, countries worldwide attempt to develop and adjust to a new education management system called “Education Reform” aimed at improving the efficiency of educational management, standards, and quality workforce to a learning society. Teachers are pivotal in the process of educational reform because they are the front-line group in developing student quality. It remains to be determined what strategies can be employed to motivate and encourage
students to think in the right way. These strategies will allow students to gain the characteristics or ability to think differently and clearly. Furthermore, it has been noted that the social, political, and economic problems currently occurring in many countries are based on the capabilities of the people. The “teacher” is an important element in the educational development process of the countries. Teaching is, thus, a high-profile profession in which practitioners affect society as they are responsible for the students; therefore, special control over their professional practice is required to increase students’ and society’s confidence. According to Rofiq et al., (2018), any attempt to create high-quality education requires a comprehensive performance, which involves the availability of teachers, facilities, and infrastructure, in addition to the learning system and curriculum. Therefore, the availability of good teachers is essential to establish an educational system of optimum quality.

The Office of The Education Council Secretariat’s (2015) past reports on the state of education revealed an intellectual crisis in teacher training. Many of these problems are still present, such as the lack of continuity in teacher production policies, low quality of teacher education, ineffectiveness in cultivating a teaching spirit, limited pedagogical knowledge and skills, and low quality of teaching practicum. Another critical issue is the inefficient and ineffective educational administration. Centralized administration, redundant and overlapping organizations, a lack of coherence in education development policy, and low resource utilization efficiency lead to a lack of participation opportunities for all parties. This state of affairs results in low-proficiency teachers, a loss of faith and confidence in the teaching profession, noncontinuous policy development, and limited information technology infrastructure. To solve the aforementioned issues, intellectual strategies and relevant education reform are urgently needed.

To achieve the goals of effective teacher production, this study aimed to 1) investigate teacher candidates’ perception of 21st-century competencies, 2) compare the perceptions of 21st-century competencies among teacher candidates from different majors and levels of academic achievement, 3) examine the relationship between teacher candidates’ perception of 21st-century competencies and their learning achievement, and 4) examine approaches to enhancing teacher candidates’ 21st-century competencies. The results would enable the researcher to provide opportunities for professional teaching courses to equip teacher candidates with the knowledge and skills needed for their prospective careers.
Lapcharoen

Method

The study was conducted using a mixed-methods approach, a combination of qualitative and quantitative data. The data were triangulated to strengthen findings (Jogulu & Pansiri, 2011) as the results from the interview threw further light on the findings from the questionnaire.

Participants

In this study, a survey was carried out among 250 teacher candidates from 13 different majors in an open-admission university in Thailand, using simple random sampling (Cohen et al., 2011). Qualitative research was conducted via online interviews with six university lecturers, one from each group: 1) Early Childhood; 2) Elementary; 3) Mathematics, Science, Computer, and Vocational Education; 4) Social Studies and Arts; 5) Thai, English, and Chinese; and 6) Physical Education and Health Education.

Research instruments

Questionnaire

A five-point Likert-scale questionnaire, ranging from “strongly agree (5)” to “strongly disagree (1),” was designed to gain quantitative insights about teacher candidates’ 21st-century competencies. It covered three main sections:

1) Participants’ general information—major and academic achievement level.
2) Statements about teacher candidates’ 21st-century competencies in eight areas—role as a facilitator, learning management skills, technology, media, and media literacy skills, morality and professional ethics, assessment and evaluation, knowledge and understanding of the social context, communication skills, and research skills to further develop learning.
3) Additional suggestions—an open-ended question for additional concerns or opinions.

The questionnaire was verified for content validity by five experts in the field of teacher education and/or curriculum and instruction, and it revealed a score of 1.0 on the item-objective congruence (IOC) index, thus indicating good validity. Additionally, Cronbach’s alpha coefficients for the items on the questionnaire were calculated as $\alpha = .962$, thereby indicating acceptable reliability with statistically significant differences.

Interview

The interview contained five questions aimed at exploring approaches to enhancing teacher candidates’ 21st-century competencies.

1) Which of the following approaches do you think can enhance teacher candidates’ 21st-century competencies? Please note that you can select more than one option by specifying the sequence of numbers in order to rank the items you deem appropriate.

Lectures
Small group discussions
Demonstrations
Use of case studies

Computer-assisted instruction
Class discussions
Role playing
Games and simulations
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______ Field trips
______ Coaching and mentoring
______ Consulting sessions
______ Projects
______ Self-studying
______ Others (Please specify)
(........................................................)

2) During the planning process to promote teacher candidates’ 21st-century competencies, who should analyze the need for promoting competencies and how?

3) Which competencies are pivotal for teacher candidates to meet professional teaching standards?

4) How do you motivate teacher candidates to apply their experiences to promote their competencies?

5) What activities should be prepared for teacher candidates to foster their professional development?

The same five experts who evaluated the questionnaire were asked to evaluate the list of interview questions and report the extent to which they believed these items corresponded to the elements they were intended to measure. Consequently, the index of the item-objective congruence was 1.0, thus indicating good validity.

Data collection and analysis

An online Google Forms questionnaire was distributed to 250 students of the open-admission university. One-to-one interviews were conducted with six university lecturers in the initial teacher preparation program via phone calls and the Zoom platform, and permission was obtained to record the interview sessions.

The quantitative data generated from the questionnaire were analyzed using descriptive statistics (mean scores, standard deviations, and percentages). The inferential statistics data obtained from the interviews were analyzed using t-test and one-way ANOVA in SPSS to verify the differences in the perceptions of 21st-century competencies among teacher candidates from different majors and levels of academic achievement. In addition, the correlation between the perceptions was generated using the Pearson’s product-moment correlation coefficient.
Results
The results of the data analyses are presented as follows.
1. The analysis results showed that the teacher candidates’ perceptions of 21st-century competencies in eight areas were at a high level, as presented in Table 1.

Table 1
Descriptive statistics of the teacher candidates’ perceptions of 21st-century competencies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perceptions of the Teacher Candidates</th>
<th>(\bar{X})</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. The role as a facilitator</td>
<td>4.26</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Learning management skills</td>
<td>4.20</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Technology and media literacy skills</td>
<td>4.22</td>
<td>0.52</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Morality and professional ethics</td>
<td>4.37</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Assessment and evaluation</td>
<td>4.23</td>
<td>0.53</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Knowledge and understanding of the social context</td>
<td>4.39</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Communication skills</td>
<td>4.32</td>
<td>0.51</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Research skills to further develop learning</td>
<td>4.21</td>
<td>0.54</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>SUM</strong></td>
<td><strong>4.28</strong></td>
<td><strong>0.45</strong></td>
<td><strong>High</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The comparison of the perception of the 21st-century competencies of teacher candidates from different majors and levels of academic achievement showed that there was no statistically significant difference in overall perceptions and in the areas of the role as a facilitator, learning management skills, technology and media literacy skills, morality and professional ethics, assessment and evaluation, and research skills to further develop learning.

The comparison of teacher candidates from different majors using the least significant difference (LSD) test approach showed statistically significant differences \((p < 0.05)\) in the area of knowledge and understanding of the social context. First, the teacher candidates in the “elementary” group had higher perceptions of the 21st-century competencies than those in the “early childhood”; “mathematics, science, computer, and vocational education”; and “social studies and arts” groups. Second, the candidates in the “mathematics, science, computer, and vocational education” group had higher perceptions of the competencies than those in the “Thai, English, and Chinese languages” group.

The comparison also showed statistically significant differences \((p < 0.05)\) in the area of communication skills. First, the teacher candidates in the “elementary” group had higher perceptions of the 21st-century competencies than those in the “mathematics, science, computer, and vocational education” and “social studies and arts” groups. Second, teachers in the “mathematics, science, computer, and vocational education” group had higher perceptions of the competencies than those in the “Thai, English, and Chinese languages” group. Third, the teacher candidates of the “social studies and arts” group had higher perceptions of the competencies than those in the “Thai, English, and Chinese languages” group.

3. Confirming the relationship between the teacher candidates’ perceptions of 21st-century competencies and learning achievement in eight areas using Pearson’s product-moment
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correlation coefficient approach, the results showed no statistically significant differences (Correlation = 0.036, p = 0.588; Table 2).

**Table 2**
*Correlation between teacher candidates’ perceptions of 21st-century competencies and learning achievement*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher candidates’ perception of 21st-century competencies</th>
<th>Learning achievement</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. The role as a facilitator</td>
<td>.003</td>
<td>0.958</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Learning management skills</td>
<td>.005</td>
<td>0.942</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Technology and media literacy skills</td>
<td>.058</td>
<td>0.362</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Morality and professional ethics</td>
<td>.028</td>
<td>0.660</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Assessment and evaluation</td>
<td>.075</td>
<td>0.240</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Knowledge and understanding of the social context</td>
<td>.028</td>
<td>0.666</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Communication skills</td>
<td>.062</td>
<td>0.330</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Research skills to further develop learning</td>
<td>.091</td>
<td>0.155</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>SUM</strong></td>
<td><strong>.036</strong></td>
<td><strong>0.588</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Considering methods to enhance teacher candidates’ 21st-century competencies, the interview results showed that the participants favored demonstrations, case studies, field trips, class discussions, computer-assisted instruction, lectures, coaching and mentoring, projects, small group discussions, games and simulations, role playing, consulting sessions, and self-study. These methods can be combined into a proactive learning process, a learning management approach that emphasizes class participation, knowledge creation, and self-directed learning. It incurs a high level of analytical, synthetic, and creative thinking, which opens opportunities to exchange ideas. More precisely, proactive learning focuses more on the learning process than on the course content, which enables students to understand the content thoroughly and allows them to understand the benefits of what they have learned.

To enhance competencies, supervisors and cooperating teachers should analyze the needs for competency enhancement. It begins with collecting background information and surveying those who have contributed to the development of students’ competency in teaching, such as dean of the Faculty of Education/Education, curriculum administrative committee, lecturers, teacher candidates, those currently studying at the Faculty of Education/Education, and the school director, and professional development schools. When asked about the specific competencies, the interviewees agreed that higher-order thinking skills (HOTS) are the first 21st-century competency that should be promoted to increase the standards of the teaching profession—analytical thinking, critical thinking, reflective thinking, problem-solving, creative thinking, and the integration of knowledge. For example, students can be assigned to write two stories about their impressive and unimpressive experiences. Some are randomly selected for role play and the entire class is asked to answer the following questions.

1. Analyze the behavior of the teachers in the story. (Analytical thinking)
2. Which teacher's behavior do you think is most trustworthy? (Critical thinking)
3. If you were the school director, how would you solve the teachers’ problems mentioned in the story? (Problem-solving)

4. Is there any alternative ending? (Creative thinking)

Another example could be the analysis of news because students receive plenty of information quickly and easily in the current technological world. They are sometimes not aware of the reliability of the information as scams are common. Therefore, practicing the analysis of such information will help them develop critical thinking skills by collecting information from a variety of reputable sources before making any judgment and believing it.

**Discussion and Conclusions**

1) *Teacher candidates’ perceptions of 21st-century competencies*

The teacher candidates realized the importance of 21st-century competencies at a high level overall in each of the eight areas (teachers as facilitators; learning management skills; technology, media, and media literacy skills; morality and professional ethics; assessment and evaluation; knowledge and understanding in the social context; communication skills; and research skills to develop learning). This finding is in line with that of Phomkan (2017) who pointed out the teacher candidates’ perceptions of the aforementioned competencies. In addition, the results also support Hund and Bueno’s (2015) findings that authentic teaching experiences and meaningful feedback from cooperative teachers in real school settings are critical for professional development in communication skills, interpersonal skills, content knowledge, research methods, and teaching. This perspective could be because rapid social transformation and the development of the teaching profession in the 21st-century society today is particularly challenging and plays an important role in the success of education reform and development. Effective teacher training would result in higher efficiency of the teaching profession. In addition, it would be in accordance with the new concept of performance recently applied in the human resource management process in the government sector.

According to Ayranci and Başkan (2021), the standard of teachers’ proficiency in various areas is explained by the application of teacher competence as a defining notion. Furthermore, an analysis of the fields of teacher competence is included in the literature, in which their proficiency is related to numerous skills, such as “learning to learn,” “digital competence,” “the sense of initiative and entrepreneurship,” and “social and civic competencies.” More importantly, it is necessary for teachers to be proficient to help students become competent. Five competencies and performance indicators associated with the Turkish lesson teacher special field competence include: 1) planning and organization (planning the teaching procedure, organizing the learning environment, and utilizing resources), 2) language skills development to enhance students’ expressive and comprehension abilities as well as the national language, 3) monitoring and evaluating language development (supervising and assessing the language development of students), 4) school, family, and community cooperation (collaboration with families regarding school culture and social leadership), and 5) professional development in support of the teaching procedure and other professional endeavors.
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Therefore, teachers are actively encouraged to strengthen their competencies in every aspect, to provide students with effective instruction. This push for higher-quality educational institutions is especially relevant to the approach of education management in the 21st century.

2) Comparison of perceptions of 21st-century competencies among teacher candidates in different majors and levels of academic achievement

Teacher candidates in different majors and levels of academic achievement have the same perceptions of 21st-century competencies in six areas: the role as a facilitator; learning management skills; technology, media, and media literacy skills; morality and professional ethics; assessment and evaluation; and research skills to further develop learning. This finding is in agreement with that of both Puengpetch (2019) and Sarnkong and Poowanna (2019). Although the students studied different majors and had different levels of academic achievement, they were aware of the importance of recent social transformations that affect people’s lives.

However, the results revealed differences in perceptions in two areas: knowledge and understanding of the social context and communication skills. It is also in line with studies by Phoyen (2019) and Selçuk et al., (2017). This variance may be because the social responsibility of each major is different, and individual abilities to adapt themselves to social contexts are not at the same level.

3) Relationship between teacher candidates’ perceptions of 21st-century competencies and their learning achievement

The results showed no relationship between teacher candidates’ perception of 21st-century competencies and their academic achievement, which supports Prathumphaeng’s (2018) findings. It is possibly a result of teacher education regulations that are applicable to all; candidates are aware of the competencies they need to develop, regardless of their level of learning achievement.

4) Approaches to enhancing teacher candidates’ 21st-century competencies

The interview results revealed possible approaches to enhancing teacher candidates’ competencies. Some of these are the use of demonstrations, case studies, field trips, class discussions, computer-assisted instruction, lectures, coaching and mentoring, projects, small group discussions, games and simulations, role-playing, consulting sessions, self-studying, active learning, and high-order thinking skills. Bibi (2020) suggested that higher order thinking questions that foster students’ critical and analytical thinking should be asked more frequently in the classrooms. The dean, curriculum management committee, lecturers of the teaching practicum course, teacher candidates, current students in the Faculty of Education, school principals, and cooperative teachers should take the responsibility to establish approaches that promote these competencies.

This process could begin with investigating the need for competencies, including finding background information and then reaching a consensus on the
development of the necessary competencies. Furthermore, the teacher candidates’ strengths should be analyzed and enhanced to meet teaching profession standards, in line with McKenzie’s (1995) suggestion that good competencies should be beneficial and useful. They should be trained using demonstrations and provided opportunities to apply their practical skills rather than being taught using traditional methods of instruction. The integration of knowledge, analytical thinking, critical thinking, reflective thinking, problem-solving skills, and creativity will enable teachers to draw on their experiences to enhance their competencies. Both favorable and challenging situations could be simulated to allow candidates to practice their higher-order thinking (HOT) skills, scoring rubrics creation, and classroom management. They would, thus, be able to design and conduct learner-centered and integrated instructions as well as HOT-based activities. This experience will help them acquire new knowledge and discern authentic sources from unreliable ones. They will also be able to employ quality, reliable learning resources when designing lessons.

In agreement with Darling-Hammond (2002), and Fletcher and Buckley (1997), this study argues that teacher education is a pivotal factor in enabling high-quality education, which, in turn, influences the success and quality of life of citizens of any nation. Therefore, it is imperative that educators and policymakers strengthen teachers’ knowledge and skills by developing effective teacher education programs that focus on cross-curricular instruction, supervision, flexibility in measuring learning outcomes, unlimited study time, one-on-one assistance, and proactive relationships with their schools. It is clear that teacher education programs and schools should have strong relationships and share common knowledge and beliefs in order to transform teaching and educational management. The teacher education models of countries such as Singapore, Finland, and Japan are possible examples that can be emulated.

In conclusion, school faculty and other organizations must realize the importance of developing teacher candidates’ 21st-century competencies and create quality, efficient programs to foster these competencies to prepare them for a successful career.

**Recommendations for future research**

Possible avenues for future research include investigating the specific factors in teacher training instruction that can help enhance their 21st-century competencies. This process could take the form of isolating certain practices to narrow down future policy plans. Other methodologies such as experimental research could also be employed to investigate the readiness of teacher candidates to face modern-day challenges.
References


Statistical Package for Social Sciences Acceptance in Quantitative Research: From the Technology Acceptance Model’s Perspective

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Today, education, medicine, business, and all other fields rely heavily on computers. This reliance is increased much when both professionals and academic level students have to conduct research projects. This reliance is indicated by the availability and utility of the software, which is an integral part of computer technology. Hence, by keeping in view the importance of SPSS in research, we scrutinized the significant factors behind Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) adoption and acceptance. We executed an experimental approach and gathered data from \( n = 300 \) young researchers studying in the \( n = 4 \) public sector universities in Rawalpindi and Islamabad, Pakistan. By adopting the primary variables from the Technology Acceptance Model, we proposed and studied a model and examined it by using Smart-PLS. Findings showed that perceived ease of use and usefulness are significantly associated with Quantitative Research. Here, perceived ease of use and usefulness also indicated their interrelationship to validate the technology acceptance further. As a result, we also found a significant relationship between perceived usefulness, perceived usefulness, and SPSS technology acceptance. In simple terms, ease of use and valuable outcomes are the primary reasons behind SPSS acceptance among Pakistani students. Thus, we conclude that today, when technology has facilitated all the fields of life, research and development is another major field that is availing enormous advantages from the technology acceptance, integration, and execution. We recommend that SPSS usage should be encouraged for research purposes. Educational institutions should introduce new courses regarding SPSS learning and use them to further increase quantitative research aptitude among students.

*Keywords*: technology acceptance, statistical package for social sciences, quantitative Research, Education, SPSS acceptance

Research is a systematic process that involves proposing an idea, supporting the propositions, evaluating and validating the research problem. Research also suggests new facts and reaches unique conclusions. The primary tenet of research involves data gathering, information, and observations to advance our knowledge and expertise (Ahmad, 2016). We can also define research as investigating the subject in detail, discovering new information, and exploring our advanced understanding of an existing...
phenomenon (Singh, 2021). Here SAGE, (2018) described the research as a process of differentiating between valid and invalid. For instance, when a doctor has to treat his patients, he will consider gaining information and guidance from scientific knowledge. This scientific knowledge is gathered from valid platforms that professional researchers authenticate. It is also notable that research is conducted for academic and professional purposes. For example, students perform research to complete their degree programs in academics. In this regard, instructors researched for promotional purposes.

On the other hand, business researchers perform research to examine the marketing trends, challenges and attain product response/feedback (Govoni, 2012). Overall, research is one of the most critical components, responsible for proposing new ideas and advancing the existing ones. Significantly, today, when academic and professional arenas are expanding, new challenges are arising, and recent trends are expanding, research provides complete guidelines and supports coping with the challenges and increasing knowledge efficiently (Defazio et al., 2010).

In this regard, quantitative research is one of the most preferred techniques, leading to generalizable outcomes. The research gathered data and allocated codes (numbers) to perform the statistical analysis in quantitative research. This statistical analysis provides a pathway to ensure the validity and accurateness of the results by using both inferential and descriptive statistics (Daniel, 2016; Khan et al., 2020). Apuke (2017) noted that researchers primarily gather numeral data and then make the relevant calculations. The purpose is to quantify the data and conduct the statistical examination to accept or reject the hypothesized statements. Likewise, research is also a fundamental part of academic and professional life in Pakistan, like other countries. Students and professionals researched both collective and individual levels. We have different private and government sector organizations that fund the research projects here. Besides, academic research is also common to enhance students' critical thinking and writing abilities.

Moreover, research for promotional purposes is another primary reason behind conducting individual and academic research in Pakistan (Ansari et al., 2016). During the educational journey, universities focus on teaching the student about all the essential techniques that are trending in researching the educational journey. For instance, university-level students in Pakistani are obligated to opt for the course specialized for teaching quantitative research methods. As a result, students learn new techniques, including research writing, data manipulation, data gathering, and even data analysis, using advanced software such as Statistical Package for Social Sciences (Arkkelin, 2014). Undoubtedly, computer technology has largely facilitated almost every field of life. Especially the use of computers in research is substantial, which involves different computer-based programs such as Statistical Package for Social Sciences that helps to perform complex numerical tasks that are difficult and time-consuming.

Consequently, Statistical Package for Social Science has done quantitative research fast, efficient, reliable, validated, and easily generalizable (Kpolovie, 2017). Moreover, Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) is considered part of technology-enhanced learning that further validates its relevance with the technology.
acceptance model proposed by Fred D. Davis, (1980). As noted by Brezavšček et al., (2014), Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) provides students to alleviate their complex statistical issues. Today, more than 80% of students face statistical anxiety and frustration due to complex statistical requirements in research. However, SPSS is one cost-effective and widely available softwares that students can access and use to meet their study requirements.

Thus, by considering the role and importance of the Statistical Package for Social Sciences in the research, the current article also focuses on the dynamic reasons behind increased SPSS usage among university students. However, up till now, examining the SPSS usage in terms of technology acceptance is a much-underrepresented phenomenon, indicating an explicit research gap in the relevant arena. Hence, the first section discussed the importance of research and study problem. The second section involves citing the literature and proposing the research hypotheses. In the third section, the researcher highlighted the primary methods used in this research. In the fourth section, the study involves data analysis. In the fifth section, we have extensively discussed the results and the proposed reasons behind SPSS usage among students in its relevance with the Technology Acceptance Model.

**Literature Review and Hypotheses Development**

A. Quantitative Research, Perceived Ease of SPSS, & Usefulness

Many studies witnessed technology usage in learning and research arenas, facilitating students and researchers at almost every level. Students much know and acknowledge using technology such as computers, the internet, artificial intelligence, and even offline software to conduct different projects, assignments, and research studies (Alnaser et al., 2020). This acceptance and acknowledgement are directly linked with the "Perceived Ease of Use". Like internet technology, offline software also ensures maximum benefits with minimum complexity and increased trialability (Alhumaid et al., 2020). As a result, when students have to deal with complex data and statistical processes, they prefer using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS), which is easy to use, and affordable for everyone (Arkkelin, 2014). It is also notable that using computer-based software for research purposes decreases statistical anxiety and stress among the learners. Besides descriptive, the Statistical Package for Social Sciences also helps perform the inferential statistics, further enhancing its significance in the research studies (Brezavšček et al., 2014; Hinduja et al., 2020).

Similarly, increased research demand has also increased in almost every discipline. Conducting complex statistical equations by hand is a conventional and time-taking task. Also, the accuracy of results is sometimes questioned, which further demands approved software for availing validated results (Ahmed, 2009). Motivating students for the SPSS usage indicates an increased interest in researching different disciplines. Universities actively conduct special workshops to teach students SPSS for research purposes. The goal is to enable the students to research, leading to an increased research aptitude (Afari-Kumah & Achampong, 2010).

**H1a:** There is a significant relationship between quantitative research and ease of use
H1b: There is a significant relationship between quantitative research and SPSS usefulness

B. Perceived SPSS Ease of Use and Usefulness

According to Hanafi and Fadilah, (2017), every discipline has several sub-disciplines that involve several research methods and techniques. As all fields rely on experimental research and empirical evidence, depending on the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) is inevitable. Although qualitative research is also essential in proposing new ideas and validating existing ones, quantitative analysis has distinguished significance. For instance, the Biomedical Sciences students widely use SPSS to manipulate statistical and epidemiological data on an almost daily basis. Using SPSS is directly related to the acceptance of SPSS as a computer-based program to calculate statistical data and attain valid results (Perry et al., 2014). A study conducted by Šebjan, (2014) also affirmed the relationship between SPSS usage and quick results in Slovenia. The close-ended questionnaires showed a strong, positive relationship between SPSS Usage and perceived usefulness. Even institutions also offer online availability of SPSS usage guides and manuals, making it accessible. Consequently, the students utilize SPSS to perform statistical calculations, leading to authenticated results (Garth, 2008).

H2: There is a significant relationship between ease of use and SPSS usefulness

C. Perceived Ease of Use, Perceived Usefulness, & SPSS Acceptance

Statistical Package of Social Sciences (SPSS) is easy to use, ensuring the benefits of the analysis through simple methods. Although much other software helps the researchers perform statistical calculations, SPSS is the preferred one (Gogoi, 2020). It is also notable that International Business Machines Corporation (ISM) constantly updates the SPSS, adding more features to the software. Indeed, it is a complete package that provides a simple solution to complex statistical problems (Kpolovie, 2017). The measure of Central Tendency, Correlation, Covariance, even table, and graph-making tasks are efficiently conducted through SPSS.

Similarly, when it is about inferential statistics, several tests such as Analysis of Variance, Regression, Correlation, and others are simple and easy, indicating an increased SPSS usage among academic researchers (Rna, 2013). A cross-sectional study conducted by (Begum & Ahmed, 2015) also examined the reasons behind SPSS acceptance and usage among college-level students in India. Results also indicated that managing data and further analyzing with simple techniques are the essential factors attributed to SPSS acceptance among the researchers. Therefore, quantitative research in almost all study discipline is mandatory. If researchers manage the gathered data and calculate it manually, it takes much time and effort. However, the increased use of computer-based technology has largely facilitated quantitative research as it provides easy-to-use solid and reliable features and can attain statistically valid results (Huizingh, 2012).

H3: There is a significant relationship between ease of use and SPSS acceptance
H4: There is a significant relationship between perceived usefulness and SPSS acceptance
The conceptual Framework in current research is primarily supported by Technology Acceptance Model proposed by Fred, (1980). According to Fred, (1980), Technology Acceptance Model validates the motivational factors that accelerate technology acceptance and usage among the potential users. TAM factors include Perceived ease of use, Perceived usefulness, behavioural intention and finally, technology adoption. These motivational factors are causal determinants of accepting technology as a regular part of your everyday life (Cebeci et al., 2019). In this context, Brezavšček et al., (2014) argued that Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) also contains similar characteristics that accelerate its adoption and usage among young researchers, particularly academic level researchers and students. Research students feel capable of fulfilling their learning objectives and an easy yet comprehensive way to meet their educational requirements. Abasalt et al. (2012) noted that applying technology-enhanced tools in research provides more advanced and better opportunities to students. Earlier, despite students having many options to perform complex statistical analyses, today softwares like Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) have facilitated much with solving the complex statistical problems.

**Method**

This investigation is a cross-section approach involving data gathering through self-designed structured questionnaires that were further examined using Composite Reliability, Convergent Validity and Discriminant Validity analyses. We selected young students from different universities and distributed close-ended, structured questionnaires for the data gathering process. However, the response rate was 95.3% \((n = 286)\) as 4.6% \((n= 14)\) questionnaires were wrong or incompletely filled. Hence, we performed the statistical analysis to validate the relationship between study variables after data gathering. We used both SPSS and AMOS for the Structural Equitation Modelling to affirm the authenticity of the conceptual model as suggested by Al-Sarayrah et al., (2021). Structural Equitation Modelling supported the study proposition by indicating the strong predictive power of conceptual models and hypotheses discussed later.

**Figure 1:** Conceptual Framework

**Figure 2:** G* Power for the Sample Size Calculation
Habes, Ali, Pasha

Population and Sampling

The current study population comprises university-level social sciences students from all over Pakistan. However, according to the research criteria, we selected \( n = 4 \) public sector universities out of total \( n = 32 \) institutions currently working in Rawalpindi and Islamabad. Further, by using the simple random sampling method, we selected a sample of selected \( n = 300 \) participants from undergraduate, graduate and postgraduate levels. S. Ahmed (2009) noted that simple random sampling is one of the most preferred sampling techniques. It does not involve researchers' own bias and ensures the generalizability of the gathered results. However, it is notable that we first used G* Power Analysis to examine an ideal sample size for the current research. As shown in figure 2, the G* Power analysis calculated a perfect sample should be \( n = 74 \) participants. Yet we randomly selected \( n = 300 \) individuals as a primary sample size requirement in Structural Equation Modelling, which is an ideal sample size according to the G* Power criteria.

Demographics of Study Participants:

After calculating the frequency and percentage of the demographical data, we found that the majority of respondents (\( n = 238 \) or 83.2%) were males, and \( n = 48 \) or 16.8% were females (\( M = 1.17, SD = .374 \)). Similarly, according to the age of the respondents, \( n = 76 \) (26.5%) were 18-22 years old, \( n = 112 \) (39.1%) were 26-28 years old, \( n = 65 \) (22.7%) were 23 to 25 years old, and \( n = 33 \) (11.5%) were 31 years old or above (\( M = 3.77, SD = 1.231 \)). Moreover, \( n = 85 \) (29.7%) students were doing Masters, \( n = 80 \) (28.0%) were Doctorate level students, \( n = 62 \) (21.7%) of participants were under graduate level students, and \( n = 59 \) or 20.6% were graduation level students (\( M = 2.64, SD = 1.108 \)). Table 1 summarizes the details regarding demographics of participants:

Table 1
Demographics of Study Participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Constructs</th>
<th>( f )</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>238</td>
<td>83.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>16.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>18-22</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>26.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>23-25</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>22.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>26-28</td>
<td>111</td>
<td>39.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>29-30</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>31 years or Above</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>11.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Qualification</td>
<td>Undergraduate</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>21.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Graduate</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>20.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Masters</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>29.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Doctorate</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>28.7%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Convergent and Discriminant Validity Assessments:

We examined our research model's construct reliability and validity, recommended by (Mello & Collins, 2001). As given in Table 2, our Cronbach Alpha Values range from .715 to .853, which are higher than the designated value of .7. Likewise, the Composite Reliability Values range from .77 to .921, indicating the values exceeding the designated value of .7. Thus, we conclude that the Construct Reliability is
successfully validated. Moreover, we utilized Factor Loading values and Average Variance Extracted Values (AVE) to assess the convergent validity. Here we found that the AVE values range from .776 to .887, indicating these are successfully surpassing the threshold values and, therefore, stabilizing the convergent validity.

Table 2
Convergent Validity Assessment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ITEM</th>
<th>FL</th>
<th>CA</th>
<th>AVE</th>
<th>CR</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Quantitative Research</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>QRH1</td>
<td>.807</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>QRH2</td>
<td>.934</td>
<td>.715</td>
<td>.859</td>
<td>.899</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>QRH3</td>
<td>.711</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>QRH4</td>
<td>.985</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EAU1</td>
<td>.911</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ease of Use</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EAU2</td>
<td>.833</td>
<td>.853</td>
<td>.887</td>
<td>.921</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EAU3</td>
<td>.956</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EAU4</td>
<td>.850</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SPSS Usefulness</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SPU1</td>
<td>.901</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SPU2</td>
<td>.809</td>
<td>.831</td>
<td>.848</td>
<td>.884</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SPU3</td>
<td>.860</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SPU4</td>
<td>.824</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SPA1</td>
<td>.799</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SPSS Acceptance</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SPA2</td>
<td>.802</td>
<td>.822</td>
<td>.776</td>
<td>.777</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SPA3</td>
<td>.721</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SPA4</td>
<td>.783</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Furthermore, we also determined the discriminant validity using Forner-Larcker and Heterotrait-Monotrait Ration scales (ZAIT & BERTEA, 2011). As seen in Tables 3 & 4, the square root of the values related to Average Variance Extracted (AVE) is higher than the structural correlation values, indicating that the discriminant validity is partially established. Similarly, after calculating the averages of all the variables and using the HTMT scale, we found the value of .205, which is smaller than the value of .85, indicating that the discriminant validity is successfully established (Mohajan, 2017).

Table 3
Discriminant Validity: Forner Larcker Scale

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ITEM</th>
<th>QRH</th>
<th>EAU</th>
<th>SPA</th>
<th>SAP</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>QRH</td>
<td>.737</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EAU</td>
<td>.547</td>
<td>.786</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SPU</td>
<td>.321</td>
<td>.701</td>
<td>.719</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SAP</td>
<td>.633</td>
<td>.526</td>
<td>.415</td>
<td>.602</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 4

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/R.</th>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>QRH</th>
<th>EAU</th>
<th>SPU</th>
<th>SAP</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>EAU</td>
<td>.505</td>
<td>.786</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>SPA</td>
<td>.172</td>
<td>.091</td>
<td>.719</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>SAP</td>
<td>.205</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.059</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Model Evaluation & Hypotheses Testing:

First, we analyzed the predictive value of our research model through coefficients of determination R^2. As visible in Table 5, all the values range from .805 to .938, indicating a strong predictive power of our conceptual model. Besides, we also conducted Structure Equation Modelling to estimate the proposed relationships between study variables (Pavlov et al., 2021). To conduct the path analysis, we gathered all the t-values, f-values, and p-values (Bevan, 2013) and noted them down all in Table 6. As visible that, based on the statistical analysis, all the hypotheses are significantly supported by our empirical data. Thus, there is a strong significant relationship between Quantitative Research, perceived Ease of Use (β= 0.357, P< .004), and Perceived Usefulness (β= 0.354, p< .000). Likewise, the relationship between Perceived Ease of Use and Perceived Usefulness is also (β= 0.176, P<.024). Notably, the relationship between SPSS Acceptance, Perceived Ease of Use (β= 0.130, P<.015), and Perceived Usefulness is also accepted (β= 0.111, P<0.016).

Table 5

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/R.</th>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>R^2</th>
<th>Strength.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>EAU</td>
<td>.872</td>
<td>Strong</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>SPA</td>
<td>.805</td>
<td>Strong</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>SAP</td>
<td>.938</td>
<td>Strong</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hyp.</th>
<th>Relation</th>
<th>Path</th>
<th>t-</th>
<th>f</th>
<th>Sign</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>H1a</td>
<td>QRH&gt;EAU</td>
<td>.538</td>
<td>2.93</td>
<td>8.630</td>
<td>.004</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H1b</td>
<td>QRH&gt;SPU</td>
<td>.556</td>
<td>3.52</td>
<td>12.455</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H2</td>
<td>EAU&gt;SPU</td>
<td>.642</td>
<td>1.54</td>
<td>4.375</td>
<td>.024</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H3</td>
<td>EAU&gt;SAP</td>
<td>.312</td>
<td>2.43</td>
<td>5.947</td>
<td>.015</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H4</td>
<td>SPU&gt;SAP</td>
<td>.567</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>2.117</td>
<td>.016</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Discussion

According to Alsharhan et al., (2021), using technology to sustain the educational process has become a top priority in many countries. Brisk-paced innovation technology is changing academic arenas as we live in a knowledge-based society. Education as the fundamental human right demands different tactics to ensure the easy
flow of education, and research is an integral part of completing the educational journey. Sometimes students find quantitative data daunting, especially when they initiate their research exposure during academic thesis work. Moreover, when sample size and data are in bulk, a young researcher cannot manage them and require computer machines and software to manage and calculate the gathered data (Bryman & Cramer, 2004). However, today statistical tools are widely available for institutional and personal usage to complete the research process and solve complex research problems. Both instructors and young learners adapt these statistical tools to deal with the statistical issues relating to data management, coding, and manipulation to gather generalizable and valid results (Ali et al., 2021).

Current research also affirmed the importance of computer-based tools, especially Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS), for quantitative research analyses. These results are highly consistent with the study conducted by Brezavšček et al., (2014), as the Slovenian students also considered computer-based technology as a source of facilitating their everyday research projects. As noted, the development of SPSS is much helpful and supportive for the students. More specifically, the relationship between quantitative research and perceived ease of use ($p<.004$) is consistent with the study conducted by Masood & Lodhi, (2016) as the researchers also found Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) usage as directly associated with the perceived ease of use. As noted that, compared to other statistical softwares, SPSS provides simple data entry options where data is coded into numbers and provide different analyses to magnify the result further.

Consequently, students widely use SPSS for quantitative research, indicating their interest in software as one of the most preferred software today. Moreover, the relationship between quantitative analysis and SPSS usefulness was found as significant ($p<.004$) and highly compatible with the arguments given by (Hecht & Ligas, 2016). As argued, SPSS provides the young researchers with accessibility and accessible operating services that further help them conduct the relevant analyses and calculate the data accordingly. With these helpful and supportive features, SPSS is considered a strongly preferred statistical software. These argumentations made by both Hecht & Ligas, (2016) and Masood & Lodhi, (2016) also supported the proposed relationship between ease of use and SPSS usefulness ($p<.025$) as they extensively attributed both factors dominating the motivation behind SPSS adoption today. Finally, we found an ease of use and SPSS usefulness ($p<.015$ & $p<.016$ respectively) as significantly liked with SPSS acceptance for the Social Sciences research purposes. The study conducted by Gogoi, (2020) also validated these results as stated that the applied math package, mainly known as Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS), can help to perform all-purpose quantitative analyses. As IBM consistently adds more updates, now SPSS has even more options to perform robust analyses that work as one of the motivating mechanisms behind SPSS acceptance among researchers.

Hence, to understand quantitative research, it is essential to learn about the techniques, tactics, and software required to conduct the analysis. Today, researchers conduct different research studies to explore the new phenomenon and add novelty to the existing ones (Apuke, 2017). For this purpose, Statistical Package for Social Science
(SPSS) facilitates the students to arrange, code, manipulate and attain the results in the best possible manner (Šebjan, 2014). It is also notable that, Statistical Package for Social Sciences was first developed in 1960 and faced several modifications over time. Social science researchers consider Statistical Package for Social Sciences one of the most user-friendly packages due to ease of usage and benefits attributed to this software. It offers high-quality graphics and tabulation facilities that even students can learn independently (Siddhisena, 2018). Watson (2015) further argued that besides the simple Analysis of Variance, Regression, Correlation, frequency calculation, measures of central tendency and others, the Social Package for Social Sciences also extends the existing tests. Such as "Multilevel Modelling" is an extension of simple regression analysis, providing a more in-depth analysis of cause and effect relationships.

Nonetheless, the efforts of IBM do not end here, as developing a more comprehensive yet simple program IBM AMOS is an extension of SPSS that provides even more complex statistical tasks with simple techniques (Connell, 1987). Similarly, Pakistan is a country where research in different disciplines is the need of the day. Academic researchers, independent researchers, professors, marketing researchers, doctors, microbiologists, and others conduct several projects to find generalizable results every day. Besides, these researchers and experts also focused on adding more knowledge to existing phenomena and proposed the new one that may benefit every part of society (Ansari et al., 2016). Likewise, suppose the research projects are macro-level, involving a considerable quantity of primary or secondary data. In that case, researchers may not arrange and analyze the gathered content without using the SPSS (Šebjan, 2014). The current article also examined the perceptions of academic, junior-level researchers about SPSS as a “task-management” tool. Therefore, we found that, when technology has facilitated all the fields of life, research and development is another major field that is availing enormous advantages from the technology acceptance, integration, and execution. As a result, complex tasks are now easy to perform, leading to less time, effort, with the accuracy of the results (Bibi, 2021; Kpolovie, 2017).

Summary and Conclusion

This research examined the Statistical Package for Social Sciences mainly due to the factors predicted by the Technology Acceptance Model. W proposed a study model under the essential variables highlighted by the Technology Acceptance Model to indicate the relevance of Statistical Package for Social Sciences with the computer-based innovation directly associated with perceived ease of use and usefulness. Results showed that perceived ease of use and usefulness are strong determinants of SPSS adoption among Pakistani students. Thus, keeping in view the current findings, we conclude that SPSS is one of the most useful and user-friendly research software for Pakistani students. Hence we assume that today when technology has facilitated all the fields of life, research and development is another major field that offers enormous advantages from the technology acceptance, integration, and execution.

Limitations and Contributions:

Even though this study contains novelty that we have observed in terms of the Technology Acceptance Model regarding SPSS usage, that is underrepresented, especially in Pakistan. There are some significant limitations as well. First, we only
focused on social sciences. However, other disciplines equally use and get benefitted from the SPSS usage. Second, we gathered data only from the social sciences' students that further add to the limitations of current research. Third, we collected data from public sector universities, yet private sector institutions and their students equally emphasize research as a part of their degree requirement. Still, this research contributes to the existing literature concerning technology acceptance and Statistical Package for Social Sciences. We also recommend more studies, mainly the reasons behind other research software programs, that can further highlight their significance in academia.

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The Counting Approach to Multidimensional Poverty: Evidence from South Asia

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Shaheed Zulfikar Ali Bhutto Institute of Science and Technology Islamabad

This study is about the inspection of the multidimensional poverty level and changes with time. Three sample countries (Pakistan, Bangladesh, and India) are taken from the South Asian Region to measure the depth of multidimensional poverty and inequality among the deprived individuals by using Alkire and Foster (2011) “Dimension Adjusted” or headcount ratio measure, Rippin (2010) Class of Ordinal Poverty measures, and Chakravarty and D’Ambrosio (2006) Class of Poverty measures. These all three approaches are counting-based approaches that are used on ordinal variables. The data of three main dimensions (Education, Health and Standard of Living) which is further divided into ten indicators is used for this study. The secondary data is used, which is extracted from Demographic Health Surveys (DHS). The last three surveys of DHS is used in this study, which was conducted in different period. Results of all three countries are compared and showed that India is having more poverty followed by Bangladesh and Pakistan. Change in inequality component among deprived individuals is recorded almost similar in all three sample countries. The finding of this study shows that all three techniques are providing insightful information about the depth and component inequality among deprived individuals.

**Keywords:** sustainable development goals (SDGs), multidimensional poverty index (MPI), demographic health surveys (DHS), oxford poverty and human development initiative (OPHDI)

Multidimensional poverty is a global phenomenon that brings the whole world together at the platform of the United Nations to handle this problem which is the root cause of so many issues of the developing nations. The developing world is facing deprivations in multiple dimensions which includes education, health and living standards, these all aspects are taken under the head of multidimensional poverty as per the latest studies. According to the latest report of the Oxford Poverty and Human Development Initiative (OPHDI) (2018), it is explored that in 105 developing countries 1.3 billion population is facing multidimensional poverty. The global MPI is estimated for these which shows that 23% (nearly a quarter) population of these countries are left behind in multiple means. The people are facing deprivation in one-third of overlying deprivations in living standards, health and education, which includes lack of clean water for drinking, facilities of sanitation, acceptable nutrition and minimum education level which is primary. The multidimensional poverty profiled scale and detail suggests that...
there is a need to complement the income and consumption figures with multidimensional measurement which provides a precise picture (OPHDI, 2018).

The main aim of this paper is to use three main counting based measures of poverty found in the literature. In this paper, the decomposability properties of these three counting based measures will be used. This research shows that how to use all the measures in a manner that complements the evidence given by the MPI for insightful information by examining the elements of multidimensional poverty which tell us about the breadth and inequality in the South Asian Region. In addition, this study aims to find the most appropriate measurement for multidimensional poverty in the region, and take suitable actions to attain the sustainable development goal of UN, to” ending poverty in all its forms everywhere”.

In this research, the first section will focus on the theoretical background of the study where the literature gap is identified after the detailed literature review, which parts the second section of this research study. The third section details the methodology adopted to conduct this research followed by the data analysis and findings from the results obtained.

**Theoretical Background**

Sen’s ‘capabilities and functioning theoretical framework is the most inclusive and thus logical starting point to cover the idea of poverty. This framework states that the freedom of a person to decide his functioning is finally mattered. An individual need the bottom level of well-being taken by a set of elements. Income is the typical way of assessment that whether a person is below or above the poverty threshold. The approach which is known as money-metric is based on the principle that a person who exceeds the line of monetary poverty is supposed to have the possible power of purchasing to get the bundle of traits that are sufficient to get the level of well-being (Thorbecke, 2007).

Amartya Sen in his paper “Poverty: An ordinal approach to measurement” (1976) defined two main aspects that measurement of poverty must tackle;

1. Identifying the poor among the total population &
2. Constructing a numerical measure of poverty
3.

This twofold steps process of identification and aggregation has become the main conceptual framework for the measurement of poverty. Unidimensional methods apply when we have well-defined variables which is a single-dimensional resource, like income, as a base of the poverty evaluation. This type of variable is assumed typically to be a cardinal, however, variables have ordinal significance in some cases. For example, the direction of change is noticeable but its magnitude is not apparent. A poverty line is set for identification in the unidimensional environment which conforms to a minimum level below which an individual is put under the head of the poor. A numerical poverty measure is used for aggregation which establishes the total intensity of poverty in a poverty line distribution that is given. Sen’s procedure of two-step, which identifies and aggregate has been considering as a typical conceptual framework for poverty measurement, and the researcher follows this methodology in multidimensional and unidimensional methods (Alkire, & Foster, 2011).
APPROACH TO MULTIDIMENSIONAL POVERTY

Sen illustrated the three basics that need to be included in a poverty index. Incidence of poverty tells us about the relative number of poor; income shortfall on average which indicates deprivation on average; and the income distribution among the poor, indicates relative deprivation among them (Sen, 1976). This study will open another dimension of research which is about the measurement of multidimensional poverty, as already MPI is the only measurement for the South Asian region and hardly any other measures are taken under consideration before. This research will provide the guideline for new studies in this area which helps the researcher to discuss more the true measure of multidimensional poverty of the South Asian region and then this region will be able to combat the core issue of poverty by taking suitable remedial measures by using scared resources.

Literature Gap

Candelario and Cortez (2019) studied that by using CIP and HDI index the researchers have shown consistently low scores of South Asia in these indexes for the last fifteen years. They forecast by their model that incidence rate of poverty is increasing for the region. After an extensive literature review it is disclosed that these three techniques are used in different regions of the world to explore the level of poverty in the region but it is hard to find collective implementation of these techniques in South Asian region so in our research we are going to use these three techniques to find the true measure of poverty measurement for the region (Berenger, 2019).

UN Agenda 2030

As it is known very well that agenda 2030 set by the United Nations (UN) known as “eradicating poverty in all its forms and dimensions is the greatest global challenge and an indispensable requirement for sustainable development.” As we are aware the third decade of the UN is specifically for the eradication of poverty. Poverty eradication measurement and reduction of multidimensional poverty are very important to achieve this goal. The whole world should be cover and no one is left behind then the UN will be able to make it possible to some extent (OPHDI, 2018). The Sustainable Development Goals are adequate to divert the concentration of the international community towards the issues which are faced by the developing world. The top priority is given to the “Poverty” in the Sustainable development goals (SDGs), as it is the number one goal which the whole world has to achieve by 2030, on their own and by partnerships. The precise multidimensional focus is “ending poverty in all its forms everywhere” (Berenger, 2019).

UN priorities in SDGs by showing in goal one that ending poverty in all its forms and dimensions is very important for achievement of other goals and targets. While normally defined by income, poverty can indeed be described in terms of the deprivation people have to bear in their everyday lives. Global Multidimensional Poverty Index of Deprivation (MPI) is a common instrument for evaluating improvement in contrast to SDG 1. Compares the severe multidimensional poverty in 5.7 billion people and more than 100 countries and evaluates change in time. The MPI which is computed globally scrutinizes the deprivation of an individual by 10 indicators for education, health and living standards as well as the offer High resolution lens to distinguish who are poor.
people and how poor they are. It complements this worldwide poverty rate of $1.90 a day which shows the nature and extent of overlap the deprivation of each person (Global MPI Report, 2019).

Oxford Poverty and Human Development Initiative (2018) report shows that Poverty in many dimensions exists in all territories of developing world but it found mainly severe in South Asia and Sub-Saharan Africa. Both localities have 83% of overall poor population in the whole world which is around 1.1 billion. The two-third population which is poor lives in the developing countries, who are experiencing deprivations in different dimensions, like schooling, nutrition and sanitation.

The Global MPI

Poverty structure improves worldwide by the global MPI. It was only make it possible by the assessment by MPI the interconnecting impact on choice of policy across several SDGs and it supports incorporated response to the complex development challenges, evidently it is proved. Though MPI contribution is recognized by the researchers but the in-depth and overall view of the poverty deprivations is not only covered by MPI. Researchers have to consider the other instruments as well. The one part of these instrument is, are indices which are related and they cover other fragments of the picture. There are sections of picture which are still obstinately dark, representing limitations in existing tools or a gap in data (OPHDI, 2018).

Below mentioned table shows the linkages between ten different indicators of poverty and sustainable development goals.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Poverty Dimensions</th>
<th>Indicators</th>
<th>Area of SDG</th>
<th>Individual consider deprived if</th>
<th>Weightage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Health - dimension</td>
<td>Nutrition</td>
<td>SDG 2</td>
<td>Any person under 70 years of age for whom there is nutritional information is undernourished.</td>
<td>1/6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Child Mortality</td>
<td>SDG 3</td>
<td>Any child has died in the family in the five-year period preceding the survey</td>
<td>1/6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Years of schooling</td>
<td>SDG 4</td>
<td>No household member aged 10 years or older has completed six years of schooling.</td>
<td>1/6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education – dimension</td>
<td>School attendance</td>
<td>SDG 4</td>
<td>Any school-aged child+ is not attending school up to the age at which he/she would complete class 8.</td>
<td>1/6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Standard of Living -</td>
<td>Cooking fuel</td>
<td>SDG 7</td>
<td>A household cooks with dung, agricultural crop, shrubs, wood, charcoal or coal.</td>
<td>1/18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sanitation</td>
<td>SDG 11</td>
<td>The household’s sanitation facility is not improved (according to SDG guidelines) or it is improved but shared with other households.</td>
<td>1/18</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Approach to Multidimensional Poverty

| Drinking water | SDG 6 | The household does not have access to improved drinking water (according to SDG guidelines) or safe drinking water is at least a 30-minute walk from home, roundtrip. | 1/18 |
| Electricity | SDG 7 | Household has no electricity | 1/18 |
| Housing | SDG 11 | The household has inadequate housing: the floor is of natural materials or the roof or walls are of rudimentary materials. | 1/18 |
| Assets | SDG 1 | The household does not own more than one of these assets: radio, TV, telephone, computer, animal cart, bicycle, motorbike, or refrigerator, and does not own a car or truck. | 1/18 |

**Table 1.3 Source:** Global MPI 2018 by Oxford Poverty and Human Development Initiative (2018)

**SDGs Interlinkages**

It is represented by the global MPI that the poverty of everyone in different areas of SDG, like housing, sanitation, water, health and education etc. linking to the seven different SDGs. The MPI combines a number of concerns under measure which is significant and if persons are deprived of one third weighted measures, it means they are weak MPIs. The MPI concentrate on those people who are facing deprivation in number of SDGs simultaneously.

**Subsaharan Africa (42%) and South Asia (41%) have most poor people of the world**

Although deprived people are anywhere but maximum poor of the world (more than 1.1 billion) are living in South Asia and Subsaharan Africa. The people face severe poverty in Subsaharan Africa. A smaller portion of global multidimensionally poor is recorded in East Asia, even though the region have major population of the world.

**Literature review**

There are many studies which are conducted on the issue of poverty and multidimensionality of the poverty of the South Asian region but it is hard to find a study which shows that by using these three techniques the multidimensional poverty of the South Asian region is measured and compared collectively. Literature is showing that these techniques are used in the other regions to find out the better technique for poverty measurement which helps to take suitable remedial measures for the region. Literature also highlight that Asian region is affected more by multidimensional poverty and several methods are used to measure it and try to counter it by different recommended policies but more techniques are needed to find out the suitable measure.

Aaberge and Peluso, (2012) studied that there are several studies which examine the problem of ranking and quantification of the extent of deprivation shown by multidimensional distributions, where the multiple traits in which an individual can be
underprivileged are represented by dichotomized variables. The researcher’s aggregate deprived individuals into a deprivation count. Under the head of deprivation count they discuss the dimensions an individual is deprived. Sen (1974) and Yaari (1988) originate the rank dependent social evaluation framework which helps the researchers to aggregate that individual deprivation to summaries in the measures of deprivation. Multiple deprivations distribution’s decomposition dispersion and mean is proving to admit.

Edem et al., (2020) emphasized the importance of the poverty with the help of a micro level study conducted for the region of Obudu, Nigeria. The author took a sample of 417 respondents and examined 84.75 percent people in the sample could not afford to give proper diet to their family twice a day while 96 percent could not afford to give square meal to their family thrice a day.

Agba et al., (2020) examined the role of local government in eliminating the poverty among the region and results concluded that large population of the area still suffers with the poverty and its harming effects. In this study researchers also accomplished that there are some social and macro factors caused for poverty.

Pasha (2017) examined the repercussions of a scheme which provides alternative weighting for the multidimensional poverty index (MPI) by using a data driven approach, as alluded to the equal weighting scheme which currently used. This scheme of weighting has been under serious inspection as the MPI’s inception, provided the sensitive nature of country ranking to many indicator and weights preferences. The recent study therefore uses the Multiple Correspondence Analysis (MCA) for the indicators weighting and scrutinizes its effect on the relative ranking and scores of 28 countries. The outcome shows that three dimensions equal weighting is statistically not justified. Furthermore, it is noticed that statistical weights systematically vary along through countries, stating disparities in deprivation all over areas, even though poverty of household standings are correlated highly for both statistical and normative weights. Despite the strong similarity among all metrics used within the MPI, there is a significant statistics overlap, suggesting that there may be not really be so much multidimensionality even within MPI dimensions.

Alkire and Santos (2010) studied that the multidimensional poverty index (MPI) of 104 developing countries estimate by taking micro datasets which includes household surveys for those developing countries which covers the world’s 78% population. The one of the Alkire and Fosters’ mathematical structure of multidimensional measure is used to estimate the multidimensional poverty index (MPI). The MPI derive by the three different dimensions of living standards, education and health as the Human Development Index covers. Under these three heads tend indicators are the main composition of the MPI. A set of direct deprivations also covered by the MPI which batter an individual simultaneously. Alkire and Housseini (2014) discussed the Oxford Poverty and Human Development Initiative (OPHI) developed the Global Multidimensional Poverty Index (MPI) launched in 2010 and UNDP’s Human Development Reports (HDR) reported.
APPROACH TO MULTIDIMENSIONAL POVERTY

Rippin (2010) Studied the Multidimensional Poverty Measures axiomatic foundation. Rippin presented a family of poverty measures whose specific, axiomatically implied weighting arrangement gives the solution of exaggeration problem for ordinal and cardinal data. Simultaneously independent relationship is allowing between attributes. MPI is the special case of this family.

Chakravarty and D’Ambrosio (2006) shape up an approach which is an axiomatic and for the social exclusion measurement. It is observed at the individual level as in deprivation terms of an individual with regard to the various societal functioning. They see social exclusion as an individual exclusion function at the aggregate level. An independent axioms set is identified as the subgroup decomposable class of social exclusion measures. By the exclusion dominance principle they study the problem of ranking exclusion profiles within certain limitations. Application of non-decomposable measures and decomposable measures advised by using data of European Union and Italian data.

Berenger (2017) studied and examine the significance of latest methodological enhancements of the “Counting Approach” to measurements of multidimensional poverty. An experiential design is provided by the Demographic and Health Surveys. The comparison between MPI and other measurements which counts deprivation among persons and sensitive to its distribution. When it computes by the measures of Rippin (2010) and Chakravarty and D’Ambrosio (2006) and other measurements of Multidimensional Poverty. It shows that consideration of numerous poverty measures are useful when national poverty trends are analyzing and when distinction is built.

Methods and Materials
This study comprises three measures for assessment of multidimensional poverty in South Asian region by taking three countries (Pakistan, India and Bangladesh) as a sample of the study. Three measures which are used in this research are; “Dimensions Adjusted” Poverty Measures by Alkire and Foster (2011), Class of Ordinal Poverty Measures by The Rippin (2010) and Class of Poverty Measure by The Chakravarty and D’Ambrosio (2006). The results of these three techniques will be compare to find out the better measurement indices of multidimensional poverty for the South Asian region.

Dimensions, Indicators, Weights and Cutoffs
Under this head we are taking three dimensions (living standards, education and health) in global MPI and further divided into 10 indicators. Each dimension is equally weighted, so every indicator of a dimension is equally distributed. A person is considered as poor multidimensionally if he or she is destitute of at least one third of the weighted indicators (Global MPI, 2018).
Method

The main base of all three techniques which we are going to use in this study is the counting based approach which use for the poverty measurement.

The Counting Based Approach to Poverty Measurement

Two steps are involved in devising the counting based poverty measures: first step is about the identification of poor (Berenger, 2019).

\[ C_i(x_i, z, w) = \sum_{j=1}^{m} \xi(x_{ij}, z_j)w_j \]  

“Dimensions Adjusted” Poverty Measures by Alkire and Foster (2011)

When poverty attributes are dichotomized variables then the function of the poverty is:

\[ M_0 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \psi_{AF}(x_i; z; k)c_i \]  

Where \( c_i \) is given by (1). It satisfies dimensional monotonicity and which used for the MPI and known as adjusted headcount ratio. It is entitled as \( M_0 \) by Alkire and Foster (2011) which is possible to state \( M_0 = HA \), that is the product of the multidimensionally poor person \( s \) percentage (\( H \)) times the average deprivations share across poor persons (\( A \)). Though, \( M_0 \) is indifferent to the deprivations distribution among the poor (Berenger, 2019).

Class of Ordinal Poverty Measures by the Rippin (2010)

\[ P_{\gamma}^{RI} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} c_{i}^{\gamma + 1} \]  

At this point \( \gamma \) is an aversion consideration the association within attributes. This poverty measures class is sensitive to the deprivation focus for \( \gamma \geq 0 \). In addition, it not only satisfies subgroup decomposability, but also factor decomposability, as (3) may be expressed as:

\[ P_{\gamma}^{RI} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=1}^{m} w_j \sum_{i=1}^{n} \xi(x_{ij}; z_j)c_i^{\gamma} \]  

Not like the Alkire and Foster (2011) measures, \( c_i^{\gamma} \) perform like a weight function, the input of a specified dimension to total poverty is more sensitive when an individual is facing deprivation in that dimension cumulate deprivations in other dimensions. By using the multiplicative decomposition of the FGT index which is developed by Aristondo et al., (2010), (4) is able to decomposed into the three ‘I’\’s of poverty (Jenkins & Lambert, 1997):

\[ P_{\gamma}^{RI} = HA^{\gamma + 1}\{1 + [(\gamma + 1)^2 - (\gamma + 1)]GE_{\gamma + 1}(c)\} \]
APPROACH TO MULTIDIMENSIONAL POVERTY

Using $H$ the ratio of multidimensional headcount, $A$ the deprivation intensity among the poor and $GE_{y+1}(c)$ is the generalized entropy inequality index within poor. Specific contributions are highlighted by this decomposition of a change in one of these factors to the overall change in the index of poverty. It represent that whether the decline in poverty reaches to the poorest of the poor.

Class of Poverty Measure by the Chakravarty and D’Ambrosio (2006)

$$P_{\alpha}^{CD} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} c_i^\alpha$$

Through an implicit union approach, this measures class complies by an axiom which is similar to the Pigou-Dalton transfer if $\alpha > 1$ and even for more general identification approaches. For $\alpha = 2$, $P_{\alpha}^{CD}$ can be written again as taking the sum of $M_0^2$ and the variance of deprivation of the society scores $\sigma^2$:

$$P_2^{CD} = M_0^2 + \sigma^2 \quad \text{................................................................. (6)}$$

Even though, expressions (3) for PRI and (6) for PCD are equivalent and could be presented as a measures of single family, they are established on a different approach to inequality between dimensions. The Rippin measures class incorporates both efficiency considerations and distributive justice. Rippin (2010) introduces considerations of distributive fairness at the identification step by considering all deprivations (following the union approach) and assumptions on the degree of association among dimensions through the parameter $\gamma$. Not like Rippin measures class $P_{\alpha}^{CD}$ does not allow for factor decomposability. However, since $P_{\alpha}^{CD}$ can be view as a formulation of FGT measure, when $\alpha = 2$, it can be also expressed as:

$$P_2^{CD} = HA^2 \left[ 1 + \left( \frac{\sigma_p^2}{A^2} \right) \right] \quad \text{................................................................. (8)}$$

With $\sigma_p^2$ the variance of deprivation scores within poor. We note that ratio $\frac{\sigma_p^2}{A^2}$ is somehow analogous to the square of the coefficient of variation of weighted deprivations among the poor.

Data Description

Secondary data is taken in this research to evaluate the different dimensions of poverty in South Asian region. UNDP drive the MPI by using the DHS in several countries so in this study we are going to use the data from DHS for MPI and other measurements. Table 1. Presents the list of indicators which used in MPI. The dimensions of MPI are similar to the Human Development Index (HDI). DHS surveys are taking place usually almost in every 5 years and using sample size between 5000 to 30000 households in different regions of the world.
Table 4
Variables and Dimensions selected to measure the poverty by using different Measurement approaches

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimension</th>
<th>Indicators</th>
<th>Cut-off</th>
<th>Relative weight</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>Child Enrollment</td>
<td>School aged child (6-15) not attending school</td>
<td>1/6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Years of Schooling</td>
<td>No Household member completed 5 years of schooling, aged 10 year or older.</td>
<td>1/6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health</td>
<td>Nutrition</td>
<td>One or more adults are underweight (in terms of BMI) or a child is undernourished (in terms of height or age)</td>
<td>1/6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mortality</td>
<td>Any child who has died from a household</td>
<td>1/6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Standard of Living</td>
<td>Water</td>
<td>No access to safe drinking water source within 30 minutes one-way distance from the residence</td>
<td>1/18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Electricity</td>
<td>Household has no electricity</td>
<td>1/18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sanitation</td>
<td>Household sanitation facility is not improved or shared</td>
<td>1/18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Floor</td>
<td>Household has rudimentary floor</td>
<td>1/18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cooking fuel</td>
<td>Household cooks with dung, wood, charcoal and other solid fuels</td>
<td>1/18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Assets</td>
<td>Household does not own more than one radio, TV, telephone, bicycle, motorcycle or refrigerator and does not own a car</td>
<td>1/18</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The proposed methodology which adopted is nested weight structure. In this methodology each indicator has the similar weightage for each given dimension and each dimension also has the same weight (Berenger, 2019).

Sample selection (with full justifications)
Sample of three Asian countries selected by proportionate method of sampling, using trifold sample selection criteria.

Table 5
Names of the selected Sample Countries

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S. No</th>
<th>Country</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
Below mentioned points are taken under consideration during sample selection.

1. These three countries covers more than 90% population of the region
2. Latest data of these countries is available, for example we don’t have latest data of Sri Lanka on DHS.
3. Based on the different UNDP and other agencies reports the most poverty affected countries are taken. As recent studies describe that 364 million poor people are living in India, the second largest number of poor people which is around 97 million are living in Nigeria, 86 million are in Ethiopia, 85 million are living in Pakistan and 67 million poor people’s home is Bangladesh. Pakistan. National income measures took $1.90 per day as the line of poverty (OPHD1, 2018).

Data Analysis
This study comprises three measures for assessment of multidimensional poverty in South Asian region by taking three countries (Pakistan, India and Bangladesh) as a sample of the study. Three measures which are used in this research are; “Dimensions Adjusted” Poverty Measures by Alkire and Foster (2011), Class of Ordinal Poverty Measures by The Rippin (2010) and Class of Poverty Measure by The Chakravarty and D’Ambrosio (2006). The results of these three techniques will be compare to find out the better measurement indices of multidimensional poverty for the South Asian region.

Data Processing
As large data sets were found for sample countries so we consider the 5000 observations of all three sample countries for our study, which is minimum benchmark sample size for demographic health surveys.

Data Recoding
The available data sets are in ordinal form but responses are not as per requirements of Alkire and Foster (2011) adjusted head count method. That was requirement of the analysis of the data to recode the data accordingly. For example, responses of households were recorded as yes or no, which were label 1 in case of yes and 0 as no or otherwise. According to our adopted three methods and specifically Alkire and Foster (2011) it is required that in case of a person is deprived in an indicator so it should be record as 1 which means that respondent is 100 percent deprived in this indicator and in opposite scenario it will be recorded as 0 (non-deprived). To fulfill this basic requirement we recoded the data accordingly as ignorance of this step could mislead the results of the analysis.

Composite Index of Variable (Assets)
As we are considering seven different items under the head of assets, like household does not own more than one radio, television, bicycle, telephone, refrigerator,
motorcycle and does not a care. A variable asset is composition of all these seven items which required for the analysis of data.

**Handling of Missing Values**

As Alkire and Foster (2015) suggest two types of treatment of missing values, one is to drop the value which is useful for ordinal data and other is to create a rule to assign number to the missing value which is mostly used for cardinal data. In our study we drop the missing values of the data set to get most accurate results.

**Multiple Correspondence Analysis (MCA)**

Alkire et al., (2015) suggest Multiple Correspondence Analysis to analyze the ordinal data for multidimensional poverty measures. Implementation of Multiple Correspondence Analysis by using ten different indicators formed different number of dimensions. Scree plot of principal inertias help us to select the number of dimensions which are useful to summaries the data. Summarization is helpful for further analysis of data to get the ultimate result. Value of principal inertia is higher than 0 then we can take those dimension to summaries the results.

![Scree plot of principal inertias after mca](image)

**Aggregation of different Dimensions**

To combine the selected dimensions by considering principal inertias value, by using the Multi Correspondence Analysis. We combined the selected dimensions as guided by Alkire et al., (2015). The process of aggregation is taken place by multiplying the dimension one values by dimension two after dividing by their variance just to give as a weight. As a result we find a new single dimension which has aggregated values of this whole procedure and we use this to count the number of deprived individuals (H) and average intensity of poverty (A).

**Results and Discussion**

**Alkire and Foster (2011) Dimension Adjusted Approach Pakistan**

By using Alkire and Foster (2011) approach the data of three sample countries is analyzed for three different years. First of all we would like to discuss the results of Pakistan, for which we use data of three different durations (2006-07, 2012-13, & 2017-18). The percentage of multidimensional poor person (H) in 2006-07 is 16 percent, for 2012-13 is 36 percent and for 2017-18 is 35 percent. The relative change between 2007 and 2013 is 20 percent, which means that 20 percent increment noted in number of...
individuals who are multidimensional poor. From 2013 to 2018 negative trend is noted as result shows that -1 percent decrease is recorded in number of people who are multidimensional poor ($H$).

The table of Alkire and Foster (2011) measurement also shows that average intensity of multidimensional poverty ($A$) in 2006-07 recorded as 42 percent which increased by 1 percent from 2007 to 2013 and no notable change recorded in 2018 results. These results shows that on average people are deprived in 42 percent dimensions in 2006-07 and 43 percent in remaining two years results.

As adjusted headcount ratio ($M_0$) or the MPI is the product of $M_0= HA$, so we will see the similar changes in the value of $M_0$. During the 2007 value of MPI is 7 percent and 15 percent recorded in 2013 and 2018 results. The relative change during 2007 and 2013 is noted as 8 percent and no notable change recorded during 2013 and 2018.

When we see the results, it is noted that a raise is recorded in MPI of Pakistan. The raise in multidimensional poverty could be due to terrorism activities which were on peak in 2007 to 2013 until the national action plan is implemented. Hyder et al., (2015) showed in their study that terrorism has severely affected the socio-economic structure of Pakistan. Lot of migration took place due to several operations by Pakistan Army in tribal areas to control the terrorism activities. These operations cause collapse of infrastructure which also damage all three main dimensions of multidimensional poverty (Education, Health and Living Standard).

### Table 6
**Poverty measures by Alkire and Foster 2011**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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<th></th>
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<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1.19%</td>
<td>0.56%</td>
<td>0.33%</td>
<td>0.34%</td>
<td>0.35%</td>
<td>0.36%</td>
<td>0.37%</td>
<td>0.38%</td>
<td>0.39%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.23%</td>
<td>0.24%</td>
<td>0.29%</td>
<td>1.00%</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>0.12%</td>
<td>0.12%</td>
<td>1.14%</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2.25%</td>
<td>0.31%</td>
<td>0.25%</td>
<td>0.90%</td>
<td>0.90%</td>
<td>0.10%</td>
<td>0.11%</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Another reason to raise the MPI in the beginning could be that the urbanization of Pakistan in these years was on increasing trend which raised the MPI. DHS increased their survey area, that might be included those districts or areas which are more multidimensionally poor, like; districts of Balochistan and KPK which were not accessible during 2006-07 due to law and order situation of these provinces. Iqbal et al., (2018) described in their study that micro financing played a vital role to reduce poverty in rural areas of Pakistan during 2018.
Bangladesh

By using Alkir and Foster (2011) approach the second sample country to discuss is the Bangladesh, for which we use data of three different durations (2007, 2011, & 2014). The percentage of multidimensional poor ($H$) in 2007 is 25 percent, for 2011 is 24 percent and for 2014 is 29 percent. The relative change between 2007 and 2011 is 1 percent, which means that 1 percent decrease noted in number of individuals who are multidimensional poor. From 2011 to 2014 also positive trend is noted as result shows that 5 percent increase is recorded in number of people who are multidimensional poor ($H$).

The table of Alkire and Foster (2011) measurement shows that average intensity of multidimensional poverty ($A$) in 2007 is 48 percent which increased by 4 percent in 2011 and negative change recorded in 2014 results, which is -3 percent. These results shows that on average people are deprived in 48 percent dimensions during 2007 and 52 percent in 2011 and -3 percent decrease is recorded in 2014 results which is 49 percent.

As adjusted headcount ratio ($M_0$) or the MPI is the product of $M_0 = HA$, so we will see the similar changes in the value of $M_0$. During 2007 value of MPI is 12 percent and same recorded in 2011, only 2 percent increase recorded in 2014 results. The relative change during 2007 and 2011 is 0 percent and 2 percent change recorded during 2014. Salahuddin et al., (2013) indicated in their study that long run relationship exist between financial development, economic growth and poverty reduction in Bangladesh. The stability in MPI of Bangladesh could be, because the country like Bangladesh was not having law and order situation like Pakistan during this tenure. That did not disturb their education, health and living standards. The second thing which could be an important factor is industry flee from Pakistan and took place in Bangladesh. The intensity of poverty in Bangladesh is higher than Pakistan which shows that the poor of Bangladesh is more deprived in three dimensions as compare with deprived individual in Pakistan. In last year 2 percent increase is recorded only.

India

By using Alkir and Foster (2011) approach our third sample country is India. We use data of three different durations (1998-99, 2005-06, & 2015-16). The percentage of multidimensional poor person ($H$) in 1998-99 is 23 percent, for 2005-06 is 31 percent and for 2015-16 is 25 percent. The relative change between 1999 and 2006 is 8 percent, which means that 8 percent increment noted in number of individuals who are multidimensional poor. From 2006 to 2016 negative trend is noted as result shows that -6 percent decrease is recorded in number of people who are multidimensional poor ($H$).

The table of Alkire and Foster (2011) measurement also shows that average intensity of multidimensional poverty ($A$) in 1998-99 is 43 percent which increased by 1 percent during 2006 and -1 percent decrease recorded during 20016, which means that average intensity of poverty is declined by 1 percent from 2006 to 2016. These results shows that on average people are deprived in 43 percent dimensions in 1998-99, 44 percent in 2005-06 and 43 percent again in 2016 results.
As adjusted headcount ratio \((M_0)\) or the MPI is the product of \(M_0 = HA\), so we will see the similar changes in the value of \(M_0\). During the 1999 value of MPI is 10 percent, 14 percent recorded in 2006 and 11 percent noted in 2016 results. The relative change during 1999 and 2006 is noted as 4 percent and -3 percent in 2016.

The results of our calculated MPI shows boost of 4 percent from 1999 to 2006, which could be due to several reasons. We may consider the urbanization issue like the whole region India is also facing this issue, which increase the multidimensional poverty. The second aspect is expansion of data collection population from urban area to rural areas, which could have impact on the results of MPI calculation. When we see the indicators of three dimensions India is highlighted internationally like, UNDP that India does not have basic sanitation facilities as majority of people facing deprivation in this indicator. Drinking water is also not easily accessible so these could be the reasons to increase the graph of MPI during 1999 to 2006. According to the Global MPI (2019) it is noted that a declining trend is recorded during 2006 to 2016 MPI. As our results shows that from 2006 to 2016 the MPI is declined 3 percent. This could be due to several programs which run by UNDP in India to help out the deprived individuals. The boost in the information and technology industry also has positive impact because the share of India in global IT industry is significant. Sehrawat et al., (2016) described that in long run and short run, financial development and economic growth reduce poverty in India.

The results of our study by using Alkire and Foster (2011) method are not consistent with the study of Berenger (2019) which is conducted in Africa by using this technique. Berenger (2019) study shows that only decline is recorded in the sample countries by using this method which was due to several poverty reduction programs in those sample countries. The concentration of the whole world (UN) is on the African countries, as severe poverty recorded in this region. In Asia UN also launched different programs to control the multidimensional poverty but in our sample countries the poverty reduction is not significant except India.

Rippin’s (2010) Measures

| Table 7 | Rippin’s (2010) measures’ variations and their components of \(\gamma=1.5\) |
|---------|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|
| Pakistan | 2007-2013 | 2013-2018 |
| K=33% National | \(\Delta P_{RI}\) | \(\Delta H\) | \(\Delta A^{2.5}\) | \(\Delta GE^{2.5}\) | \(\Delta P_{RI}\) | \(\Delta H\) | \(\Delta A^{2.5}\) | \(\Delta GE^{2.5}\) |
| Pakistan | 187.50 | 20.00 | -02.50 | -9.375 | 1.01 | -01.00 | 02.00 | -1.27 |
| Bangladesh | 2007-11 | 2011-14 |
| K=33% National | 05.28 | -01.00 | 10.00 | -1.32 | -15.90 | 05.00 | -07.50 | 1.06 |
| India | 1999-06 | 2006-16 |
| K=33% National | 08.40 | 08.00 | 02.50 | 1.05 | -01.06 | -06.00 | -02.50 | -0.178 |

Rippin’s (2010) is the measure which allows the multiplicative decomposition among the intensity \((A^{2.5})\), incidence of poverty \((H)\) and inequality of deprivations among.
the deprived individuals. Above mentioned table shows the outcomes of the decomposition of poverty measures which is based on Rippin’s (2010) approach. The parameter value of the extent of severity of poverty $\gamma$ is equal to 1.5. Value of Rippin’s (2010) measures which is denoted by $P^{RI}$, increase by 187.50 percent during 2007-13 and increase by 1 percent from 2013-18 in case of Pakistan. $GE^{2.5}$ shows that inequality in deprivations among the poor decrease by 9.38 percent and during 2013 and 2018 it is 1.27 percent. In case of our second sample country (Bangladesh) $P^{RI}$ increase 5.28 percent from 2007 to 2011 and decrease 15.90 percent from 2011 to 2014. $GE^{2.5}$ from 2007 to 2011 decrease by 1.32 percent and increase by 1.06 percent from 2011 to 2014. Which shows that inequality in deprivations among poor decrease in first tenure and increase in second tenure. Our third sample country (India) Rippin’s (2010) measures $P^{RI}$ shows 8.4 increase from 1999 to 2006 and 1.06 percent decrease from 2006 to 2016, the comparison between two tenure shows decline of poverty on average. $GE^{2.5}$ of India during 1999 in 2006 is 1 percent which shows increase in inequality in deprivations among poor and a nominal decrease from 2006 to 2016. Results of our sample by using Rippin’s (2010) are inconsistent with Berenger (2019) study. Study of Berenger (2019) conducted in African region and showed decline in head count ratio and intensity of the poverty in the region. Our study shows increase in deprived individuals and intensity of poverty in South Asian region.

### Table 8

| Chakravarty and D’Ambrosio Measures of Poverty ($P^{CD}$ with $\alpha =2$) |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Pakistan K=33% National | $P^{CD}$ | RC (%) | $\alpha^2$ | RC (%) |
| 0.28 | 0.36 | 0.56 | 08.00 | 20.00 | 0.017 | 0.019 | 0.032 | 0.20 | 1.30 |
| Bangladesh K=33% National | $P^{CD}$ | RC (%) | $\alpha^2$ | RC (%) |
| 0.46 | 0.79 | 0.61 | 33.00 | -18.00 | 0.018 | 0.033 | 0.021 | 1.50 | -1.20 |
| India K=33% National | $P^{CD}$ | RC (%) | $\alpha^2$ | RC (%) |
| 0.65 | 0.53 | 0.24 | -12.00 | -29.00 | 0.028 | 0.017 | 0.019 | -1.10 | 0.20 |

**Source:** Author’s illustration based on Calculations.
APPRAOCH TO MULTIDIMENSIONAL POVERTY

tenure (2011-2014). Third sample country (India) shows 12 percent decrease in poverty estimates from 1999 to 2006 tenure and decreasing trend is continue in 2006 to 2016 duration. The contribution of inequality components in our first sample country (Pakistan) shows nominal increment in first duration (2006 – 2012) and 1.30 percent increase in second duration (2012 – 2018), which means that weightage of sever poverty within multidimensional deprived individuals increased by these numbers respectively. The second sample country (Bangladesh) shows 1.50 percent increase in contribution of inequality components during first tenure (2007 – 2011), and 1.20 percent decrease in second tenure (2011 – 2014). In case of third sample country (India) result shows that during first period (1999 – 2006) the contribution of inequality components decrease by 1.10 percent and increase by nominal percentage in second tenure (2006 – 2016). Result of our sample country India is consistent with the Berenger (2019) study as relative change shows decline in poverty. Results of other two sample countries (Pakistan, Bangladesh) are inconsistent with the Berenger (2019) by using Chakravary and D’Ambrosio (2006) measure. Other international reports (OPHDI, 2018) also showed that decline of poverty in India is significant in the region.

Conclusion
The main objective of this study was to compare the obtained results when using three different poverty measures which are proposed by Alkire and Foster (2011), like MPI by UNDP, and counting based poverty measures, which are sensitive to inequality measures. These are measures which are proposed by Rippin (2010) and Chakravarty and D’Ambrosio (2006). The dual cut-off method used to identify poor individuals by setting value of K=33. This study showed that how the other measurement approaches complements the results obtained by MPI with regard to inequality.

The DHS surveys data of poverty measurement is used for three different years of Pakistan (2006-07, 2012-13 and 2017-18), Bangladesh (2007, 2011 and 2014) and India (1998-99, 2005-06 and 2015-16) by considering deprivation in three dimensions of poverty, which are education, health and standard of living.

The results of our study shows that the highest poverty level is found in India followed by Bangladesh and Pakistan by using Alkire and Foster (2011) method to measure multidimensional poverty. In case of Rippin’s (2010) method we found that highest reduction of inequality within deprived individuals is found in Pakistan, and increase in Bangladesh, and India. The third approach of Chakravarty and D’Ambrosio (2006) shows that highest poverty estimation is found in India followed by Bangladesh and Pakistan. In case of contribution of inequality components it is found that they are increased in all three countries approximately at similar level. The evolution of multidimensional poverty over time for each country examine by using three multidimensional poverty measures, which provided insightful information on the evolution of the inequality and breadth of multidimensional poverty.
Table 9

Number of People who are counted as deprived and MPI poor in South Asia

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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<th></th>
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<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Child Enrolment</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Years of Schooling</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nutrition</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mortality</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Water</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>1.33</td>
<td>1.23</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1.64</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Electricity</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>1.17</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>1.72</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sanitation</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Floor</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cooking Fuel</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assets</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>99</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Author’s illustration based on Calculations.

Above table is presenting the MPI poor individual share in different indicators in our three sample countries. Child enrolment share is alarming for Pakistan as it is showing increasing trend and country need to prioritize it and do strict actions against child labor and motivate their parents to enroll them in schools. Primary level years of non-completion percentage is high in Pakistan and Bangladesh, so both countries need to monitor the enrolled student that they must complete their education without any disturbance. Third indicator nutrition is showing more deprived people in India and Bangladesh as compare to Pakistan. Both countries should make sure that available food is hygienic and must fulfill the required nutrition. Fourth indicator mortality is higher in all three sample countries. All three countries need to concentrate on child vaccination and better facilities of maternity to control this deprivation. Water facility is better in all three countries. Proper sanitation is required in all three countries. Due to haphazardly developed new cities and expansion of towns creating problem for proper sanitation. Planned cities and proper implementation of rules and regulation of different development authorities will help to solve this issue. Illegal construction on drainage is also on major reason to create hurdle in proper sanitation. Bangladesh housing facilities like floor is not as per the standard. Cooking fuel is one of the basic necessity, Bangladesh and Pakistan is facing more deprivation in this indicator. Both countries need to provide the natural gas for cooking, it is economical and also environment friendly and it will also stop deforestation. The cutoff line for asset is that household does not own more than one radio, TV, telephone, bicycle, motorcycle or refrigerator and does not own a car. All three sample countries showing high deprivation in assets.

Regional Level Recommendations

As our study comprises on the sample of three countries, which are major countries of the Region and cover most of the population of the region, so we would like to give recommendations at regional level and national level also.

- As this study showed that all three approaches to measure multidimensional poverty, provided results which tell us about breadth and inequality of poverty, so it is recommended to implement these techniques at regional level to get the results which will be helpful for SAARC to make the policies accordingly for the region.
APPROACH TO MULTIDIMENSIONAL POVERTY

- As results of India shows a significant decline in poverty from 2006 to 2016 and OPHDI (2018) report also described that India reduce poverty in all ten indicators and they target the rural areas extensively to reduce the poverty which shows the results. India also implemented several social protection programs which aim to improve living standard of their people. So the second recommendation is that SAARC countries should learn from India to let the multidimensional poverty down.

- UNDP programs are also looks fruitful in India so other countries of the region should also make sure that implementation of UNDP programs and other aid programs should be utilize efficiently and effectively with good monitoring and control system.

National Level Recommendations

- Results of our study showed that all three measurement to measure the depth and inequality of multidimensional poverty are effective, so these all three measurements are recommended at national level to measure the multidimensional poverty.

- These approaches could be implemented at district levels which help the policy makers to make the policies which will be effective to reduce the depth and inequality of multidimensional poverty at grass root level.

- It is also recommended at national level that we should make sure the data is collected properly from rural areas and those areas which are far behind in development.

- These techniques would be helpful to highlight the more deprived districts, which will be help for international donor agencies and national policy makers to concentrate on more deprived areas and indicators.

- The stakeholders who can play an important role are: Civil Society, Academia, Major faith groups and donors, Private sector and Government agencies for poverty alleviation.

References
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APPROACH TO MULTIDIMENSIONAL POVERTY


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Discovering Mechanisms of Changes during Lesson Study in Mathematics Classroom

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In the current study the Main purpose is to use a new model of lesson study which discover mechanisms of change in the mathematics classroom. In this regard, six secondary school mathematics teachers and one professor of mathematics education co-operation for developing a new lesson which related to concept of trigonometry. This study administrated in 6 months and all members participate in 6 sessions for developing 3 research lessons. Indeed, lesson study was used as research design in current study. Results of this study show that the modified lessons which developed through respiting lesson study cycle in 3 times, work effectively and teaching method of mathematics’ teachers was enhanced caused by this lesson study experience. Analysis of data reveals the mechanism of changes during this lesson study which are common attention, share experiences, observe challenges of teaching in the classroom, and feel the need and urgency of change. Furthermore, participants in this study mentioned some benefits of doing lesson study as affordances which are considering students’ needs, increasing teachers’ capability in the process of teaching and learning mathematics when students work in the group. Participant teachers in current study discussed about difficulties of using lesson study in their mathematics classroom.

Keywords: lesson study, mechanism of changes, ratio, affordances

There are many factors which influence the process of learning and teaching mathematics. Some researchers such as Elsayed, Abbas, and Abdou (2021) focused on using educational theories for enhancing creativity of students in math education. However, in recent decades, many scholars in the field of education have emphasized the influence of the knowledge of teachers for increasing the quality of teaching and learning (Stigler & Hibert, 1999). Indeed, a high quality curriculum will be succeeding if educated teachers conduct it (Gooya, 2001). But, teachers of mathematics don’t interest to follow top-down decision which provide by policy makers for curriculum changes (Clements & Elerton, 1996) and this caused increasing gap between educational theories and teachers teaching practices. Review of literature show that there are several approaches for engaging teacher in curriculum change. For example, through lesson study, teachers can collaborate for improving their teaching method upon solid knowledge from literature.

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Lesson study was introduced by Yoshida (1999) and after publication of a book with the title “Teaching Gap” (Stigler & Hiebert, 1999) distributed to the English speaking world.

Ministry of education in Iran introduced Lesson study and action research for several years, but results of several researches show that there is little evidence for improving teaching process (e.g. Chaichi, et al., 2006). In this regard Ponte (2017) call for doing more researches in new cultural context to adopt a suitable model for lesson study. In our study we try to present challenges and affordances of conducting modified lesson study model in Iran context. So, in this regard below three research question direct current study.

- In the process of teaching trigonometry ratio, what are the mechanisms of change?
- What are the component of modified lesson study cycle which works in the context of Iran?
- What are the limitations and affordances of using modified lesson study cycle?

The Lesson Study approach was used in Japanese schools for the first time for professional development of teachers. Indeed, this approach used by Japanese teachers. According to Isoda (2007) historical trend of lesson study reach to Meiji government in the 1880s. doctoral dissertation of Yoshida by 1999, introduced lesson study to the world. After that by the book with title “The Teaching Gap” lesson study introduced broadly to international educators (Stigler & Hiebert, 1999). Japanese lesson study has four steps contain goals, plane, research lesson and reflection (Lewis, 2002).

Currently, lesson study used by teachers and researcher from many countries around the world. Especially lesson study adopted for teacher education (Doig & Groves, 2011). In another study, Lewis et al., (2006) pointed to distribution of lesson study in many schools all over the United States of America. Similarly, in other places of the world modified model of lesson study has been implemented for example in UK (Department for Children, Schools and Families, 2008), in Canada (Miller 2010), in Australia (Pierce & Stacey 2009).

Iranian mathematics educators became familiar with lesson study through several papers that published in the national journals in Persian language (the official language of Iran). Gooya (1991) was one of the pioneers’ papers related to lesson study which published in quarterly journal of education. Then the book with title “The Teaching Gap” translated into the Persian and then several master theses conducted around the countries in this regard. For example, Khakbaz (2007) in her master thesis developed a professional development model for middle school mathematics teachers based on lesson study, but her model concern about general aspects of education and wasn’t related to specific mathematics content in real classroom.

Several studies (e.g. Lewis & Tsuchida 1998; Stigler & Hiebert 1999, Chen & Yang 2013), report that lesson study cause improve teaching process. Some other studies (e.g. Puchner & Taylor, 2006; Lewis et al., 2011; Murata et al., 2012; Lewis et al., 2013) show that lesson study cause improve teacher’s pedagogical knowledge.
DISCOVERING MECHANISMS OF CHANGES

Methods

Participant of the study was six secondary school math teachers. All participants were female who participate voluntary in the study and they are interesting to learning through the process of this research in six months. Teaching experiences of participants varied from 10-20 years and all teachers work at secondary school level in one of the southeast provinces of Iran. Eight research lessons were designed during fifteen sessions of group discussion in the content of trigonometric ratio. Lesson study focused on trigonometric ratio, because, upon teachers’ experiences usually students have difficulties to understanding trigonometric ratio. Several studies in literature discuss students’ difficulties in trigonometric ratio, function and concepts (such as Weber, 2005; Gür, 2009; Akkoç & Akbaş-Gül, 2010; Moore, 2012 & Klein, 2015). Since trigonometric ratio, function and concepts appear in higher level of education and have several applications in different disciplines at university level, teachers who participated in this study concentrate on trigonometric ratio.

Several tools were used for data collection (e.g. interview with participants, observation of the process of teaching research lesson, fields note of participant, video of teachers meeting and classroom teaching, finally all handwriting of students’ in the classroom). For data analysis, constant comparison method (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) applied for two sessions of research lessons. There are different ideas and models for lesson study, simple model has four step (see figure 1) which introduced by Lewis et al., (2006) which similar to the action research cycle introduced by Clements and Elerton (1996, see figure 2).

![Figure 1](four_step_model_lesson_study.png)  
**FIGURE 1.** Four step model for Lesson Study (Lewis et al., 2006)

![Figure 2](action_research_cycle.png)  
**FIGURE 2.** One cycle of Action Research (Clements and Elerton, 1996)
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Results

Results which present in this section triangulated from field note, group discussion, and transcript of video recording. Results reveal that modified model of lesson study works properly in the Iran context. Teaching process of participant’s teachers was changed and this show that the modified model of lesson study work effectively. For example, one of the teachers report she started her lesson with a diagnostic test in the future to find the strengths and weaknesses of learners.

Four changes identified in research lesson which are changes in discussion through whole-class, changes in structure of lesson, changes in choosing rich mathematical tasks, and changes in questions that teachers ask during the process of teaching of concept. Mechanisms which direct these changes were common attention, share experiences, observe challenges of teaching in the classroom, and feel the need and urgency of change.

Participants of current study reveal affordances and challenges of using modified model of lesson study. Indeed, they discussed that lesson study increased teachers’ consciousness for considering students’ need and ability of teachers improved through group working. Teachers who engaged in this study also talk about challenges of using modified lesson study model which are administrative structure and limitation in time. Participants start to introduce typical classroom which teacher teach trigonometry ratios. One of teachers said that I usually start the teaching with a question “how you can calculate the height of a supposed building with math concept?” and then I start to teach trigonometry trough discussing about right triangular. But, another two teacher said we start with an activity from textbook. Indeed, they start by asking students to do special activity. Another Teacher prefer to start with figure 3 to introduce trigonometry ratios.

FIGURE 3. Starting point for introducing trigonometry ratios

The last teacher who start her lesson by figure 3, discussed about trigonometry ratio in different triangular which gives us a same result. Indeed, if we consider angle constantly, the sides become larger as the ratio of the opposite side to the chord and the side adjacent to the chord remain constant. After several discussions about starting point for teaching trigonometry ratios, participants start to plane a lesson.

Review of literature about lesson study cycle (e.g. Fernandez, & Yoshida, 2004; Lewis, Perry, & Hurd, 2009; Robinson, & Leikin, 2011; Rafiepour, 2017), show there are some common features in all lesson study cycle. Upon literature review and experiences of writers a suitable model introduced as figure 4. Indeed, essence of all lesson study cycles are the same and based on teachers’ collaboration around a common educational goal. In the previous lesson study cycle that exist in literature, there is no starting point
for discovering a problem for starting lesson study. Although in Rafiepour (2017) point to this issue briefly, but researcher experiences show that teachers of mathematics still need more help for defining a problem for starting lesson study. As shown in figure 4, three sources (teachers’ experiences, teachers’ knowledge and solid knowledge from research) introduced for discovering a problem in lesson study cycle.

FIGURE 4. Modified Lesson Study Model

Discussion and Conclusions

Lesson study discussed in several research paper and it seems that implementation of lesson study is simple, but according to Yoshida (2008) it is not an easy activity. Several researchers try to adopt lesson study in new cultural contexts, but there are some evidences which show lesson study doesn’t implement in a new context necessarily. As an example, Stigler and Hibert (2016) mentioned reasons of failure of USA at using Lesson Study for teacher professional program. Like Stigler and Hibert (2016), Yoshida (2012) discussed that sometime, lesson study focused on developing an exemplary lesson rather than developing knowledge of teachers and in some cases teachers watch videotaped research lessons rather than observe live lessons. These experiences could be misleading of teachers and researchers.

Research report show that there are several adaptations for lesson study in different countries around the world. Fujii (2014) like Yoshida (2012) discussed that some of these adaptations of lesson study which occurred outside Japan include misunderstanding. Indeed, we have to mention the cultural assumptions that underpinning the process of teaching and learning in each culture and we have to consider gradual change for reaching to educational goals. So, we have an open research question which is to what extent lesson study can be implemented into the new context (Lewis et al., 2009). In our study this open question examined in the Iranian context, through a cycle which is shown in figure 4. Results of our study show that implementing of this cycle can be useful and efficient for Iranian math teachers. Further research can use modified lesson study model that shown in figure 3 and try to present more empirical data to indicate the appropriateness of lesson study cycle which used in current study.
References


DISCOVERING MECHANISMS OF CHANGES


Exploring Citizens' Motives influencing the satisfaction with and adoption of E-Government Services in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia

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Governments worldwide invest hugely in e-Government (eGOV) services implementation to better serve their citizens. However, the eGOV services’ adoption level still low in developing countries, which explains the need for understanding the motives underlying to the satisfaction with and the adoption of such services. This article explores the motives citizens would adopt eGOV services in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. Data was collected through 34 semi-structured individual interviews. After an examination of the citizens' overall evaluation of eGOV services, a thematic analysis method was used to investigate the critical factors underlying eGOV success, their impacts on users’ satisfaction and eGOV adoption. Findings showed that eGOV success hinges on the users’ characteristics and their perception of the eGOV portals’ features. Moreover, results revealed that 11 factors influence citizens’ satisfaction and eGOV adoption success. The factors classified at the top five by the interviewees are: (1) the service relevance to the users’ needs and it personalization, (2) the ease of use of portals, (3) the security, privacy as well as the service quality levels, (4) the information quality offered, and (5) the accessibility. The other factors cited by respondents are associated to the design technology, the interactivity, and the transparency. In light of the outcomes, advices to support eGOV adoption were formulated. Since results demonstrated that user needs and characteristics are at the core success of an eGOV service, governments in developing countries in general, and the Saudi government, in particular, should adapt their e-services’ content and technology to users, as well as implement an efficient communication strategy on efforts deployed in eGOV services to enhance citizens trust. This paper suggested that future investigations should cross citizens and professionals in charge of eGOV services viewpoints for developing a more comprehensive framework supporting eGOV services adoption.

**Keywords:** E-Government, citizens’ perspective, satisfaction, adoption, Saudi Arabia

Exploring Citizens' Motives influencing the satisfaction with and adoption of E-Government Services in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia.

Governments invest huge efforts to deliver online services and information to citizens and organizations (Warkentin et al., 2002; Muir & Oppenheim, 2002; Vintar & Nograšek, 2010). The challenge in establishing eGOV is not just the creation of additional options to communicate with citizens and departments through technology. In fact, in facing growth in population, social demands, economic transactions, and crisis...
like epidemics, eGOV become mandatory for a competitive nation. Therefore, technologies represent a tool to redefine and strengthen the relationship between the government and stakeholders, to remove the perception of the government as complex, mammoth bureaucratic establishments, towards enhancing the quality of life as well as the society well-being (Stiftung, 2002; Brown, 2005).

EGOV uses Information Communication Technologies (ICTs) to enhance government service delivery (Spremić et al., 2009) and create good governance which creates basis for a sustainable development (Dhaoui, 2021). However, eGOV implementation particularly in developing countries leads to mixed results and the large part of the eGOV projects fail to achieve desired outcomes (Furuholt & Wahid, 2008; Wirtz & Daiser, 2018). The implementation of eGOV confronts a number of barriers, like absence of an effective eGOV strategy, poor technological and IT infrastructure, unsuitable policy and legal framework, organizational and cultural issues, and high operational cost (Al-Rawahna et al., 2018).

The adoption of eGOV is not straightforward. It is not simply introducing web-based technologies to government, but it needs a political will as well as cultural, social, technological, and organizational changes designed to support it (Fasanghari & Habibipour, 2009; Choudrie et al., 2005; Moon & Norris, 2005; Beynon-Davies, 2007; Pina et al., 2009). Harmony and coordination of many activities of government units and a solid cooperation of employees, managers, IT specialists, citizens as well as businesses are needed for eGOV success (Ziembta et al., 2013). In fact, for an effective eGOV implementation, the integration of knowledge from information systems and public administration is mandatory (Glyptis et al., 2020; Khan et al., 2021). It is also important to assess citizens’ perceptions of eGOV services and analyze their needs and expectations (Weerakkody et al., 2019). As suggested by earlier studies, the complexity of the eGOV concept requires taking into account the perspective of the multiple eGOV stakeholders during it implementation (Malodia et al., 2021). Citizens are often regarded as the most important stakeholder group. Therefore, the non-factoring of the citizens requirements and needs during the eGOV projects largely leads for their failure (Ahmad et al., 2012). Ergo, understanding the citizens’ perception of eGOV services and their motivation to adopt such services is important to implement eGOV successfully.

In The Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, the digital maturity level of eGOV services attained 71% in 2018. The Saudi government has invested heavily in information and communications technology infrastructure and about $800 million in developing eGOV systems (AMEinfo, 2006). In collaboration with the Communication and the Information Technology Commission and the Ministry of Finance, the “Yesser” program was established in 2005 as an eGOV initiative. This program covers three domains that are G2G, G2C, and G2B (Muzaffar & Zaman, 2020). It represents an “umbrella for all eGOV activities, procedures, legislations and other related issues and acts as the government’s controller” (Alfarraj & Allussain, 2013). The main “Yesser” products are the Saudi eGOV Portal that provides around 1000 e-services and the National Contact Center called “Amer” that supports the eGOV strategic goals. In 2010, the budget allocated for “Yesser” project had increase to 1.2 billion dollars (Alriyadh Information Technology, 2010; Muzaffar & Zaman, 2020).
E-GOVERNMENT SERVICES

Thus, an evaluation of this eGOV system is crucial to measure return of this huge investment and to implement corrective actions if needed. This paper aims to assess the eGOV system “Yesser” perception and identify the motives affecting the citizens' satisfaction with and their adoption of the Saudi eGOV. Furthermore, the research goal is to suggest a conceptual framework including critical factors of eGOV success from Saudi citizen's perspective. To address the aims of this study, the following research questions were formulated. First, how Saudi citizens perceive eGOV services? Second, what are the critical factors (motives) affecting eGOV services success (satisfaction and adoption)?

Literature review

There are numerous definitions of eGOV (Scholl, 2003). EGOV is the use of ICTs (such as WAN, internet, mobile computing) and its application by the government for the provision of information and public services to the people (Muir & Oppenheim, 2002; UN, 2005; Heeks, 2006). Some authors add that the eGOV integrates a continuous innovation in the delivery of services, citizen participation, and governance through digitalization of external and internal relationships (Jeffrey, 2008). Others state that eGOV has three purposes, namely providing public services, improving managerial effectiveness, and promoting democracy (Vassilakis et al., 2007). Therefore, eGOV is not only about technology, it is a complicated social system that embodies organizational, social and economic issues (Wicander, 2001; Fasanghari & Habibipour, 2009; Malodia et al., 2021). EGov can be perceived as a modern channel that citizens can use to interact with public administration. Preferring an online channel or the traditional one depend on the level of barriers related to the internet and computer use that are the mental access, material access, skill access and usage access (Ebbers et al., 2008; Teerling & Pietersen, 2010; Van Dijk & Hacker, 2003).

In adopting diverse perspectives and theories such as the Diffusion of Innovations Theory, the Technology Acceptance Model, the Theory of Planned Behavior and the Unified Theory of Acceptance and Use of Technology, prior studies identified a number of factors affecting citizens' adoption of eGOV. Among these factors authors found citizens’ trust, perceived risk, perceived behavioral control, perceived usefulness, ease of use, power distance, uncertainty avoidance, confidentiality, safety, reliability, visual appeal, enjoyment, time, cost, personalization, convenience, control, avoidance of personal interaction, relative advantages, compatibility, civic mindedness, service quality, performance, effort expectancy, and social influence (Warkentin et al., 2002; Tufail et al., 2017; Gilbert & Balestrini, 2004; Carter & Bélanger, 2005; Belanger & Carter, 2008; Dimitrova & Chen, 2006; Horst et al., 2007; Al-Awadhi & Morris, 2008; Al-Shafi & Weerakkody 2009). In Saudi Arabia context, authors found that perceived complexity, privacy, compatibility; social and cultural barriers, legislative and regulatory issues, transparency, perceived usefulness, perceived ease of use, computer self-efficacy, and “wastta” affect the adoption of eGOV services (Almukhlifi et al., 2019, 2018, Al-Ghait et al., 2010; Abu Nadi, 2012; Al-Solbi & Al-Harbi, 2008). Alghamdi and Beloff (2014) represented four fundamental groups of factors that have a critical influence on the adoption and usage levels of eGOV. These groups are called personal factors (e.g. age, gender), motivational factors (e.g. perceived benefits, functional quality of service), technical factors (e.g. perceived simplicity, technical quality) and reliability factors (e.g. perceived trust).
Despite the similarities between the variables mentioned by researchers in the developed and developing countries contexts, the differences in technologies used by governments, the dissimilarities between countries cultures, as well as the impacts of circumstances, such as Covid-19 pandemic, on individuals and governments strategies, represent relevant motives for continuously exploring how governments should enhance the adoption of their electronic services.

Researchers considered eGOV adoption as expressing the citizens’ intention to build an online engagement to collect information and demand services (Warkentin et al., 2002), as intent to use (Carter & Belanger, 2005) or as willingness to use (Gilbert & Balestrini, 2004). In fact, eGOV adoption is a complex process and a multi-dimensional construct (Pichlak, 2016) where willingness and intention to use represent adoption dimensions.

Since success in eGOV is very context dependent (Atkinson, 1999, Fonseca-Lind & Ramaswamy, 2013; Joosten et al., 2011; Shareef et al., 2012), this study used a qualitative approach to explore factors influencing the satisfaction with and the adoption of eGOV from the citizens perspective.

Method

A qualitative approach was employed in this study. The data was collected via personal interviews and analyzed through a flexible qualitative data analysis method, the Thematic Analysis (TA). This method allows identifying, reporting, organizing, and offering insight into patterns of meaning (themes) across a data set evoked by individuals (Riessman, 2008). By analyzing the verbal and/or written qualitative data gathered from interviewees, TA makes a sense of collective or shared meanings and experiences. A TA including three main steps was adopted (Boyatzis, 1998; Braun & Clarke, 2006; Thomas & Harden, 2008). The first step is about coding of text content ‘line-by-line’, so the interviews are transcribed and themes are identified as well as coded. The second concerns the development of ‘descriptive themes’, means the creation and categorization of new codes that did not fit the pre-determined categories were performed. The final step is ‘reviewing themes’, here the reliability of names allocated to the themes extracted was verified through a double-blinded encoding, which is an investigator triangulation. The second encoder was an external researcher, who is not familiar with the eGOV literature. After checked the codes and coding, the agreement level was 80% and some corrections were made.

Procedure

Data was collected using in depth semi-structured individual interviews integrating a number of open-ended questions. The semi-structured interview was used since the interviewer is knowledgeable about the interview topic and the semi structured interview permits a high level of flexibility to extract the accurate information from interviewees (Jacob & Ferguson, 2012; Dikko, 2016). Moreover, this data collection tool is suitable where the investigator aims to find out all information related to the research topic from the interviewee’s viewpoint (Chenail, 2011) and it permits to understand the meaning attributed to behaviors such as perceptions and motivations (Khansa et al., 2016). The interview guide is qualified as an effective instrument to collect data if the
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data it collects is valid and reliable (Dikko, 2016). A pilot test was conducted to verify the research instrument validity (Majid et al., 2017). Five Saudi citizens were invited to participate to this test. In this step some questions in the interview guide were improved and clarified which is add value and credibility into the research (Van Wijk & Harrison, 2013). The interview reliability, that represents its consistency and stability, was verified through test-re-test (Sekaran, 2003; Mitchell, 1996). Two Saudi citizens were selected for conducting the interview-re-interview procedure. The answers obtained from interviewing these two interviewees at different two times were similar, so the interview instrument used was considered as reliable (Punch, 2003).

Saudi citizens participating in the present research have been encouraged to be honest about their thoughts, opinions and experiences about eGOV services in Saudi Arabia. The goal is to extract factors that allow drawing an eGOV success evaluation framework.

The interview guide focused on (a) the interviewee's demographic information, (b) awareness level of “Yesser” eGOV program, (c) evaluation of eGOV services in Saudi Arabia, (d) the important factors (motivators/inhibitors) that affect the use of eGOV services, and (e) what elements can enhance users’ satisfaction with eGOV services. Interviewees’ confidentiality was respected, the interviews were audio recorded with a previous authorization and were transcribed verbatim. The interviews lasted an average of 30 min. The participants’ number is determined using a "saturation point" approach (Strauss, 1987; Kvale, 1996). Saturation was attained after 34 interviews. Respondents’ demographics are summarized in Table 1.

Results

Results showed that all respondents declared using eGOV services. However, 56% of them not have idea about the existence of the eGOV program “Yesser” and only 18 % presented correct information related its foundation and services. In fact, most of interviewees identify eGOV services as independent and related each one to a specific sector or governmental entity, while in reality the eGOV program "Yesser" represents a unified national electronic system integrating all government agencies to serve citizens, residents, businesses and visitors. It is not surprising that the eGOV program “Yesser” is unknown by most citizens. This program was established to provide electronic services, to support and to enhance the public sector to transform to eGOV (Alfarraj et al., 2013), therefore it cooperates directly with governmental agencies and individuals discover the cooperation outcomes through governmental websites. The eGOV portals cited through interviews were "Absher" where 160 e-services are offered by the Ministry of Interior (MI); "Mawid" the online service provided by Ministry of Health to get an e-prescription; "Musaned" launched by the Ministry of Labor and Social Development to simplify the employment of domestic labors; "Najiz" the electronic portal of the Ministry of Justice facilitating clients transactions; "Safeer" that helps students abroad, and "Jadarah" that assists job seekers.

Interpretation of the data generated interesting findings about the overall evaluation of the eGOV services, the eGOV critical success factors, users' satisfaction and eGOV adoption.
Table 1
Interviewees' characteristics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characteristics</th>
<th>Descriptive Statistics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>29% (25-29); 32% (30-39); 24% (40-49) and 15% (50 years and more)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>44% Male and 56% Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nationality</td>
<td>100% KSA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>9% Diploma; 62% Bachelor; 21% Master and 9% PhD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job category</td>
<td>26% Administrator; 9% Financial Analyst; 18% IT Specialist; 15% Teacher; 3% Technician; and 29% Manager.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sector</td>
<td>% 29 Private and 71% Public</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

E-Government services perception

Throughout the interviews, respondents attested that the most successful e-services sectors are eGOV and e-Banking services. Concerning online bank services, interviewees outlined that they have strong experience, since that the banking sector has started earlier than the government in offering e-services. In fact, in mid-2000, banks in Saudi Arabia have established their online presence via websites and a number of them were offering internet banking services (Jasimuddin, 2001). Regarding online government services, opinions converge to confirm that government has made big efforts over the last years to facilitate government, citizens, residents and visitors interactions. Overall, when asked to rate eGOV portals, participants allowed scores ranging from 6 to 9 out of 10. They mentioned that eGOV portals have attained a good progress in providing services and that they appreciate save time, effort as well as money in using them. However, even if the global evaluation of government online services is positive, there is an agreement that improvements are needed to enhance the user experience: “I think that more efforts should be done in terms user experience in all government’s portals... especially, conceiving an excellent interface design that helps the user to navigate easily and quickly through the portal.”

“Unsuccessful experiences with government’s portals come from insufficient knowledge and lack of experience. Government should educate citizens to facilitate portals usage.”

Thus, issues related to eGOV services use can be divided into two categories, the first one related to the eGOV portals features and the second one associated to the users’ characteristics. This result is consistent with antecedent researches, which confirmed that many variables namely the ease of navigation, the aesthetics, the content, the accessibility, and the personalization impact users online experiences when they navigate and as consequence their level of satisfaction and adoption (Kumar et al., 2007). In fact, previous studies confirmed that the effectiveness of eGOV portals, from a citizen’s perspective, can be measured in terms of perceived usefulness and perceived ease of use (Kumar et al., 2007; Susanto & Aljoza, 2015). In addition, they established that the characteristics of online users such as internet experience and perceived risk have a significant effect on citizen’s trust in eGOV (Warkentin et al., 2002; Miyazaki & Fernandez, 2001; Alzahrani et al., 2017).

After discussing eGOV global perception, the interview guideline invited participants to discuss about their experiences with Saudi eGOV services portals as well as to present the factors that may lead to their adoption and success.
Critical factors affecting e-Government services success

During the interviews, unanimity was observed about the performance of "Absher" platform. Without except, all interviewees classified this eGOV portal, provided by the MI, as the successful portal. According the collected data content, its success is due to many reasons: "Absher offers personal and secured services in few clicks"; "Absher integrates many services, save time and effort, the information is offered smoothly and is updated continuously ...globally the platform is friendly and it is easy to use”. "It enables me to complete all of my necessary needs easily” “I think that the reason of it success is that it meets people’s needs, especially in specific circumstances like the COVID-19 pandemic”. Although the existence of an agreement regarding the perception of the MI online services; there seems to be less consent as to designate the less efficient eGOV portal. From the interviewed citizens’ quotations it raised that many EGOV portals are disappointing, however disadvantages were perceived especially in three eGOV services. Many participants evoked their unsatisfactory experience with "Safeer" platform. They mentioned important concerns about the system halts during working hours. Also, a number of interviewees raised out problems in term of ease of use and usefulness encountered with "Sakani”. Moreover, the "Jadarah" portal was criticized for non-transparency procedures in calculation of candidate scores and shortlisting.

From the assessment of a number of eGOV portals emerged a list of 11 factors (motivators/inhibitors) that affect the eGOV services success (Table 2). These factors were classified in term of their citation frequency by interviewees.

Table 2
Factors affecting e-Government services success

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Example Verbatim Quotations</th>
<th>Frequency (n=34)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Coverage level of users’ needs/Personalized services</td>
<td>“Offers many services”; “integrates various services”; “offers a number of services”; “it should serve all the user’s needs”; “access to all e-services”; “provide me with all of the services I need”; “there are many services that you cannot do on the portal”; “it offers me to complete all my necessary needs”; it meets people needs”; “The portal does not prioritize people’s needs.”</td>
<td>94.11% (n=32)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Ease of use</td>
<td>“Offers easy transactions”; “ease to use functionalities”; “it is more easy”; “it offers more clear process”; “ease to use without effort”.</td>
<td>88.23% (n=30)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Security &amp; Privacy</td>
<td>“It is more secure”, “protect my personal information”</td>
<td>85.29% (n=29)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Service quality</td>
<td>“Fast in processing inquiries”; “Fast services, save time and effort”; “helpful services”; “It offers quicker response”; “The rapidity of services”; “The service quality doesn’t meet my expectation as a user”.</td>
<td>85.29% (n=29)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Information</td>
<td>“Information clearness”; “Information reliability”;</td>
<td>58.82%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
User satisfaction and adoption of e-Government services

For a deep understanding of the factors that may lead to successful eGOV portals, interviewees were asked about their intention to re-use the eGOV services and the elements that can enhance their satisfaction. Overall, participants exhibit their trust in the government e-services and their willingness to a continuous use. One of the respondents commented “I will continue to use eGOV services, I trust on the government initiatives for continual services’ enhancements …. Successful eGOV is essential today, for both the government to save budgets and for individuals to save time.” Another one added that “because it saves time and effort, sure I will use eGOV services and I am confident that many improvements will be done”. In fact, reasons interviewees felt encouraged them to a continuous use of the eGOV services were similar to the factors mentioned in assessing eGOV services success. However, participants stress on the importance of the continual eGOV services improvements to maintain and enhance the user satisfaction.
Figure 1: Antecedents & consequences of critical factors of e-Government success

Figure 1 summarizes findings. The users’ perception of eGOV portals features and the users’ characteristics represent the foundation of the critical factors eGOV success. The eleven factors extracted influence the user satisfaction as well as the eGOV adoption.

Results confirm those found in researches on information system (IS), in general and those of eGOV system in particular. Findings attest to the robustness of the Delone and McLean (1992, 2003) model. These researchers developed a framework of IS success identifying six factors that are system quality, information quality, service quality, intention to use/use, user satisfaction, and the net benefits achieved from using the system at the individual and organizational level. Previous eGOV studies focused mainly on governments’ internal relationships and employees’ satisfaction (Ali & Al Kabbi, 2018; Gable et al., 2008). By analyzing the eGOV system success from a citizens’ perspective, findings contribute to the eGOV knowledge. Outcomes support those of Warkentin et al., (2002), Gilbert & Balestrini (2004) and Mensah et al., (2020) where variables such as citizen trust, perceived risk, perceived usefulness ease of use, time, personalization, cost, convenience, control, confidentiality, enjoyable, reliability, safe, visual appeal, were candidate to influence the electronic government services use.

Moreover, in contrast with up-mentioned academic papers, the qualitative nature of findings offers a more detailed understanding of the factors affecting the eGOV success. The verbatim quotations of the research participants propose a bundle of items for developing and/or improving factors measures.

Conclusion, limits and future research
This study explored the eGOV success factors from Saudi citizens’ perspective. Findings showed that the eGOV services perception depend on eGOV portals features and is influenced by the users’ characteristics and needs. This paper emphasizes that developing an effective eGOV adoption strategy requires an examination of the citizen characteristics (e.g. internet experience, perceived risk, user’s technical capability) and their specific needs from eGOV along with the eGOV portals technical features.
Eleven factors that affect the eGOV service success were extracted and classified in terms of their importance to participants. Results disclosed that, at the top five, factors are the service relevance to the users’ needs and it personalization, the ease of use of portals, the security, privacy and the service quality levels, the information quality offered and the accessibility. The other factors which are also important for user are ranked successively as following: the system quality and its design, the technical support and its interactivity, and the process transparency. This classification demonstrates that the primary factors to consider place the user needs and characteristics at the core success of an eGOV service. Users claim a variety of services, and an easiest technology to use that is secure, respects their privacy, provides information quality and improves services accessibility. The last five factors relate more to the technology used to enhance the eGOV system design, the interactivity and the transparency.

The factors discussed are crucial for user satisfaction with eGOV services which in turns influences their adoption. Regarding the adoption process, this research paper underlines the importance of the users’ trust on the continual improvement of the online services by the government. Therefore, governments should invest in enhancing trust with citizens related to the efforts deployed in improving their e-services. In summary, future actions are recommended for Saudi Arabia government and in similar contexts to support users' satisfaction with eGOV services and their adoption. First, examine users’ characteristics and needs to choose suitable services and technology to them. Second, evaluate the technology to perform efficiently services. Finally, strengthening the government-citizen trust through assessing continually users’ satisfaction level and inform them about services improvements. Mass media can be used, as the mouth organ of governments, to communicate with citizens and notify them about services enhancements, which will reinforce their involvement and engagement (Saqib, 2010; Behramand et al., 2020).

This research paper is not without limitations. Due the research qualitative nature, results cannot be extended to a larger population. The interviews outcomes are based on content derived from a convenient sample and are conducted in a specific context, so findings should be interpreted in the light of these two circumstances. In fact, a sample of Saudi citizens was excluded from the present investigation. The research sample was mainly young people, well-educated and with occupations. This category of persons may have a particular perception of eGOV and be influenced by factors that are different from other citizens’ categories. It is subsequently recommended in forthcoming investigations to recruit a more representative sample of interviewees which will enable gathering more extensive information and enhancing the research external validity. Moreover, the interview guide neglected the particular cultural environment of the research context. In fact to extend understand on how eGOV services are perceived by citizens and why they are adopted researchers need considered of the contextual factors within the culture where these eGOV services are developed. Adding open-ended questions related to possible effects of the cultural environment on perception of and adoption for eGOV services will be benefit into upcoming works. Furthermore, data was collected only from Saudi citizens with ignoring the perception of other stakeholders of eGOV services. Future qualitative and quantitative investigations are needed to draw a comprehensive model to better understand the factors underlying the eGOV success. Researchers should adopt a dual perspective in studying eGOV success factors. Crossing viewpoints of professionals in charge of eGOV services conceptualization and maintenance as well as those of citizens will bring deep knowledge to an effective eGOV services development which will enhance users’ satisfaction, and consequently will maintain a high adoption rate.

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References


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Conceptualization of time in Pashto language

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Past studies have investigated metaphoric correlations between time and space or objects from cognitive semantic perspective in different languages, drawing interesting similarities and cultural differences in the conceptualization of time. This paper departs from the existing literature by examining the concept of time in Pashto language from a cognitive semantic perspective based on the theoretical model of Conceptual Metaphor Theory (hereafter CMT) to find out various conceptual metaphors (hereafter CM) for time in Pashto language and poetry. Linguistic data of 150 sentences and clauses were extracted from the Pashto-English dictionary (Zeeya, 2009), Da Ghani Kulyat (Ghani 1985), Dewan Abdur Rahman Baba (Rahman, 1947), Tsraagh (Saqib, 2019) and everyday language on the basis of topical words and phrases conveying the concept of time. The topical words and phrases technique was used to retrieve the clauses or sentences denoting the concept/theme of time. CMT was used to analyze the clauses and sentences to investigate the source domains which structure the abstract concept of time in Pashto. Eight metaphors for the representation of time emerge from the analysis: i) time is object in motion; ii) time is a thing; iii) time is bounded space; iv) moments of time are landmarks in space and past is in the front, while future is at the back; v) time is person; vi) Time is measurable quantity; vii) time is a valuable commodity; and viii) time passing is tasting it. Contrary to English, Pashto speakers locate past time in the front while locating the future at the back. The present paper recommends further studies in Pashto language from cognitive semantic perspective to examine the tenets of CMT in Indo-Iranian languages to investigate its cross-cultural implications.

Keywords: time, spatial representation, conceptual metaphor,

Pashto, the national language of Afghanistan, is one of the major regional languages of Pakistan. It is the 40th most widely spoken language in the world, with more than 40 million native speakers (The Trustees of Indiana University, n.d). However, research on Pashto linguistics from modern linguistic theoretical perspectives, in general,
and the cognitive linguistic perspective in particular, is scarce. Various factors have contributed to curtail explicit research on the linguistic study of Pashto, such as the war on terror, illiteracy of its population, lack of governmental interest and limited print, and digital media (FATA Research Centre, 2014). However, recently, efforts have been made to investigate Pashto language from modern linguistics perspectives (e.g. Khan et al., 2020; Kainat & Sardaraz, 2020; Khan & Ahmad, 2017; Pischurnikova, 2017; Sardaraz & Kainat, in press; Sardaraz & Nusrat, 2019, 2020).

Cognitive linguistics is one of the emerging fields in linguistics which investigates relationship between language, mind and experiences (Evans, 2007). Its basic claim is that mind contains both language and concepts and that socio-physical context is used to understand language (Geeraerts & Cuyckens, 2007). Mind is metaphorically structured and experiential concepts structure abstract concepts in mind, and therefore, metaphor is pervasive both in language and thought. The pervasiveness of metaphors in language show that metaphor is not a linguistic tool but it is a conceptual phenomenon (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980b). Lakoff and Johnson (1980a, 1980b) revolutionized the Aristotelian concept of metaphor (Aristotle, 1984) in the West and the al-Jurjani’s (1959) concept of metaphor in the Arabic language, from resemblance based metaphors to cross-domain mapping in our conceptual system. CMT argues for cross-domain mapping of source and target domains in human conceptual system which generates not only thought but also language (Lakoff, 1993; Lakoff & Johnson, 1980a, 1980b; Lakoff & Turner, 1989). They argue that human conceptual system is metaphorically structured, and therefore, metaphor is pervasive in our language. Experiential and perceptual concepts structure abstract concepts to make them comprehensible.

This phenomenon of CM proved instrumental in rebirth of metaphor research in languages across the world, not only contributing to the bulk of CMs but also to cross cultural variations in conceptualization of various abstract concepts. This study is an attempt to explore how Pashtun community process time in their daily lives, and how it gets representation in Pashto language. This paper attempts to apply CMT to investigate cross domain mapping of time with space, objects and entities in everyday Pashto language and poetic language. This will not only contribute to existing research on CM in Pashto language but will also examine the similarities and differences in conceptualization of time between Pashto language and other major language particularly English. This will carry on the existing debate on CM from cross cultural perspective and may prove instrumental in scholarship on CM in Pashto and other major south and central Asian languages.

**Literature Review**

According to Lakoff (1993), the basis of comprehension of time in everyday language and thought is motion and things in space. Time is represented in language as a moving object or stationary object in space with relation to the moving observer and as bounded space (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980a, 1980b). The conceptualization of time in terms of space, motion and objects has been found in various languages, substantiating the universal aspect of time-space schema. However, time-space relationship in language depends upon how a particular language speaks about time and the situational context and it suggests that time-space relationship in language differ dramatically across
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languages and cultures (Boroditsky, 2011). Conceptualization of time cannot be restricted to one dimensional line, rather space is three dimensional and need three axes i.e. longitudinal, vertical and left to right. Moreover, shapes and kinds of objects in space is also varied, and their relationship with other objects in space may either be absolute or relative, and thus, spatial domain provides rich conceptual content to conceptualize time in multifarious ways through varied metaphors across languages and cultures (Radden, 2003). Thus, cross linguistic and cross era linguistic research may bring new insights on conceptualization of time and CMT (Sardaraz & Ali, 2020).

The relationship between time and space in Chinese language has been discussed by Yu (1998). Yu (1998) holds that in Chinese language past time is conceptualized as up while future is conceptualized as down. Boroditsky (2001, 2008) also found that Chinese found it more natural while thinking about time in vertical line than in horizontal line contrary to the English speakers. Time in Arabic has been conceptualized as moving object along the horizontal axis as well as vertical axis (Sardaraz, 2017). In Indian languages, Toba and Aymara, past is reflected as in the front, while future at the back (Klein, 1987; Miracle & Yapita, 1981; Núñez & Sweetser, 2006). Similarly, Dahl (1995) found that Malagasy language speakers conceptualize future in the back and past in the front. They might look at the future as invisible, while at the past as visible in front of eyes. This shows that conceptual schema of time as space has been investigated in many languages, showing different dimensions (Boroditsky, 2011), but the schema is specific to the three-dimensional character of space. It needs further studies in more languages, particularly in languages of indigenous communities, to find out further aspects of time conceptualization.

Golfam et al., (2019) carried out a comparative study of conceptualization of time English and Persian and found that except sporadic differences such as “to buy time” and “to borrow time” which could not be found in standard Persian, the two languages structured time in eight similar ways. This might be due to metalinguistic contacts between Persian and English and the similar socio-physical experiences of English and Persians. Pamies-Bertrán and Yuan (2020) contrasted Spanish and Chinese languages for conceptualization of time as space and found five and seven metaphors of time in Spanish and Chinese respectively with five metaphors common to both the languages. They argue that a single model will not be sufficient to draw conclusions about time metaphors in a particular language and different researchers reached different conclusions regarding conceptualization of time in Chinese as Boroditsky et al., (2010) claim the verticality in Chinese as opposite to English while Hong et al., (2017) argue against them. They (2020) hold that detail analysis of many languages is needed to carry out theoretical speculation about the universality of some specific model.

Time is not only conceptualized as space, but it takes other schemas in human conceptual system. Eweida (2007) found that time in the Quran is conceptualized as motion, container and landscape, but time as adversary and money cannot be found in original Quranic text contrary to the English language. Hamdi (2008) carried out a comparative study on time metaphors in English and Arabic. He found that English and Arabic converge in twenty two CMs of time, but they also diverge in conceptualization of time in some metaphors which might be due to different socio-physical experiences of the two communities. Sardaraz and Ali (2017) have found that time in the Quran has been
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conceptualized as bounded space. Similarly, Sardaraz (2017) found that death is an event in time scale which is conceptualized as person, captor and creature. These studies reveal that space cannot provide the whole range of experiential gestalts to scaffold the abstract concept of time. Hence, it needs more studies on the abstract concept of time in other languages to encompass a wide range of source domains that help comprehend the target domain of time.

No doubt, literature identifies CMs in different languages, but its application is very scarce to Pakistani indigenous languages. CMT has been recently introduced to Pashto everyday language to investigate the CMs for life by Khan and Ahmad (2017) and for life and death by Sardaraz and Nusrat (2019). These studies found that the major source domains for life are journey, container, person, food, music, burden, gamble, dream and a day/a year and for death, departure, person and autumn. These studies hold that the application of CMT to Pashto language is necessary to change the concept of metaphor from resemblance based linguistic device to cross domain mapping in Pashto language. These studies are significant in guiding future researchers for the cognitive semantic study of Pashto language. Love is war has also been investigated in the poetry of Al-Hamid (1983) by Pischurnikova (2017). The author found that love and war concepts are closely interlinked in the Pashto poetry. The main sub-source domains for abstract concept of love are attack, armour, shield, army, arrows, captives, target, castles and battles. Pischurnikova’s (2017) work is a significant contribution to the investigation of CMs in Pashto poetry. Similarly, Sardaraz and Nusrat (2020) have analyzed Pashto Landay or tappa to find out various CMs which reflect the Pashtun worldview. They have made significant contribution not only to CMT but also to the classification of Pashto Landay on the basis of cognitive linguistics. This study investigates conceptualization of time both in Pashto everyday language and poetry to find out how Pashtun community structures time both in everyday language and poetry because poetic metaphors also use the same CMs as everyday language (Lakoff & Turner, 1989). It may, thus, add to the existing research on the application of CMT to Pashto language and poetry.

The present paper attempts to investigate the conceptual schemas which are used in Pashto language for abstract concept of time. The study is significant as it examined the conceptual schemas used for time including time-space schema in Pashto language, and compared it with English language. This will contribute to the ongoing discussions on spatial representation of time from the cross-cultural perspective and enrich the existing research on Pashto language and literature from a cognitive linguistic perspective.

Method

This is a qualitative descriptive study, and is based on the theoretical framework of CMT, which argues that metaphor involves cross-domain mapping between the experiential concepts (source domain) and less delineated experiential concepts in asymmetrical fashion (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980a). This theory holds that metaphor is pervasive in our language and thought because of the metaphorical nature of the human conceptual system. Language can only be processed through the online conceptual schema in the human conceptual system (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980a, 1980b). CM helps in the categorization and comprehension of concepts in language. The source domain maps the target domain, and these mapping in the human conceptual system help generate
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language and its comprehension (Lakoff, 1993). Argument is war is a CM, which gets the following diagrammatical representation in CMT.

![Argument is war CM mapping](image)

**Figure 1.** CM mapping, based on Lakoff and Johnson (1980b)

First, this study used the technique of topical words and phrases (Attride-Stirling, 2001) to collect data on the theme of time from Pashto-English dictionary (Zeeya, 2009), containing commonly used clauses and phrases, and Da Ghani Kulyat (Ghani 1985), Dewan Abdur Rahman Baba (Rahman, 1947) and Tsraagh (Saqib, 2019) famous for philosophical poetry and the concept of time is used both in everyday language and in philosophical poetry. The lexical items which are frequently used in different contexts for the concept of time are (وخت ‘wakhth – time’, نیټه ‘naita - appointed time’، ورځ ‘wratz – day’, شپه ‘shpah – night’, ساعت ‘saa’ath – moment’, زمانه ‘zumanah - time/age’, موسم ‘mosum – weather’ and سپرلی ‘sparle – spring’. These lexical items were searched in the above mentioned sources and 150 clauses and sentences were retrieved. The data was then discussed with M. L. Shaheen, a famous Pashto poet and critic from District Bannu, and the discussion helped in data refinement by editing the corpus, removing the typographical errors and adding sentences from everyday language. The refined corpus gave a corpus of 135 clauses, sentences and verses.

Second, Metaphor Identification Procedure (hereafter MIP) on the model of (Group, 2007) was adopted for metaphor identification. Each clause or sentence was examined in its situational context, involving reading the text of each clause or sentence, coding the lexical unit and its basic meaning by consulting dictionary, and then defining its metaphorical nature if its meaning is different from its basic meaning. For example, in (وخت روان دی ‘wakhth rawaan de - time is passing on’ the noun ‘wakhth’ means time and the verb ‘rawaan’ means going or passing, but time is not a physical object which can pass or go, rather it is represented as a physical object which can move. The basic conceptual schema behind this clause is TIME IS MOVING OBJECT IN SPACE. The same method has been successfully adopted in (Sardaraz, 2017; Sardaraz & Ali, 2016, 2017).

Third, the data was then categorized on the basis of CMT through the application of labeling codes on the model of Kövecses (2002). Kövecses (2002) discusses extensive source and target domains which are used in CM and it has successfully been applied by Sardaraz and Nusrat (2019, 2020). Different codes were
given to each category. For example, all sentences and clauses, denoting time is moving object metaphor, were placed in a separate category.

Fourth, after the initial categorization, the sample selected for further analysis was designed in such a way as to encompass each lexical item and its use in diverse linguistic contexts. This sampling strategy helped in having the representative sample of the whole population (Merriam, 2002). The metaphors found in the data were then further analyzed for any deviation from English language. The findings are discussed in the next section.

**Results**

The application of MIP (Group, 2007) helps in extracting 140 metaphors. The data revealed eight CMs of time which are time is object in motion, time is thing, time is bounded space, moments of time are landmarks in space, time is measurable quantity, time is valuable commodity, time is person, and time passing is tasting it. The data also revealed some differences from English language with respect to representation of past and future time. Pashto speakers locate past time in front, while future is reflected in the back. The metaphors are analyzed below.

**Time is object in motion**

Following Lakoff (1993), time is represented as a moving object with reference to the observer in language. The study found the following linguistic instantiations of CM time is object in motion in Pashto language.

1. وخت دیر ناپایسته تیر شو
   
   Wakhth.N.Sg der.Adv Šhaysta.Adj ther sho.V.PST
   Time (a) very good (we) passed>>had
   We had a very good time

2. په راتلونکي نژدې وخت کښې
   
   Puh.PreP rathlunki.V.PrT nuzhde.Adv wakht. N.Sg ke.PostP
   (on) coming near time>>future in
   In coming near future

3. وخت تیریری
   
   Wakht.N.Sg theregi.V.PCT
   Time passes

4. دتګ وخت راورسیده
   
   Da.PreP thug.N.Sg wakhth.N.Sg ra-uraseduh.PPT
   Of departure the time has come
   The time of departure has come

5. وخت به راشی
   
   Wakhth.N.Sg bah.Aux rashi.PCT
   Time will come
   Time will come

6. تپره زمانه
   
   Therah.PPT zumanah.N.Sg
   (long) past time. N.Sg
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Time long past

7. تره شه

Therah.PPT Shpah.N.Sg
passed>>last night

Last night

8. د شهه د ثیرولو خانم

Da.PreP shpe.N.Sg da.PreP therawulo.V.PCT tzai.N.Sg
at night of passing>>lodging (the) place
The place of lodging at night (Night’s lodging)

9. شهه او ورځ اوښته

Shpe.N.Pl aw.Conj wrazte.N.Pl awuŠhte.V.PrPT
Nights and days have passed

Days and nights have passed

10. هغه ورځ ورځھ

Haghah.Dem wratze.N.Pl wulare.PST
Those days passed

Those days passed

11. د حساب ساعت را نزدي دي

Da.PreP hisab.N.Sg saa’ath.N.Sg ra-nuzhde.Adv dai.Aux
Of retribution (the) hour near>>approaching near is
The hour of retribution is approaching near

The nouns (وخت ‘wakhth – time’, in linguistic expressions from (1) to (5),
[زمانه] ‘zumanah – time, age’ in expressions at (6), [شپه] ‘shapah – night’ in expressions at
(7), (8) and (9), [ورخ] ‘wratz - day) in expressions at (9) and (10) and [ساعت], ‘saa’ath -
period, time’ at (11) denote the concept of time as moving object in space. The corresponding verbs such as [ثیر], ‘ther - pass, go’ in expressions at (1), (3), (6), (7) and
(8), ‘rathlunki – coming’ at (2), [ئزدي] ‘nuzhde – near’ at (2) and (11), [راوسمد] [رالتونکي]
[راشي] ‘ra-urasedu – approached’ at (4), [اوښته] [اوښته], ‘rašhi – come’ at (5), ‘awuŠhte - have
passed’ at (9) and [رازره] [وژړي] ‘wulare – passed’ at (10) depict time as moving objects in
space. The above examples show that time is object in motion metaphor is present in Pashto language.

In (11), the lexical item [ساعت] ‘saa’ath – hour’ is represented through the time
adverb of [ئزدي] ‘ra-nuzhde – near’ as an object which is near, and it encapsulates the
semantic value of the time of retribution as an object approaching near. Time of
retribution, literally, cannot come near, and therefore, its meaning would be “imminent”.
It can be diagrammatically represented as below.

![Diagram](image_url)

Figure 2. Time is object in motion towards the observer

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Time of retribution is structured in human conceptual system as object in motion towards the observer, drawing upon the experiential gestalt of moving objects in space. This phenomenon of representation of time in horizontal motion of physical objects can be found in many languages, including Pashto language. Time is object in motion metaphor is extensively used in Pashto language to represent time.

**Time is thing**

Time is not only structured as object in motion in the human conceptual system, but it is also structured as an object in possession, which may be given or taken or possessed. This metaphorical structure of time as an object attains representation in language. This phenomenon is also present in Pashto language, as shown in the examples below.

12. وخت را نه نه و
   Wakhth.N.Sg ranah.possessive nuh.Neg wu.Aux
   Time I had not have
   I did not have time

13. وخت ته کلک
   Wakhth.N.Sg tah.PostP kathul.Infinite
   Time>>an appropriate opportunity to to look for
   To wait for an appropriate opportunity

14. په لوی سحار
   Puh.PreP Loy.Adj sahaar.N.Sg
   On early (the) morning
   Early in the morning

15. هر کال
   Har,Det kaal.N.Sg
   Every year
   Every year

16. په سپینه ورځ
    Puh.PreP speenah.Adj wratz.N.Sg
    On broad light day
    In broad day light

17. په بده ورځ ککړېدل
    Puh.PreP badah.Adj wratz.N.Sg kakaředul.V.Infinite
    On worse straightened day coming
    Coming to worse impoverished day

18. زه دری ورخی ناجوره پروت وم
    I three days sick laid (in bed) had been
    I had been laying sick in bed for three days

19. په ورخ لیدل
    Shah.Adj wratz.N.Sg lidul.V.Inf
    Good day to see
    To see happy day

20. لاس د وختو له دوارو
    Las.N.Sg de.Aux wukhathu.V.PST lah.PostP dwaŗo.Num
TIME IN PASHTO LANGUAGE

Your hands did lose grip from both of the two
You lost both of the two
هم له روز او هم له شبه
as well as from day and as well as from night
From the day as well as night

In all the above sentences and clauses, time is represented as an object or a thing, with some characteristics or qualities. The nouns [وخت] ‘wakhth – time’ in linguistic expressions at (12-13), [سحار] ‘Sahaar – morning’ at (14), [کال] ‘Kaal – year’ at (15), [روز] ‘wratz – day’ at (16) to (19), [روز] ‘roz – day’ and [شبه] ‘Shabah – night’ at (20) are represented as having some physical quality or possessive nature through adjective like [لوی] ‘Loy – large’ at (14), [سپین] ‘Speen – white’ at (16), or through verbs and adverbs like [کتل] ‘kathul – watch’ at (13), [لیدل] ‘lidul – seeing’ at (19) and [وختو] ‘wukhathu – lost’ at (20), or adverbs like [هر] ‘har - each/every’ at (15). This shows that like English, Pashto language also manifests the CM of time is thing/object.

In (12), the noun [وخت] ‘wakhth – time’ is represented as an object which can be possessed. Time is not something which cannot be literally possessed. Rather, it means that one is too busy in some work to give attention to some other work. So, time is represented metaphorically as some object which can be possessed.

**Time is bounded space**

According to Lakoff and his colleagues (Lakoff 1993; Lakoff & Johnson, 1980b), time is also structured in human conceptual system as bounded space which generates the language embodying the concept of durational concept of time. This CM has also been found in Pashto language, as enunciated in examples given below.

21. 
Ywah.Num wratz.N.Sg thur.PreP mentz.Adv
One day till within
In One day

22. 
Da.PreP khatre.N.Sg peŠhe.N.Sg puh.PreP wakhth.N.Sg ke.PostP
Of danger occurrence on (the) event in
in the event of the occurrence of danger

23. 
Puh.PreP taakuli.Adj wakhth.N.Sg ke.PostP
At (the) appointed time in
at the appointed time

24. 
Puh.PreP raathlunki.V.ger nuzhde.Adj wakhth.N.Sg ke.PostP
On (the) coming near time>>future in
In the coming near future

25. 
Puh.PreP haghah.Demon zumanah.N.Sg ke.PostP
On that age in
In that age

Da.PreP sule.N.g puh.PreP zamanah.N.Sg ke.PostP

In the age of peace

On (of) peace on (the) age in

The above sentences and clauses reflect that the spatial preposition ‘ke – in’ is behind most of the metaphorical expressions of the CM time is bounded space. This spatial preposition of ‘ke – in’ in Peshawri dialect and ‘she – in’ in Qandarahi dialect, represents the TIME-SPACE relationship in Pashto language. Besides, the data reveals that the spatial preposition of ‘Mentz – between’ at (21) is also generated by time is bounded space metaphor. All the above sentences and clauses reflect the durational nature of time as bounded space. The analysis of clause at (22), given below, will illustrate this.

Da.PreP khatre.N.Sg pesh.N.Sg puh.PreP wakhth.N.Sg ke.PostP

Of danger occurrence on (the) event in

The above clause embodies an event of danger which has a durational character. This durational character of time, encoded by the lexical words [د خطری پښتو په وقت کېدی ‘Da khatre pešhe pa wakhth – the event of the occurrence of danger’ in the situational context, is mapped by bounded space through the spatial preposition ‘ke – in’. Pashto language like English manifests the time is bounded space metaphor in conceptualization of time.

Moments of time are landmarks in space

Moments of time are objectified through landmarks on space, which can take the form of durational distance or specific object fixed in space with regard to moving or watching observer. Grady (1997) holds that the moments of time are fixed entities in space with reference to moving observer. However, the observer may either be stationary with regard to time, event or duration or may be moving towards or away from time as fixed location. The following linguistic expressions reflect the instantiation of this metaphor.
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30. د بلغو تر وخته
   Da.PreP bulúgh.N.Sg thur.PreP wakhthah.N.Sg
   of maturity till (the) age
   Till the age of maturity

31. په ټا کلي وخت باندې راغې
   Puh.PreP taakuli.Adj wakhth.N.Sg baande.PostP raaghe.V.PST
   On (the) appointed time at (he) came
   He came at the appointed time

32. د نمر د راختو وخت ته راورسیدو
   Da.PreP nmar.N.Sg da.PreP rakhatho.V.Gerun wakhth.N.Sg thah.PostP raurasedo.V.PrePT
   Of (of) rising time to (he) reached (here)
   He reached at the time of sunrise

33. د هغه وخته راهیسي چه
   Of that time since when
   Since the time when

34. تر هغه وخته پوري
   Thur.PreP haghah.Deter wakhthah.N.Sg pore.PostP
   Upto that time upto
   Till that time

35. نژدې زمانه
   Nuzhde.Adj zumanah.N.Sg
   Near age
   Near age

36. هغه به عید ته راخي
   Haghah.Pron bah.Aux eid.N.Sg thah.PostP ratzi.V.FT
   He will Eid to come
   He will come on eid

37. جخت په خپلې نېټې هغه حاضر شو
   Precisely on (the) own\>set date he appeared
   He appeared precisely on the date set

The above examples show moments of time are landmarks in space metaphor. On closely observing the sentences and clauses, it is noted that the spatial preposition [هغه] ‘puh - on or upon’ is generated by the time-space schema, and it generates moments of time are landmarks in space metaphor in language. Moreover, adverbs like [نژدې] ‘Nuzhde – near’, determiner [هغه] ‘haghah – that’ at (33) and (34), and preposition [ته] ‘thah - on or to’ or ‘thur - till or to’ at (30) (34) and (36) are used drawing upon moments of time are landmarks in space metaphor.

In (36), the lexical item [عید] ‘Eid - a holy Islamic festival, is represented as a fixed location in space with regard to two persons, one as fixed observer, and the other moving towards the fixed location. Psychologically, it seems as if the observer is near the location Eid, while the moving person is coming towards it, though the moving observer
and the fixed observer both are in motion with respect to the time in future. The metaphoric linguistic expression is generated by the CM, events or moments of time are locations in space.

Similarly, Pashto speakers also visualize present time as if it is just in their front, as is the case with ‘puh da wakht – at this time’. Moreover, past and future is also conceptualized as alternate landmarks in space with reference to the observer like ‘saba nah bul saba- not tomorrow but next tomorrow’ and ‘paroon na bulah wratz- not yesterday but the other day’. It can be represented as

![Figure 3. Representation of future and past events](image)

**Past time is in the front and future at the back**

Landmarks in the space may either be in front or in the back, above or below or on either side of the observer. In English language, past is conceptualized as behind, while future is represented in the front (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980b). However, this study found that in Pashto language past tense is conceptualized in the front. The following examples illustrate the point.

38. د پخواني وخت نښې  
   Da.Pr eP Pukhwani.Adj wakhth.N.Sg naŠhe.N.Plur  
   of (the) ancient remnants  
   Remnants of the time gone before

39. خو ورخ مخکښي  
   Tso wratze.N.Plur mukhe.Adv  
   Few days ago  
   Few days ago

40. یوه ورځ مخکښې د دې نه  
   One day before of this from  
   One day before this

41. یو ساعت مخکښي راغلي و اواس نشته  
   One hour ago (he) came now he is not  
   He came an hour ago, but he's not here now

42. دغه کتاب خو کاله وراندي په کابل کښې چاپ شوې دې  
   Dagjah.Deter kithaab.N.Sg Tso kaalah.N.Plur Wrande.Adv puh.PreP kaabul.N.Sg  
   This book few years back on Kabul  
   ke.PostP chaap.V shuwe de.PPT  
   in published had been  
   This book was published few years back in Kabul
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In examples above, the adjective ‘Pukhwani’ in (38) consists of ‘puh’ and ‘khwa’ which entails something located at one side away from the observer, while the adverbs [مختشم] ‘mukhke - forward, in front of’ at (39) to (41), and [دورانندی] ‘Wraned - ahead, in front of, before’ at (42) and (43) manifests that past events and time intervals are represented in Pashto language in front contrary to English language. Pashto speakers visualize past in the front as if they know them drawing upon the visual schema of KNOWING IS SEEING.

Data also reveal that future is represented in Pashto language as behind. This is contrary to English language which manifests future in the front. The adverb [روسته] ‘wrustawh’ literally means back or behind. The spatial schema of back has been used in the following sentences and clauses to reflect future in the back or behind.

In Qandahari or southern Pakhtunkhwa dialects, the adverb [روسته] ‘wrustawh’ means [شامانه] ‘shaa thah - behind, back’. It seems as if the Pashto speakers are drawing upon the visual schema, because the acts in future cannot be known as the things in the back cannot be seen. The above sentences and examples illustrate that Pashto speakers visualize past events in the front while reflecting the future in the back contrary to English speakers.

**Time is measurable quantity**

Whereas the duration of time is conceptualized as long and short in English drawing upon the length of space (Lakoff, 1993; Lakoff & Johnson, 1980b), the duration of time is conceptualized as measurable quantity in Pashto. Time is measurable quantity metaphor is found in the following sentences and clauses.
In these examples, the determiner [هیڅ] ‘hets - not any’ in (47), adjectives [ډېر] ‘der – (long) much’ in (48) and [لږ] ‘lużh - short or little’ in (49) to (50) are used for the nouns denoting time such as [وخت] ‘wakhth – time’ in (47) to (49) and [ساعت] ‘saa’ath - moment, hour, time’ in (50) to express time as measurable quantity of an object. Contrary to English language expressing time duration is space, Pashto speakers views at time through the metaphor of duration of time is measurable quantity. Consider the analysis of sentence at (50) below.

This sentence is idiomatic in nature. Literally, the sentence would mean “he is the guest of little time”, but in its situational context, the sentence means “he does not have to live long.” The phrase [لږ ساعت] ‘lużh saa’ath’ means little or short time, but time can neither be short nor little as it is not a physical object in literal sense of the term. Therefore, the phrase is metaphorical, which connotes the minimum temporal duration of time. No doubt, the phrase can be understood as duration of time is measurable quantity, the phrase, in its situational context can give further semantic affordance.

**Time is valuable commodity**

Pashto speakers also visualize time as commodity carrying some value. In English language, time is money and time is valuable commodity (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980b) or time is a resource (Grady, 1997) are in use. Following the same pattern, Pashto language has the time is valuable commodity metaphor. It has been found in the following clauses and sentences.
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51. خپل وخت قیمتی کا
   *Khpul.Pron wakhth.N.Sg qimati.Adj ka.Aux*
   own time valuable do
   Make your time valuable

52. د وخت بدل نشته
   *Da.PreP wakhth.N.Sg badal.N.Sg nishtha.Neg*
   Of time alternative no
   There is no other alternative to time

53. خپل قیمتي وخت يې بايلىې دې
   own valuable time (he) lost has
   He has lost his valuable time

54. دنبر وخت بي پري صباعو
   *Der.Adj wakhth.N.Sg ye.Pron pre.PreP dzaya.V.PST sho.Aux*
   A lot of time his on lost was
   A lot of his time was lost on it.

55. وخت غنیمت ګڼړل
   *Wakhth.N.Sg ghanimath.N.Sg gɑʁul.V.Infin*
   Time booty to count>>take advantage of
   To take advantage of favourable occasion

The noun [وقت] ‘wakhth – time’ is conceptualized in the above sentences and clauses as a valuable commodity which can have some value [پیما] ‘qimath – value’ as in (51) and (53), and prize or value [غنیمت] ‘ghanimath - prize, valuable’ in (55). Similarly, time can also be spent or wasted [ضرب] ‘dzaya - spent, wasted’ as in (54), or can be lost [بایلی] ‘baaylule – lost’ as in (53). Moreover, time as commodity has no bargaining exchange [بایلی] ‘badal – exchange’ as in (52). All these linguistic expressions reveal time as a valuable commodity that can have price or value and can be spent, wasted, lost, and exchanged in return for something.

Time is person

Data also revealed that time is visualized as person in Pashto language and poetry. Personification is one of those CMs where human attributes or behavior is attributed to inanimate objects. This is a sub-key source domain of GREAT CHAIN OF BEING METAPHOR (Lakoff & Turner, 1989). This metaphor can be illustrated with the following examples.

56. فارغ وقت
   *Faregh.Adj wakhth.N.Sg*
   Leisure time
   Leisure time

57. که وقت مساعدت وکره
   *Kah.Conj wakhth.N.Sg masaa’ath.N ukɾi.V.FT*
   If time help does
   If time permits

58. وزگار وقت
   *Wuzgar.Adj wakhth.N.Sg*
In the above clauses or verses, time is conceived as person. Time interval embodied in nouns \[\text{wakhth} \text{– time}\] as in linguistic expressions from (56) to (60), \[\text{Zumanah} \text{– age, period}\] as in (61) and (62), \[\text{wratz} \text{– day}\] in (63) and (64) and \[\text{sparli} \text{– spring}\] in (65) are given human attributes by the context in which they are used. For example, the clause at (63) is analyzed as below.

The above clause is idiomatic. Time has been used to visualize the concept of living in plenty. But, the time \[\text{wratz} \text{– day}\] has been used as if it were a person having face denoted by the lexical word \[\text{mukh} \text{– face}\]. Hence, the time \[\text{wratz} \text{– day}\] has
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been conceptualized as person having the physical attribute of Being/person. In poetic and idiomatic language, personification is a common phenomenon. However, time is person is cognitively structured, as time can only be understood in terms of experiential gestalts of space or other objects having perceptual basis.

**Time passing is tasting**

Analysis of the data also revealed the CM of time passing is tasting in Pashto language. The following linguistic expressions reflect this CM.

66. وختونو کښی خوند نشته
   *Wakhthuno.N.Plur ke.PostP khwand.N.Sg nishtah.Neg*
   (the) times in taste (there is) no
   The time is not going well

67. دیر تریخ وخت دی.
   *нные.Adv thrikh.Adj wakhth.N.Sg de.PreP*
   Very unpleasant time (it) is
   I am passing through a very unpleasant time

68. خوندور وختونه لاړل
   *Khwandawar.Adj wakhthuna.N.Plur larul.V.PrePT*
   (the) pleasant times have gone
   The pleasant times have gone

69. څه خوندور موسم دی!
   *Tsu.Pron khwandawar.Adj mosum.N.Sg de!.Aux*
   What a pleasant weather this is!
   What a pleasant weather this is!

70. اف! څه ترخه ورځ ده
   *Uff!.Interj Tsu.Pron thurkhah.Adj wratz.N.Sg dah!.Aux*
   Oh! What an unpleasant day (this) is!
   Oh! What an unpleasant day this is!

The nouns ‘wakhth – time’ in (67) and (68) are modified by the corresponding adjectives ‘thrikh - unpleasant’ and ‘Khwandawar - taste’ respectively. Time can neither have taste nor can be pleasing, and therefore, linguistic expressions are not literal, but rather they are metaphors. These linguistic metaphors are generated by time passing is tasting it. Similarly, the preposition ‘ke’ gives spatial configuration to time and material representation to the noun ‘khwand - pleasantness, taste’. Literally, neither time is a bounded space nor is ‘khwand’ an object. The sentence is multimodal in nature drawing upon two CMs, time is bounded space and taste is an object. The noun [موسم] ‘mosum – weather’ in (69) and [ورځ] ‘wratz – day’ in (70) are durational concepts of time, which an observer experiences and either feels it ‘khwandawar – pleasant’ or ‘thurkhah – unpleasant’, drawing upon the metaphor undergoing experience is tasting it (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980b) and sub-major schema of undergoing punishment is tasting it (Sardaraz, 2017; Sardaraz & Ali, 2016)
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Discussions

This paper found eight (08) CMs in the data. Most of CMs follow the same patterns as investigated in other languages. It means that Pashto language also has the same patterns as found in other major languages, such as English (Lakoff, 1993; Lakoff & Johnson, 1980a, 1980b) and Arabic (Sardaraz, 2017; Sardaraz & Ali, 2016, 2017). Thus, the present paper supports the tenets of CMT (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980b, 1999) that human conceptual system is metaphorical and the conceptual schemas not only generates linguistic metaphor expressions, but also helps in comprehension and categorization of metaphoric linguistic expressions. This paper, on the basis of its findings, suggests further studies on various CMs to find out their role in Pashto language and further extend the debate on the universality of CMs.

This paper supports the earlier findings on time-space correlations. This study has found that time is conceptualized in Pashto language through the time is thing, time is object in motion, time is bounded space and moments of time are locations in space metaphors, as found in earlier studies (Grady, 1997; Lakoff, 1993; Lakoff & Johnson, 1980b; Sardaraz, 2017). However, this paper has found that CM of time is space also differs in its entailment from English language. English language represents past time at the back, while future in the front, but Pashto language represents past events in the front while future at the back. The examples from (39) to (43) use the adverbs [مېښکښي], ‘mukhke’ - forward, in front of; and [وړاندې], ‘wërande’ - ahead, in front of, before’ for the past events, thus locating the future time in the front. Similarly, the examples from (44) to (46) use the adverb [ډړوسته], ‘wrusthah’ which means [شا ته], ‘shaa thah’ - behind, back’, using the spatial term to locate future time at the back. It might be that the Pashto speakers use the conceptual schema of KNOWING IS SEEING in representation of past time in the front and future time at the back. This is contrary to the findings of Lakoff (1993) in English language. This research finding would contribute to the existing literature on correlations between time and space across the languages.

This paper also found that time, contrary to English language representation of time as long and short in terms of space (Lakoff, 1993), has been represented in terms of measurable quantity of objects through adjectives of [ډېر], ‘der’ - (long) much’, [لږ], ‘lužh’ - short or little) and [ټوله], ‘tola’ - whole or through determiner [هیڅ], ‘hets’ - not any’ in the examples from (47) to (50). It means that Pashto speakers conceptualize the duration of time in vertical spatial direction contrary to horizontal length of space in English language. It shows that cross cultural debate on the universal tenets of CMT requires further research for revisiting the universal aspects of CMT, as claimed by Lakoff and Johnson (1980b).

Whereas Grady (1997) argued for time is resource schema in language, and Lakoff and Johnson (1980b) and Eweida (2007) debated for time is money schema in English schema, Pashto speakers also use the metaphor of time as valuable commodity in conceptualization of time. For Pashto speakers, time is a valuable commodity that can have price or value, and it can be spent, wasted, lost, and exchanged in return for something, as is the case with examples from (51) to (55). This finding also supports the cross cultural debate on tenets of CMT.
TIME IN PASHTO LANGUAGE

This paper also found that Pashto speakers use the conceptual schema of time is person in processing time. This schema is sub-key metaphor of more key metaphor of GREAT CHAIN OF BEING metaphor as envisaged by (Lakoff & Turner, 1989). The data reveals that this schema is mostly used in Pashto poetry for visualization of the abstract concept of time, as is the case with examples with (20), (59) and (65) besides the idiomatic language and everyday language. Thus, this paper also supports the findings of previous research that time and events have been given human attributes across the languages (Lakoff & Turner, 1989, Sardaraz & Ali, 2016, 2017; Sardaraz & Nusrat, 2019, 2020).

Pashto speakers conceptualize passing of time as tasting something which is either sweet or sour. This metaphor is drawing upon the primary metaphor of undergoing experience is tasting it (Grady, 1997) and sub-key metaphor undergoing punishment is tasting it (Berrada, 2007; Sardaraz & Ali, 2016). Examples (66) to (70) show that the passage of time is conceptualized as tasting it. The passage of time involves some kind of experience. Passing through some experience involves some definite duration of time. Passing through experience is expressed in terms of perceptual experience of tasting in language. Conceptualization of time though the source domain of perceptual experience may open new avenues to explore metaphors in Indian languages.

The present study has extended the existing cognitive linguistic research on Pashto language and poetry (e.g. Khan & Ahmad, 2017; Pischurnikova, 2017; Sardaraz & Nusrat, 2019, 2020). These studies have investigated different concepts from CMT perspective, such as metaphor of life by Khan and Ahmad (2017), metaphor of love is war by Pischurnikova (2017), metaphor of life and death by Sardaraz and Nusrat (2019) and CMs in Pashto Tappa by Sardaraz and Nusrat (2020). This study has explored the CM of time in Pashto and the cultural variation between Pashto and other language. Regarding the cultural variation among the languages, this paper supports the earlier findings of Klein (1987), Miracle and Yapita (1981) and Núñez and Sweetser (2006) in investigation of the Indian languages, Toba and Aymara. They found that past is reflected as in the front, while future at the back in these languages. Similarly, this study also supports the finding of Dahl (1995) who found that Malagasy language speakers conceptualize future at the back and past in the front.

This paper is a modest contribution to the cognitive semantic research in Pashto language, investigating the CMs of time in Pashto’s everyday language and in Pashto poetry. However, on the basis of these findings, it cannot be claimed that all the CMs of time have been unearthed in Pashto language. This paper recommends further exploration of CMs in Pashto poetry and everyday language in future research and conducting comparative linguistic research from a cognitive semantic perspective.

Conclusion
The findings reveal that Pashto speakers also use the conceptual correlations between the space and time to express the concepts relating to the passage of time or the duration of time as in other languages. This supports the claim that CMT has universal application across the cultures and languages, as is evident from CMs of time is thing, time is object in motion, time is bounded space, moments of time are location in space, time is a valuable commodity and time is person. However, it also substantiates the claim
that cultural differences have their own impact on metaphorical structuring of human conceptual system which are used in expression of linguistic expressions. This is evident from conceptualization of past time in front and future time at the back. Similarly, Pashto speakers conceptualize experience in certain duration of time as tasting it. This reveals that Pashto language may prove vital in investigation of different CMs, which will contribute to the cross-cultural debate on CMT. However, no generalization can be claimed on the basis of data analyzed here about the conceptualization of time in Pashto language, and it would need a corpus based study on Pashto language to make any definite conclusion. Therefore, further studies are suggested on the same schema or different conceptual schema in Pashto language or on comparative linguistic research from a cognitive semantic perspective.

References


A Comparative Study of the Lexical Differences in Speech of the Graduate Working and Non-Working Women in District Peshawar, Khyber Pakhtunkhwa

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City University of Science & IT, Peshawar Pakistan

Previous studies delineate speeches of men and women on the basis of gender, ignoring factors like context and social roles, which the present study takes into consideration by exploring the lexical differences in speech of the graduate working and non-working women in District Peshawar, Khyber Pakhtunkhwa; stereotyped for following the patriarchal norms. The study evaluates differences in the use of lexical items based on context-based authority, not gender and challenges Lakoff’s (1975) theory of women’s language as powerless in the context of KP. Mixed method research and Fairclough’s Critical Discourse Analysis technique (CDA) help to analyse five features from women’s language namely lexical hedges, adjectives, intensifiers, minimal responses and super polite forms. The research sample comprises fifteen female participants; six non-working graduate women and nine working graduate women selected randomly from the district Peshawar. Data is collected through semi-structured interviews. The study finds that non-working women use five lexical items 1,261 times i.e. 34.84 % whereas working women employed these 777 times i.e. 17.73 % illustrating a difference of 484. The study concludes that women’s speech changes as the roles change particularly as per the context-based authority, not gender. The present study is helpful in understanding the sociolinguistic perspective of women’s language in KP. In future, researchers may investigate women’s speech in English learning classrooms in KP.

Keywords: Lakoff; Powerless speech; Lexical items; Peshawar KP; Working woman; Non-working woman

Language and gender are the most debated topics in the contemporary world. Mostly researchers in the westinvestigated gender-based differences in language (Fishman, 1980; Holmes, 1984; Montgomery, 1995; Wardhaugh, 2006). In KP, Pakistan, less attention is paid to women’s speech considering context and social status as determining factors. In fact, “Pakistan, more specifically, comes into the region of classic patriarchy where women not only observe but are victims of stereotypical patriarchal traditions” (Moghadam, 1992; Kandiyoti, 1988; Snauddin, 2015). Linguistic choices used for women in Pakistan are quite different from those used for men.

Social roles and context make speech powerful. Women’s status in District Peshawar is influenced by ethnic background and women “are under the heavy weight of
patriarchy...not fit for taking part in the public sphere” (Ahmed et al., 2019). However, despite of being overlooked and degraded, women from KP challenged patriarchal norms namely Zamkhulakezibalaram “I too have a tongue in my mouth” (Sanauddin, 2015).

Lakoff (1975) explored that “women in their speech use ten linguistic features which make their speech deficit”. Women’s use of hedges or fillers such as “You know” or “Aaa” indicate their powerless social position (as cited in Holmes, 2013). Women speech is deficit compared to men (Sanauddin, 2015). Presence of these features in women’s speech is the sign of women’s insecurity and powerlessness (Lakoff cited in Amanda, 2017).

“Gender identities are individual as well as social and thus subject to change among different generations, situations and language users” (Litosseliti, 2013). Thus, speech is genderless and restricting speech to gender is only a biased representation of speech.

Theoretical Framework and Review of Literature
Lakoff’s theory used as a standpoint for the analysis maintains that women speech is powerless due to the presence of ten linguistic features. She connected ten linguistic items namely hedges, tag questions, intensifiers, minimal responses, empty adjectives, polite forms, intonation emphasis, colour terms, super polite forms and swear words considering their use characteristic of women speech illustrating the inferior social status of women. It asserts that women, in their speech, frequently use these features, which create negative impact on women and their status in society. Lakoff (1975) named the linguistic items, comprising a specific language style, as “women’s language,” characteristic of every woman’s speech. These ‘women’s language’ items are problematized in the sense that as they add to the subjugation of “women’s personal identity by denying her the means of expressing herself strongly”.

Lakoff (1975) asserted that the inferior status of women’s speech was due to their powerless position in the society. It was powerless due to “their empty vocabulary, their weedier exclamations, their tendency to be over-polite...their intonation patterns indicate their uncertainty and speaker’s approval...other features that indicate their insecurity are tag questions and the use of more intensifiers and qualifiers” (cited in Litosseliti, 2013).

District Peshawar is falsified for its women being underrated and docile. The present study explores the lexical differences of working and non-working graduate women in District Peshawar, KP to challenge Lakoff’s theory in the contemporary context. Due to the time constraint, it analyses only five features as indicators of powerless speech. Occurrence of these features is investigated in the speech of working and non-working graduate women to conform that women speech varies according to their social positioning. It is delimited to Lakoff’s five language features; hedges, adjectives, minimal responses, intensifiers and super polite forms.
THE LEXICAL DIFFERENCES IN SPEECH

Women’s Speech from the Perspective of Dominance Approach

A more empirical and dominance perspective found that women in speech used more hedges and tag questions than men (Fishman, 1983). Brown and Gilman (1960) also based their findings on the context by focusing power and solidarity. Gender studies associates power with ‘men’s speech’ while solidarity is associated with ‘women’s speech.’ However, solidarity also indicated the social distance between two people. Men and women used fewer hedges in formal context than in informal context, challenging Lakoff’s claim (Dixon & Foster, 1997). A study on four lexical items namely tag questions, intensifiers, minimal responses and hedges of “tentative language” under six conversational aspects like gender, status, relation among participants, setting, discussion activity and size of the group confirmed that women used tentative language more than men (Leaper & Robnett, 2011).

Feminist Critique of Women’s Speech

Difference between men and women in every aspect of their social life is a cultural imposition. Contemporary gendered discourses embody and reconstitute, and challenge gendered social practices. Gender is seen as multifaceted identity, continually being constructed and performed (Sunderland, 2006). Constitutive potential also contributes to the gender and language study. Power interfaces with both gender and discourse. ‘Power is seen as a continuous fluctuation, flexible and manifold, so that a given member in a given condition is located by and within the system of speeches’ (Baxter, 2002 as cited in Sunderland, 2006). Pakistani women continuously change and develop with time (Ahmad, 2009, Ghani et al., 2007, Rind et al., 2015).

Objectives of the Study

1. To challenge Lakoff’s idea of women language as powerless by examining the lexical items in the speech of working and non-working graduate women in District Peshawar, KP
2. To explore differences in the use of lexical items of the working and non-working graduate women in District Peshawar based on context-based authority, not gender

Theoretical Framework

The researcher challenges Lakoff’s (1975) theory regarding women’s language on the basis of its relation to the women’s speech in society. Lakoff developed a connection in language, gender and power relationships asserting that women in their speech frequently used tag questions, hedges, intensifiers, amplifiers, minimal responses, polite forms, question sentences, intonation emphasis, and other features, which created a negative impact on women, and weakens women’s position in society.

Lakoff named these linguistic items, comprising a specific language style, as “women’s language,” characteristic of every woman’s speech. These items were problematized as they added to the subjugation of “women’s personal identity by denying her the means of expressing herself strongly”. Discriminations against women in society may also be associated to their linguistic exposure in patriarchal societies.
Lexical Hedges or Filler
Hedge or filler is a lexical item that reduces the force of an utterance. Hedges are the sign of speaker’s insecurity (Talbot, 2010). Hedges express uncertainty, politeness, certainty and vocalizations (Lakoff, 1975).

Intensifier
Intensifiers increase or decrease the intensity of an utterance. These reinforce, convey the emotive function of message, and strengthen the statements for seriousness (Holmes 1984; Amanda, 2017).

Minimal Responses
Minimal responses are attributes frequently used by women, however, these forms should not be assumed as signs of powerlessness rather these forms the best conversational strategies (Coates, 2004).

Empty Adjectives
Women use empty adjectives to express emotions, admiration or approval used by both sexes (Lakoff, 1975).

Super-polite Forms
Super-polite forms are used to avoid swear words, euphemism, assertion and use more particles in a request sentence (as cited in Lakoff, 1975). However, it does not lower the speaker’s position (Amanda, 2017).

Method
Women’s language limits women’s means of expression as well as suppresses their identity. Possible differences of goals in different roles of the women constitute the powerful and powerless patterns of speech. The present study uses Fairclough’s 3-D Model (1989) to analyse the speech items in women’s speech, which elaborated the link between language, power and ideology. Its 3 dimensions of analysis are 1) textual analysis (description), 2) Processing analysis (interpretation), 3) Social Analysis (explanation).

“Linguistic analysis includes the analysis of grammar, vocabulary, sound system, semantics and cohesion organization above the sentence level” (Fairclough, 1995). This study, has considered open-ended responses of the selected Pashtoon working and non-working graduate female participants as “Text”. Processing Analysis shows the relationship between discourse processes and the text. Reading is a product of interface between the properties of the text and the interpretive resources and practices, which the interpreter brings to bear upon the text. It interprets the collected data (lexical items) by analysing the whole context in which the data is collected and provides a relationship between the data and the context i.e. age, education, profession, family background and setting. “Explanation is concerned with the relationship between interaction and social context with the social determination of the process of production and interpretation, and their social effects” (Fairclough, 1989). Hence, the analysis focuses on the language and individual words shaping text. Social factors such as
ideology or power are crucial to fully explain the interaction between socio-cultural context and the production and consumption of texts.

**Data Collection Tool**

The present study used semi-structured interviews as tool for collecting data. Semi-structured interviews consisting of 10 question help guide the conversation and keep the respondents focused. Responses of each participant were recorded via tape recorder and transcribed manually by gathering notes focusing context, nuances, and meanings. Data in the form of lexical items was arranged into tables to compare the quantity of the 5 selected lexical items in two different contexts i.e. household and work place.

**Sampling and Population**

The research sample consisted of 15 graduate working and non-working women, selected randomly through stratified sampling technique from district Peshawar. The researcher divided the research population into two strata on the basis of their gender, job and education level. Thus, the research sample includes women with higher education that is from Bachelors (B.A) to Masters (M.A) with a difference of income level. The researcher took 9 graduate women from the working women group while 6 graduate women from the non-working group. Graduate working women group is further divided into three sub-strata such as three medical officers, three lady police constables and three bank officers. Following the research ethics, the participants’ identity was kept confidential and used label as ‘Interviewee I, II, III ... XVI’ for each participant.

Following section has two dimensions i.e. text and interpretation to investigate the lexical differences in the speech of working and non-working graduate women in various contexts.

**Interviewee I (Technician in Hospital)**

Interviewee I from district Peshawar, graduate in Arts with Pathology diploma is a technician in Hospital. Following data was collected from her interview.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Total Utterances</th>
<th>Lexical Items</th>
<th>Total No. of Items Use</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>L.H+F</td>
<td>02+09=11</td>
<td>2.933%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Adj.</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>7.466%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>I.</td>
<td>03</td>
<td>0.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>M.R</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>2.66%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>SPF</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>375</td>
<td>52</td>
<td></td>
<td>13.86%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1 illustrates the lowest number of lexical items i.e. 52 of 375 utterances with 13.86%. used by Interviewee I. She used 11 lexical hedges i.e. 2.933% of which 2 are hedges e.g. ‘My thinking’, ‘You know’ and the remaining 9 are fillers like ‘aaa’, ‘eee’ and ‘likely.’ Lakoff proposed that women used the highest number of lexical hedges as compared to men however, it turned the contrary. Adjectives in her speech occurred 28 times with 7.466% though a highest percentage was expected. She used only 3
intensifiers with 0.8% indicating she did not assert herself or her position. Interviewee I used fewer intensifiers. Although minimal responses as a strategy to improve the conversation, show the responsive attitude of the listener, however she uttered 10 minimal responses implying her lack of command of English responding in ‘yes’, ‘no’, ‘hmmm’ etc. Super polite forms were hardly used probably due to work environment. Overall, she used 52 lexical items.

**Interviewee II (NTI as Post-Doc House Officer)**

Interviewee II, from Swat, MBBS graduated from Saidu Medical College Swat works as NTI-a Post-Doc house officer. Following data was collected from her responses during interview.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Total Utterances</th>
<th>Lexical Items</th>
<th>Total No. of Items Use</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>L.H+F</td>
<td>14+90 =104</td>
<td>6.071%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Adj.</td>
<td>147</td>
<td>8.581%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>5.720%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>M.R</td>
<td>09</td>
<td>0.525%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>SPF</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>00%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1,713</td>
<td>358</td>
<td></td>
<td>20.89%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2 illustrates the lexical items used by Interviewee II. Among all the working women participants, she used the highest number of lexical items i.e. 358 out of 1,713 with 20.89%. She used 147 adjectives with 8.581% of the entire data. Most common adjectives used by her included ‘good’, ‘negative’, ‘positive’, ‘important’, ‘educated’. She used lexical hedges 104 times including hedging device ‘I think’ occurring 14 times; the remaining 90 were fillers like ‘ShukarAlhamdullilah’, ‘Insha’Allah’ indicating her religious zeal. She frequently used fillers e.g. ‘likely’/’like’, ‘aaa’ and ‘amm’ for explanation. Similarly, 98 intensifiers as ‘all’, ‘most’, ‘just’ etc. were used for emphasizing social reforms. She used 09 minimal responses indicating her expressive nature. She frequently used responses like ‘aaaaaa’ when recalling the words. Her speech lacked super polite forms. Overall, her speech did not appear powerless rather her profession demanded the use of such items in dealings.

**Interviewee III (House Officer in Surgical Unit)**

Interviewee III MBBS graduate from Saidu Medical College Swat is a House Officer and serves in Surgical Unit. Following data was collected from her interview:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Total Utterances</th>
<th>Lexical Items</th>
<th>Total No. of Items Use</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>L.H+F</td>
<td>06+23=29</td>
<td>4.166%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Adj.</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>5.172%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>7.040%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>M.R</td>
<td>05</td>
<td>0.718%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>SPF</td>
<td>03</td>
<td>0.431%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>696</td>
<td>122</td>
<td></td>
<td>17.52%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
THE LEXICAL DIFFERENCES IN SPEECH

Table 3 illustrates lexical items used by Interviewee III during her interview. She uttered 696 words where total 122 lexical items appeared with 17.52%. Lexical hedges occurred 29 times with 4.166%. She used 06 typical hedges e.g. ‘you know’, ‘sort of’, ‘I mean’, etc. to initiate the conversation with the interviewer and 29 fillers i.e. ‘look’, ‘just’, ‘like’ and ‘aaa;49 intensifiers with 7.040%. Adjectives used in low frequency constituting 5.172% were situational e.g. ‘supportive’, ‘successful’, ‘role model’, etc. Minimal responses, ‘yes’, ‘no’ and ‘obviously’ supported the topic. One polite marker ‘I would’ was repeated 3 times with 0.431 of the data.

Interviewee IV (Operation Manager in Bank)

Interviewee IV, MA Public Administration, works as Operation Manager in a bank of Peshawar. Following number of lexical items were used during her interview.

Table 4

*Total No. of Lexical Items Used by Interviewee IV:*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Total Utterances</th>
<th>Lexical Items</th>
<th>Total No. of Items Use</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>L.H+F</td>
<td>00+19=19</td>
<td>5.307%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Adj.</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>6.424%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>4.189%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>M.R</td>
<td>05</td>
<td>1.396%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>SPF</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.778%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>358</td>
<td></td>
<td>62</td>
<td>17.31%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4 demonstrates the lexical features used 62 times of 358 utterances with 17.31%. Responses were direct, precise and formal devoid of hedges while fillers such as ‘aaa’ and ‘amm’ occurred 19 times due to difficulty in speaking English. Contextual adjectives used 23 times with 6.424% e.g. ‘banking sector’, ‘dominant place’, ‘different jobs’, ‘present position’, etc. Intensifiers occurred in low frequency i.e. 4.189% asserting her message instead her position. Minimal responses with 1.396%; the most common response was ‘yes’.

Interviewee V (Operation Manager in Bank)

Interviewee V from Peshawar, MA in Public Administration is Operation Manager in one of the banks in Peshawar. From her interview, following data was collected:

Table 5

*Total No. of Lexical Items Used by Interviewee V:*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Total Utterances</th>
<th>Lexical Items</th>
<th>Total No. of Items Use</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>L.H+F</td>
<td>04+06=10</td>
<td>3.891%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Adj.</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>6.225%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>09</td>
<td>3.501%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>M.R</td>
<td>05</td>
<td>1.945%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>SPF</td>
<td>02</td>
<td>0.778%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>257</td>
<td></td>
<td>42</td>
<td>16.34%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5 illustrates the overall lexical features. Lexical forms occurred 42 times out of 257 utterances forming 16.34% of her total utterances; 3.891% of the total utterances were hedges and fillers such as ‘I think’, ‘I guess’ and ‘well’ and
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‘Alhamdullilah’, ‘since’, ‘like’, ‘just’ and ‘since’. Only 16 adjectives, highly contextual e.g. ‘work place’, ‘female education’, ‘working woman’, etc. appeared in her entire interview. Nine causal intensifiers such as ‘so’, ‘very’, ‘really’, etc. with 3.501 % and 5 minimal responses indicated her fluency in English. Like Interviewee III, she repeated 01 polite marker ‘I would’ twice in her interview. Overall, Interviewee V used minimum lexical features associated with women’s speech.

**Interviewee VI (General Bank Officer in Peshawar)**

Interviewee VI, MSc. in Economics works as General Bank Officer in Peshawar. She used the following lexical items in her interview:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 6</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total No. of Lexical Items Used by Interviewee VI:</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6 indicates the lexical features used by Interviewee VI. In comparison, Interviewee VI scored high in using lexical forms i.e. 63 times out of 353 utterances forming 17.84 % of her total utterances in which 15 were lexical hedges with 4.249 % and only 3 commonly used hedges i.e. ‘I think’ and ‘I guess’ adopted as strategies for the flow of conversation; fillers such as ‘since’, ‘like’ and ‘aaa’ occurred 12 times for explaining her stance as well as for recollection. Beside this, adjectives occurred 23 times that make up 6.515 %. Like other participants, her adjectives are related to the topic and context such as ‘dominant’, ‘educated’, ‘challenging’, etc. Intensifiers occurred 15 times with 4.249 % of the total. 6 minimal responses ‘yes’ and ‘no’ and super polite forms i.e. ‘I would prefer’ and ‘I would like’ appeared one and three times respectively with 1.133 %. From her responses, she appeared a calculated and influential woman.

**Interviewee VII (Sub-Inspector in Peshawar Ladies Police)**

Interviewee VII, Masters in Urdu serves as sub-inspector in Ladies Police in Peshawar. Following data was recorded during her interview:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 7</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total No. of Lexical Items Used by Interviewee VII:</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
THE LEXICAL DIFFERENCES IN SPEECH

Table 7 demonstrates the lexical items used by Interviewee VII: 24 utterances in which lexical items appeared 25 times; 10.41% of the total. No hedging device rather 2 most common fillers like ‘aaa’, ‘mmm’, 17 adjectives like ‘respectable’, ‘dominating’, ‘successful’ etc. related to the topic and context with 7.083% of the total, 3 intensifiers ‘so’, ‘very’ and ‘easily’ infrequently appeared in her responses, 3 minimal responses with the most common one ‘Yes’. The speech was devoid of super polite forms, which indicated context and situation-based authority.

Interviewee VIII (Assistant Sub-Inspector in Peshawar)

Interviewee VIII, MA in Islamiyat serves as an Assistant Sub-Inspector (ASI) in Ladies Police Station, Peshawar. Following lexical items were recorded during her interview:

Table 8
Total No. of Lexical Items Used by Interviewee VIII:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Total Utterances</th>
<th>Lexical Items</th>
<th>Total No. of Items Use</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>L.H+F</td>
<td>01+03=04</td>
<td>2.173%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Adj.</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>5.434%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>02</td>
<td>1.086%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>M.R</td>
<td>08</td>
<td>4.347%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>SPF</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>00%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>184</td>
<td></td>
<td>24</td>
<td>13.04%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 8 shows only 24 lexical items recorded out of 184 utterances i.e. 13.04% of total utterances. The speech consisted of 4 lexical hedges making 2.173% with one hedging device ‘I think’, one filler ‘as a lady police’ repeated three times, 10 adjectives like ‘respectable’, ‘peaceful’, ‘educated’, ‘successful’ etc. within the context showing 5.434%, 2 intensifiers with 1.086% of her total utterances, 8 minimal responses i.e. ‘Yes’ was frequent with no super polite form. Interviewee VIII’s speech appeared context bound.

Interviewee IX (Assistant Sub-Inspector in Peshawar)

Interviewee IX, MA in Islamiyat serves as Assistant Sub-Inspector in Ladies Police Station Peshawar. She used following lexical items:

Table 9
Total No. of Lexical Items Used by Interviewee IX:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Total Utterances</th>
<th>Lexical Items</th>
<th>Total No. of Items Use</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>L.H+F</td>
<td>02+10=12</td>
<td>5.825%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Adj.</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>6.310%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>03</td>
<td>1.456%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>M.R</td>
<td>01</td>
<td>0.485%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>SPF</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>00%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>206</td>
<td></td>
<td>29</td>
<td>14.07%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 9 illustrates Interviewee IX using 29 lexical items out of her 206 utterances i.e. 14.07%, consisting of 12 hedges where one hedging device i.e. ‘I think’ was repeated twice and 10 fillers in which the commonest one was ‘as a police officer’ and ‘aaa’. Adjectives e.g. ‘different courses’, ‘multiple roles’, ‘key role’, ‘better way’,
etc. were contextual; 13 in number i.e. 6.310 %; 3 intensifiers with 1.456 % and the commonest minimal response ‘yes’ occurred only once infrequently used with 0.485 %. Her speech devoid of any super polite form indicated her authority within the context of her profession.

Table 10
Total No. of Lexical Items Used by Working Women:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Occupation</th>
<th>LH+F</th>
<th>Adj.</th>
<th>I</th>
<th>MR</th>
<th>SPF</th>
<th>Total Utterances</th>
<th>Total Items</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Interviewee I</td>
<td>Technician</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>03</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>375</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>13.86%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Interviewee II</td>
<td>Doctor</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>147</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>09</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1,713</td>
<td>358</td>
<td>20.89%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Interviewee III</td>
<td>Doctor</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>05</td>
<td>03</td>
<td>696</td>
<td>122</td>
<td>17.52%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Interviewee IV</td>
<td>Operation Manager</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>05</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>358</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>17.31%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Interviewee V</td>
<td>Operation Manager</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>09</td>
<td>05</td>
<td>02</td>
<td>257</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>16.34%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Interviewee VI</td>
<td>Bank Officer</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>06</td>
<td>04</td>
<td>353</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>17.84%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>Interviewee VII</td>
<td>Sub-Inspector</td>
<td>02</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>03</td>
<td>03</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>240</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>10.41%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>Interviewee VIII</td>
<td>Assistant Inspectors</td>
<td>04</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>02</td>
<td>08</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>184</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>13.04%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>Interviewee IX</td>
<td>Assistant Inspector</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>03</td>
<td>01</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>206</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>14.07%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sum Total</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>206</td>
<td>313</td>
<td>197</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>09</td>
<td>4,382</td>
<td>777</td>
<td>17.73%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 10 demonstrates the overall lexical items used by the participants i.e. 777 out of total 4,382 utterances with 17.73 %. The item used less frequently was ‘super polite form’ occurring 9 times. Next infrequent item was ‘minimal responses’ used 52 times. Similarly, intensifiers occurred 197 times. Lexical hedge or filler appeared 206 times as the second frequent item. Most frequent item used was adjectives appearing 313 overall. The table reflects that the working women used lexical features of women’s language less frequently due to context and power-based authority.

Data Analysis of Graduate Non-working Women
Interviewee XI
Interviewee XI, MA in Political Science, is unmarried and non-working woman.

Table 11
Total No. of Lexical Items Used by Interviewee XI:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Total Utterances</th>
<th>Lexical Items</th>
<th>Total No. of Items Use</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>L.H+F</td>
<td>13+106=119</td>
<td>14.583%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Adj.</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>14.093%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>5.882%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>M.R</td>
<td>09</td>
<td>1.102%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>SPF</td>
<td>02</td>
<td>0.245%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>816</td>
<td>293</td>
<td></td>
<td>35.90%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 11 shows 816 words with lexical items occurring 293 times i.e. 35.90 % of the data. Frequent lexical items used were hedges appearing 119 times with 14.583 %;
I think’, ‘well’ and ‘you know’ occurred 11 times while remaining 108 were the most common fillers like ‘aaa’, ‘amm’ and ‘Alhamdullilah’. Adjectives at a frequency of 115 appeared forming 14.093 % of the entire data. She used adjectives related to education such as ‘high level’, ‘broad vision’, ‘positive’, ‘open-minded’, ‘wise’, ‘successful’, ‘educated’, as well as to informal context i.e. ‘good’, ‘important’, ‘vital’, ‘hard’, ‘far away’; the most frequent adjective was ‘good’. Intensifiers occurred 48 times with 5.882 %. Furthermore, minimal responses occurred 9 times making 1.102 % of the data. ‘Aaaa’, ‘yes’ and ‘amm’ were the most common minimal responses due to lack of command on English language. The least frequent item used was super polite form ‘I would’ occurring only twice with 0.245% of the entire data. Her speech contained women’s speech lexical features due to informal context reflecting her lack of authority.

Interviewee XII
Interviewee XII, a graduate and diploma holder in Homeopathic, is a young, married non-working woman.

Table 12
Total No. of Lexical Items Used by Interviewee XII:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Total Utterances</th>
<th>Lexical Items</th>
<th>Total No. of Items Use</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>L.H</td>
<td>12+69=81</td>
<td>11.722 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Adj.</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>13.748%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>5.788 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>M.R</td>
<td>05</td>
<td>0.723 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>SPF</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>00%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>691</td>
<td></td>
<td>221</td>
<td>31.98%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 12 illustrates total 691 utterances where 221 lexical items appeared i.e. 31.98 % of the entire data. Adjective appeared 95 times forming 13.748 %. The most causal adjectives were ‘good’, ‘important’, ‘supportive’, ‘Pashtoon society’, ‘well educated’ in accordance with the context. The second most recurring item is lexical hedges used 81 out of which ‘you know’ and ‘I think’, ‘I guess’ were recorded 12 times while the common fillers used by Pashtuns like ‘aaa’ and ‘amm’ appeared 69 times with 11.722 %. Forty intensifiers formed 5.788 % with recurring ‘also’, ‘very’ and ‘so’. Beside this, only 5 minimal responses with 0.723 % including ‘Yes’, and ‘No’ intended to support the speaker as well as insufficient English vocabulary and difficulty in spoken English. No polite forms appeared. Her speech reflected the typical lexical items mentioned by Lakoff (1979).

Interviewee XIII
Interviewee XIII, from Peshawar, MA in Education, is a young unmarried woman.

Table 13
Total No. of Lexical Items Used by Interviewee XIII:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Total Utterances</th>
<th>Lexical Items</th>
<th>Total No. of Items Use</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>L.H+F</td>
<td>12+57=69</td>
<td>21.630%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Adj.</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>8.150%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>8.463%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>M.R</td>
<td>06</td>
<td>1.880%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>SPF</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>00%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>319</td>
<td></td>
<td>128</td>
<td>40.12%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 13 illustrates 319 utterances throughout her interview with 128 lexical items i.e. 40.12% of the whole data. Lexical hedges occurred 69 times with 21.630% including 8 hedges ‘you know’ and ‘I think’ implying her hesitation as she asked the approval of the interviewer for every response. Typical fillers like ‘aaa’ and ‘ammm’ occurred 61 times. Intensifiers as ‘very’, ‘so’ and ‘also’ recurred 27 times, while 26 adjectives with mostly recurring expressions e.g. ‘good’, ‘strict’ formed 8.150% of the entire data. Like Interviewee XII, Interviewee XIII used minimal responses ‘Yes’ and ‘No’ 06 times forming 1.880% of the data. Her responses lacked polite markers.

**Interviewee XIV**

Interviewee XIV, MA in Islamiyat, is a house wife living in a joint family system.

**Table 14**

*Total No. of Lexical Items Used by Interviewee XIV:*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Total Utterances</th>
<th>Lexical Items</th>
<th>Total No. of Items Use</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>L.H+F</td>
<td>01+70=71</td>
<td>14.853%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Adj.</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>5.857%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>5.230%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>M.R</td>
<td>07</td>
<td>1.464%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>SPF</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>00%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>478</td>
<td></td>
<td>131</td>
<td>27.40%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 14 shows 478 as the total number of lexical items. A number of 131 items with 27.40% shows lexical hedges as the recurring item with 01 typical hedge ‘I mean’ used to justify her stance while the remaining 70 are the typical fillers as ‘ammm’ and ‘aaa.’ 71 hedges were recorded comprising 14.853% of the entire data. Adjectives appeared 28 times with a percentage of 5.857%. She used typical adjectives as ‘good’, ‘better’, ‘important’, ‘difficult’, etc. Similarly, she used intensifiers 25 times, which were also typical like ‘so’, ‘very’ and ‘also’. It was probably due her limited vocabulary and less exposure. She uttered minimal responses ‘yes’, ‘no’ and ‘hmm’ 7 times. No polite markers occurred in her speech.

**Interviewee XV**

Interviewee XV, MA in Education and English is a house wife living in joint family system.

**Table 15**

*Total No. of Lexical Items Used by Interviewee XV:*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Total Utterances</th>
<th>Lexical Items</th>
<th>Total No. of Items Use</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>L.H+F</td>
<td>18+173=191</td>
<td>20.405 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Adj.</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>8.547%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>7.264%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>M.R</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>1.602%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>SPF</td>
<td>03</td>
<td>0.320%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>936</td>
<td></td>
<td>357</td>
<td>38.14%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 15 represents 357 lexical items out of 936 utterances with 38.14%; the highest score amongst the participants of working and non-working women. Lexical
hedges occurred frequently i.e. 191 times with 20.405% in which 18 are hedges such as ‘I think’, ‘You know’ and ‘well’ and the remaining 173 are fillers like ‘aaa’, ‘ammm’ articulated for recollection; the rest created religious identity e.g. ‘Alhamdullilah’ and ‘Insallah’. Adjectives were recorded 80 times as the 2nd most recurring item with 8.547% of the data. Most typical adjectives such as ‘good’, ‘important’, ‘respectful’, ‘educated’, gave an idea of her bookish knowledge. Adjectives and intensifiers appeared frequently, 68 times forming 7.264% with typical intensifiers ‘very’, ‘so’, ‘also’ and some are latest as ‘rarely’, ‘definitely’, ‘especially’. Minimal responses appeared 15 times with 1.602% e.g. ‘yes’, ‘no’, ‘of course’ and ‘hmm.’ As compared to other participants, she used 01 polite marker ‘I would’ 3 times in her speech. She made efforts to convey her message in English. This indicated her willingness and spirit towards learning.

Interviewee XVI
Interviewee XVI is a young, unmarried woman, holding MA Degree in Islamiyat.

Table 16
Total No. of Lexical Items Used by Interviewee XVI:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Total Utterances</th>
<th>Lexical Items</th>
<th>Total No. of Items Use</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>L.H+F</td>
<td>11+55=66</td>
<td>17.414%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Adj.</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>7.387%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>6.596%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>M.R</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>2.902%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>SPF</td>
<td>01</td>
<td>0.263%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>379</td>
<td></td>
<td>131</td>
<td>34.56%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 16 represents 131 lexical items out of 379 with 34.56%. Maximum recorded items was lexical hedges i.e. 66 showing 17.41%, in which 11 were general hedges like ‘I think’ and ‘you know’ while the remaining 55 were typical fillers as ‘aaa’ and ‘ammm.’ Likewise 28 adjectives formed 7.38% of the data. The commonest of these were ‘good’, ‘peaceful’, ‘important’, ‘educated’ observed in the speech of almost every participant. Intensifiers appeared 25 times with 6.59% e.g. very’, ‘so’ and ‘also.’ On the other hand, 11 minimal responses were recorded with general responses like ‘Yes’, ‘No’ and ‘of course.’ In addition, 01 polite marker ‘I would’ formed the least percentage. The speech contained the items similar to the other non-working women’s speech items due to informal context and lack of power and social authority.

Table 17
Total No. of Lexical Items Used by Non-working Women:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Name</th>
<th>LH+F</th>
<th>Adj</th>
<th>I</th>
<th>MR</th>
<th>SPF</th>
<th>Total Utterances</th>
<th>Total Items</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Interviewee X</td>
<td>119</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>09</td>
<td>02</td>
<td>816</td>
<td>293</td>
<td>35.90%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Interviewee XI</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>05</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>691</td>
<td>221</td>
<td>31.98%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Interviewee XII</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>06</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>319</td>
<td>128</td>
<td>40.12%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Interviewee XIII</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>07</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>478</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>27.40%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Interviewee XIV</td>
<td>191</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>03</td>
<td>936</td>
<td>357</td>
<td>38.14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Interviewee XV</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>01</td>
<td>379</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>34.56%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sum Total</td>
<td>597</td>
<td>372</td>
<td>233</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>06</td>
<td>3,619</td>
<td>1,261</td>
<td>34.84%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Usman, Riaz, Ishtiaq

The above table shows the total number of lexical items used by non-working women during their interview. Sum total of these items is 1,261 out of 3,619 utterances with 208.1% of the total utterances of the non-working women. Most frequently used item by non-working women was lexical hedges occurring 597 times. Adjective recorded 372 times and intensifiers appeared 233 times while 53 minimal responses were noted. The least uttered item was super polite forms occurring just 6 times of the whole data. It is proved from the above table that non-professional women used the lexical items more frequently than the professional women. Difference of about 484 in the use of lexical items is seen among the participants of both the groups.

Discussion

Data analysis illustrated that working women used scholarly adjectives according to the context intended for emotional messages rather than admiration and approval. The second frequent item was intensifier that occurred 150 times, to convey emotional message and strengthen the conversation seeking serious attention (Armida, 2017, p. 48). Likewise, 144 lexical hedges appeared for the tentativeness e.g. ‘I guess’ and ‘well’ and reflection like ‘aaa’, ‘amm’, for explanation e.g. ‘like’ and ‘since’ or as a sign of good omen e.g. ‘Alhamdullilah’, ‘Mashallah’ and ‘Inshallah.’ Hedges were 144 as a strategy adopted for ongoing conversation. Lakoff(1979) characterized hedges as the devices used for uncertainty and tentativeness in communication whereas Amanda (2017) defined them increasing the confidence level of females. 24 Minimal responses occurred and 3 polite markers were used by a single participant.

Polite markers were also used as a strategy to avoid suppressed expression and identity (Lakoff, 1979). However, in case of doctors the least use was due to the formal topic and context. It implied that it was their profession’s demand to deal the patients graciously. Similarly, women working in Banks used lexical items less frequently i.e. 167 lexical items, 62 contextual adjectives as compared to doctors’ speech. Lexical hedges as the second frequent items like ‘I guess’ and ‘I think’ indicated certainty on the speakers’ part while the other hedging devices ‘you know’ and ‘well’ showed uncertainty when asked for the suggestions. Common fillers ‘aaa’ and ‘amm’ ‘since’ and ‘like’ were used for explanation process. Similarly, 39 intensifiers were recorded in their speech thrice lesser to doctors. Common intensifiers like ‘so’ and ‘very’ were used for emphasis rather than assertion. On the other hand, only 16 minimal responses were uttered. Doctors appeared firm and authoritative with powerful speech displaying no hesitation, uncertainty or insecurity.

Lady police officers used the least number of items i.e. 78 of the total data. They used adjectives 40 times; the highest score recorded in their entire data, however, lowest recorded score as compared to other participants. They used simple but contextual adjectives. They used lexical hedges along with 18 fillers; the most common was ‘as a lady police’ uttered as assertion of position. 12 minimal responses were used such as ‘yes’ and ‘no’ in their answers intended to maintain and accept the topic. Lowest number of intensifiers i.e. 8 including ‘so’, ‘very’ and ‘all’ were used. A remarkable difference was the absence of super polite form in the speech of lady police officers indicating
THE LEXICAL DIFFERENCES IN SPEECH

they were commanding and determined ladies of high standing. Hence, claim about women’s speech as powerless is doubtful in the case of professional women’s speech.

Table 17 illustrated the overall items used by non-working women in their interviews. They used the maximum number of lexical items i.e. 1,261. The calculated difference between the data of working and non-working women speech was 484. Unlike the working women, the non-working women used 597 lexical hedges e.g. ‘you know’, implying uncertainty. They frequently used fillers i.e. ‘aaa’ and ‘amm’ implying hesitation, insufficient vocabulary and poor command on English language; reason being their limited life and activities. Through adjectives, intensifiers and lexical hedges, they explained their stance. They used general type of lexical items, which Lakoff characterized as feminine features. Whereas the second most frequent item occurring in their speech was causal adjectives, 372 in number e.g. ‘good’, ‘hard’, ‘important’, ‘narrow-minded’, ‘hard-minded’ etc. Intensifiers were used in high frequency i.e. 233. The most common were ‘very’, ‘so’, ‘also’ repeated often. 53 Minimal responses like ‘yes’, ‘no’ and ‘hmm’ were used in support of the speaker to grip the topic before any response.

To conclude participants from both groups demonstrated difference in the speech due to their respective contexts. The non-working women had no self-image; their priority was family and house hold. In a patriarchal context of District Peshawar, they earned respect but lacked self-image. Therefore, use of lexical items asserted their position and conformed to the social norms designed for women. Working women had different learning experiences to construct their self-image. They were dominant and strong; their vision broadened reflected in their speech; flexible according to the context.

Conclusion
Fairclough’s Three-Dimensional Model of Text Analysis (CDA) as a research method helped to analyse the responses of working and non-working graduate women, collected through a semi-structured interview. Based on findings and discussions, the non-working women frequently employed five features in their responses more as compared to the working-women.

The working women employed adjectives in highest frequency whereas as these were the second highest item in the speech of non-working women. Working women mostly used adjectives based on context intended for meaning and emphasis of the message rather than admiration and praise. They did not conform to the claims of Lakoff that women used empty adjectives, which were more feminine in nature. Non-working women made highest score in Lexical hedges or fillers with a great pace because their spoken English was not strong and they did not have sufficient English vocabulary, which caused pauses in their answers. Their utterances showed inclination to contentment. Intensifiers, in both cases, functioned as boosting device used for emphasis and emotional message. Both working and non-working women used minimal responses to support the speaker or to accept or end the new topic. The least occurred item in the responses of both working and non-working women was super polite form. Reason behind the infrequent use of super polite forms was that the participants of both groups did not have the tendency to use polite markers due to professional engagement and
exposure. In a nutshell, both the groups employed five lexical items in their utterances but with different frequencies. Lexical differences in speech of the graduate working and non-working women in District Peshawar, Khyber PukhtunKhwa, were the result of context-based authority, not gender.

**Implication**

The present research opens avenue for future researchers in KP to investigate women’s language to understand their position in the political and religious context. It also invites the researchers to make a comparative study of men and women speech in different cultural contexts.

**References**


THE LEXICAL DIFFERENCES IN SPEECH


Influence of Religiosity on Consumers Buying Intentions for Islamic Banking Products in Pakistan

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Bahria University, Islamabad, Pakistan

This research aims to find out the impact of religiosity on the buying intentions of the customer for Islamic banking products with the special social influences in the context of Pakistan. The specific objectives of this study are to gauge the influence of religiosity in particular on the customer intention regarding Islamic banking products, in particular, Islamic auto finance and to evaluate the role of social influences in enhancing or impeding the impact of religion on buying intentions of customers for Islamic products in Pakistani banks. The study used the survey technique where self-administered questionnaires were used to collect the primary data from the users of Islamic auto finance. The quantitative data were analyzed using the regression analysis technique using IBM SPSS 23. The emergent findings reveal that there's a significant relationship between religiosity and buying intentions of the consumers for Islamic banking products where social influences strongly mediate the relationship between religiosity and buying intentions for Islamic banking products. It means that socio-cultural factors, peer group influence, and lifestyle affect the buying intentions of the consumers.

Keywords: religiosity, social influence, buying intention, Islamic banking products, Islamic Auto finance

It has been observed that since the inception of Islamic banking a new breed of products has emerged within the banking sector. The products were the same as offered in the conventional banking sector but were the customers are influenced by the term 'Islamic' banking. The growth of Islamic banking is largely associated with compliance with shariah rules and promotion of the products. This view is imposed on the customers without taking their perspective on the adoption of Islamic banking products. The customer perspective on the adoption of Islamic banking products remains unexplained (Kontot, Hamali, & Abdullah, 2016). Several studies are explaining the role of religion in promoting the use of banking products without considering customers' perspectives on their religious inclination (Butt et al., 2018; Usman, et al., 2017; Zaman, et al., 2017). Furthermore, the religion Islam is prevalent in the majority of Muslim countries but the enabler factors such as society, culture, and peer group differences in different contexts make the acceptability of the Islamic banking product a question. Therefore, the current research study endeavors to study if customers' buying intentions for Islamic banking products are shaped by religiosity and if the relationship is mediated by the social influences in the context of the Islamic Republic of Pakistan.

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There is myriad of research studies conducted on the banking sector addressing purchase behavior of the customers (Siddiqi, 2011; Awan, Bukhari, & Iqbal, 2011), however, none of the research has attempted to understand if the reason behind the adoption of Islamic banking is religiosity and if the religious aspects for such adoption are influenced by social factors of Pakistan. According to Latif (2021) State Bank of Pakistan reported a 30% growth in Islamic Banking assets that is the highest reported figure since 2012. The growing popularity of Islamic Banking products is generally attributed to the religious inclination of the Pakistani population (Salman & Nawaz, 2018). However, Ahmed et al., (2021) state that no study has been carried out on the topic in Pakistan. Therefore, this study contributes to the existing literature on buying intentions of customers in the Islamic banking sector by identifying the role of religiosity shaped by social influences in Pakistan.

**Islamic Banking vs. Conventional Banking System**

The majority of Muslim countries around the globe have an Islamic banking system prevalent along with a conventional banking system for practicing Muslims. The core difference between conventional and Islamic banks is the interest-free loan system of the Islamic banking system which is preferred by highly religious customers who practice Islam in their regular lives (Salman & Nawaz, 2018). The entire Islamic banking policies are designed according to Islamic law (Shariah). All the products offered by the Islamic banking system are based on government Islamic committee policies. For the Islamic banking system state bank gives rules to follow like for the construction of an Islamic banking system the value of minimum capital is greater as compared to a traditional conventional bank (Imam & Kpodar 2020). Islamic banks follow an asset-based baking system that’s why it gives higher taxes and registration costs. From the year 1971, the number of Islamic banks rapidly increase that is 15% per year with $65billion assets.

Islamic banking system never takes interest (sud) in loans and inhibits transaction of profit in the influence of shariah law (Hassan & Aliyu 2018). The conventional bank never inquires the nature of the business that customers start using the loan money as compared to Islamic banks that never give loans for businesses categorized as haram (unethical for Islamic society) in Islamic law. Without the implementation of the conventional system of banking run Islamic banking is quite difficult (Khan et al, 2019). Islamic banks extend financing with the policy that some percent of their business profit shall be shared with the bank without any interest. Several products are purchased by bank loan but the most common purchasing product buy with the help of bank is automobiles like cars, heavy bikes, etc. Based on monthly installment bank purchased a vehicle for the customer. After getting enough amount of loan so ownership of the product is transferred to the client (Phuong et al., 2020).

**The Role of Religiosity in Determining the Customers’ Purchase Behaviour**

Culture and religion are two main factors of the country for making sustainable development of the society. Religiosity is strongly believed and follows particular religious practices. Stable countries strongly follow religious practices as compared to unstable countries (Agarwala et al., 2019; Mitra & Basit, 2021). Strongly religious peoples preferred Islamic banks for their account opening but, in this place, religiosity...
scale measure also influences the selection of the bank. A qualitative study was done on a

group of 125 members to measure the religiosity scale based on 375 questions

(questionnaire). Based on outcomes analysis, the bank selection criteria according to

religiosity scale. Observed the same level of customer in religiosity scale which has bank

account on both banking system (Soma et al, 2017).

Religiosity influences its impact on people's life, mental, intentions, and
decision-making strategies. Different religion of different culture has their practices
which give a sign that impact people’s lives. Buying and selling product businesses are
frequently done in the global market. In Pakistan, the religiosity factor influences in
product business of the bank system (Muslichah & Sanusi 2020). Islamic banks have a
higher number of customers as compared to the conventional bank system. It seems that
the religiosity scale is an important part of customer selection of banking system for
buying the banking products. Strong religious clients choose the Islamic bank to take a
loan for the vehicle but some religious customers select conventional banks normally
without any concern (Bananuka et al., 2019). It is inconclusive as to what factors
motivate customers to choose Islamic banking products.

Customer Buying Intentions for Islamic Banking Products

Customer purchase intention means the desire and curiosity of customers to buy

a product via a bank loan system. The decision-making and buying intention of the
customer is a major factor to purchase a product (Hoque et al., 2019). Therefore, the
banking system should make policies according to customer preferences to enhance its
marketing services. Ashfaq et al., (2020) were surveyed to analyze the influence of
religiosity-based marketing for customer intention towards buying Islamic banking
products via reliability, interest in a product, and customer-bank loyal relationship by
selecting 440 customers from the Gujranwala region of Pakistan. Loyal relation measure
by partial least square structural equation model (PLS-SEM) approach was adopted and
observed a highly positive loyal relationship between customer and bank system on
religiosity-based marketing and curiosity of purchasing product. Marketing service based
on religiosity analyzes the first time to estimate the intention of customers buys products
from the Islamic banking system in Pakistan. Outcomes are beneficial for other Muslim
countries’ religiosity-based marketing services (Ashfaq et al., 2020). The above
discussion leads to the postulation of the following hypothesis:

H1: Religiosity positively affects customer behavioral intention to adopt Islamic banking

services

Religion adds ease and responsibility to day-to-day actions, it brings character
and empathy to credit the socialism in modern-day and age; one's social standing and
social activities are a symbol of his religious brought up. Social factors are deciding the
attitude of individuals; as such that his/her decisions are based upon the said assumptions
(Ashfaq et al., 2020; Zaman, et al., 2017). This discussion leads to the development of the
following hypothesis:

H2: Social influence affects the relationship of religiosity and behavioral intentions to

adopt Islamic banking services.

H2a: Religiosity positively affects the social influence
Socially Influenced Preferences lead to Customers’ Buying Intentions

Social influences are one of the major factors that can affect the buying intention of customers significantly (Guping, et al., 2021). Buying intentions are succeeded by what others around a person motivate or influence him to adopt or shall we say adapt hence purchase. The social circle an individual is encircled in does influence his emotions. It asserts that the customers can be significantly influenced by the social influence by referring to their social circle while purchasing any product or service (Junaidi, Wicaksono, & Hamka, 2021). The above discussion leads to the development of the following hypothesis

\[ H2b: \text{Social influence positively affects the behavioral intentions} \]

Religiosity – Customer Behavior Model

It has been established in the previous sections that consumer behavior is the outcome of different external and intrinsic factors. One of the most important factors determining the acceptability of Islamic banking products among consumers is religiosity. Religious affiliation and following the religious principles determine the decisions of the consumers including "size of the family, attainment of educational level, wealth accumulation and the type of decisions one takes in life" (Nawaz et al., 2020). Hirschman (1983) suggests that religion acts as the cognitive system affecting the beliefs, values, expectations, and behaviors (Bobokhonov & Brito, 2015).

There is little empirical evidence that buying process is the outcome of consumers’ religious belief however Delener (1990) argues that intentions are shaped by the religious faith of consumers. Soesilowati (2010) proved that religiosity determines the intention of consumers towards Islamic banking products. Hence, current research adopts religiosity – consumer model suggested by Nawaz et al., (2020) to study the impact of religiosity on the buying intentions of the consumers where the relationship is nurtured by the social influences of Pakistan.

\[ Figure 1: \text{Conceptual Framework} \]

The model presented in Figure 1 shows that though religiosity influences the buying intentions of the consumers towards Islamic auto finance, however, such influence is not independent of the social influences of Pakistan. The Islamic (religious) faith is implemented in the socio-cultural context of Pakistan more distinctly, therefore, the influence of the religion Islam cannot be determined without considering the social influences.
RELIGIOSITY ON CONSUMERS BUYING

Context of the Study: Auto finance - A Best Selling Banking Product
Auto financing is known as car finance which is offered by the bank to the customer for purchase a car with the commitment of schedule-wise cash payment with fixed interest. A fixed interest rate is decided by the bank for car loans. The banking system earns money through its product service charging interest and its extra charge for services also for approving the loan (Khanna & Martins, 2018). Product ownership remains kept by the bank until the customer pays the surplus amount of the loan with interest. There are several types of auto finance depending upon the size shapes of products:

- **Safe car loan**: Bank kept the car as security if a customer failed to pay a loan so the bank resells the car to fix its lost amount.
- **Unsafe car loan**: If the bank did not keep any backup security for recovery it depends on the customer it is a risky and uncommon type of car loan.
- **Simple interest loan**: It is a type of loan in which customers pay back the loan as soon as possible to save money.
- **Arranged loan interest**: In this type of loan total interest value is divided according to the time given by bank policy. Customer pays interest by month-wise schedule. At the time of product purchasing the amount, you pay the bank as a down payment so the same amount of down payment you should give every month to the bank.
- **Online direct finance**: Before buying a product or visiting showrooms customers already prepare for their loan amounts dealing.
- **Indirect loans**: Automobiles companies are involved in a bank loan system as a middle man. Bank gives the amount to the middle man and customers buy a car on loan from the direct car company (Song, 2021).

**Auto Finance in Islamic Banking System**
In several Islamic countries, a study was done to analyze customer product intention in terms of Islamic banking services. And different factors also discussed which influence the relationship between the customer and the Islamic bank system. Factors include bank status, religiosiity, social and cultural interactions. Measurement of risk, complexity, and compatibility. Analysis of these all factors makes a model which helps the banking system to enhance its customer intention. To give awareness about customer intention Islamic bank system search out all factors and adopted them. Many studies confirmed a strong relationship between the Islamic banking system and religious customer intention (Mahdzan et al., 2017).

The outcomes of several papers confirmed that the quality of bank services and its financial status both are given a positive significant impact on client intention to accept the Islamic banking system (Suhartanto, 2019). Most customers check the status of the bank in the market which is the dominant name about its good services then choose to buy products and other purposes. The Bank system provides its different new services which are beneficial to customers and make it dominant from other bank status but due to complexity of that new service customer can’t understand this. Customer easy understanding of the new services and is utilization is also impacted on bank customer
intentions (Brun et al., 2017). So, the customer buys products easier from bank new services which are adopted by the Islamic bank system.

Another factor that influences customer intention is considered compatibility. Bank systems make and provide those new policies which are according to customer basic needs (Aziz & Afaq, 2018). From the qualitative study, it is concluded that the compatibility factor gives a good response to client intention in Islamic bank services. Previous studies defined the relationship between compatibility and customer intention towards the Islamic bank system and its role in society. Despite all these positive factors, there is one negative factor that gives a negative influence on customer intention towards the Islamic bank system is “risk”. Islamic bank system searches and minimize all the risks which lie in the product purchasing process for the customer (Hoque et al., 2019). Most Islamic bank does not give surety of profit considering this risk customer avoid choosing Islamic bank instead of conventional bank system.

Sometimes new services are more beneficial as compared to the idea, process. Different researches highlighted Islamic bank system provides benefits to the religious customer in terms of society by complying with the ethical standards (Jackson & Khaleel, 2021; Haridan, Hassan & Karbhari, 2018; Gilani, 2015). This major advantage makes the Islamic bank system more inattentive towards the customer (Muhammad et al., 2019). Social surrounding also impacts Islamic banking customers' intention to buy products. Jackson & Khaleel (2021) in a study on the impact of the brand effect of Islamic banks on customers’ perception reveal that social environment impact on customer selection of bank in strong religious environment customer always goes for an Islamic banking system that is a positive factor for it.

**Spatial Context: Auto finance in Context of Islamic Banking of Pakistan**

From a religious point of view in Pakistan purchasing a car by bank loan with interest consider “haram”. The Islamic banking system of Pakistan cannot take loan interest mean “Riba free” auto loans policies are provided which is totally “halal”. These riba-free loans give more attraction to religious customers to buy products via Islamic banks of the country. Pakistan Islamic bank system takes more advantage of customer intention to buy products by evaluating the following factors which influence this (Ahmad, Farooq, & Imran, 2021). There are the following Islamic banks and Islamic branches of conventional banks which provided riba-free auto loans. HBL Islamic car finance, Islamic auto finance by bank Islami limited, Faysal Islamic car finance, car Ijarah, riba free car loan by Meezan bank, Bank Alfalah Islamic auto loans, Allied Aitebar car Ijarah, and national bank of Pakistan all give interest-free auto finance loan in Pakistan.

Figure 1 shows the research choices made by the researchers for the current study data collection and analysis with research philosophy and approach supporting the choices. These are detailed in the following sections;
RELIGIOSITY ON CONSUMERS BUYING

Method

This research utilizes quantitative methodology, with primary data collection through online questionnaires. The population of this investigation is people who are taking banking services from different banks. The number of people taking banking services is around 21.3% of the total population according to ProPakistani (2021) statistics. The exact number of all the customers using Islamic auto finance could not be accessed because of banks’ data protection rules. Being an employee of a renowned bank, the researcher took permission from the branch manager for consulting the Islamic auto finance department to get the questionnaire filled from the respondents.

Therefore, any specific method of sample size calculation is not mentioned here, however, according to Sekaran (2016), 250 samples can be taken for an unknown population. The same is endorsed by Yamane (1967). Sample size determination is important in availing statistical significance of the research project increases (Fox, Hunn & Mathers, 2009). According to Cochran (1963), the sample size should be taken larger than required to compensate for nonresponse, therefore, the number of questionnaires emailed was planned as 257 as against 250 required for the desired level of confidence and precision. Therefore, 257 customers of the bank were consulted and data was collected from them. Non-probability, purposive sampling, also known as judgmental sampling, was used. In this sampling technique, it is logically assumed to be the delegate of the population (Levine, et al., 2018). The respondents who were customers of the bank and had already availed of Islamic auto finance were selected as the respondents for this study. Due to the COVID-19 situations, considering the safety and health precautions and following the SOPs, online questionnaires were distributed among the respondents through emails. Online questionnaires were used because self-administration of the research instrument was not possible due to the lockdowns and social distancing owing to the pandemic. Using the online platform, a link was sent to all the targeted populations and they were asked to fill the questionnaire form individually. Respondents’ consent was taken before sending the questionnaire through email.

The measurement of results is done by adopting the scales from the investigation of Sudarsono et al., (2021). Following table details the variable items and their codes used in the questionnaire for data collection.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S No</th>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Reference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Religiosity</td>
<td>R1 I try to follow commands of Islam in everything in my life</td>
<td>Sudarsono et al., (2021)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>R2 I always try to avoid small and big sins as the teachings of my religion</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>R3 I believe that all the ideological dimensions are based on Islam</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>R4 I know the basis of knowledge needed in my religion</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>R5 I feel sadness and dissatisfaction when I do something contrary to my faith</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Basit, Maroof, Mian

2 Behavioral Intentions
BI 1 I have an intention of adopting the service from Islamic bank in the future
BI 2 I think I will often adopt the service from Islamic banks in the future
BI 3 I would highly recommend others to adopt the service from an Islamic bank

3 Social Influence
SI 1 People I consider important can influence me to use Islamic banking
SI 2 Most people that I consider important support me to use Islamic banking
SI 3 Most of my friends/colleagues who have become customers of Islamic banking agree that Islamic banking is better than the conventional one

The collected data were analyzed using IBM SPSS where the linear regression and correlation are used to assess the collected data. Linear regression helps to model the relationship between explanatory variables and scalar responses. Also, correlation is any statistical association, which helps to analyze the pair of variables that are linearly related (Levine et al., 2018).

Results of the Correlations between Items of Variables of Study
Correlation shows the relationship between the items and variables of the study. The value of correlation lies between +1 and -1, with +1 indicating the perfect positive

Table 2
Demographic details of Respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>228</td>
<td>88.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>11.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>257</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18 to 30 years</td>
<td>210</td>
<td>81.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31-40</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>12.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41-50</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>2.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51 and Above</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>2.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>257</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marital Status</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>26.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Single</td>
<td>160</td>
<td>62.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>prefer not to say</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>10.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>257</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employment</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Full time</td>
<td>157</td>
<td>61.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Part-Time</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>24.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unemployed</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>14.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>257</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to the demographic data, 88.7% of the respondents were males while only 11.3% were females. The majority of the respondents fall into the age group of 18-30 (81.7%) followed by 31-40 (12.8%) and remaining in higher age brackets. The values above indicate that number of unmarried respondents is high with 62.3%, followed by married (26.8%) and 10.9% of respondents did not disclose their marital status. The table above shows that 61.1% are full-time workers followed by 24.9 part-time workers with 14% of unemployed respondents.
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and direct relationship between variables and -1 showing the inverse relationship. Pearson correlation (r) for the items of the study was calculated using SPSS. The results of correlation can be observed below:

Table 3
Inter Item Correlation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>BI1</th>
<th>BI2</th>
<th>BI3</th>
<th>R1</th>
<th>R2</th>
<th>R3</th>
<th>R4</th>
<th>R5</th>
<th>SI1</th>
<th>SI2</th>
<th>SI3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>BI1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.901**</td>
<td>.869**</td>
<td>.689**</td>
<td>.533**</td>
<td>.582**</td>
<td>.410**</td>
<td>.427**</td>
<td>.690**</td>
<td>.778**</td>
<td>.646**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BI2</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.876**</td>
<td>.638**</td>
<td>.464**</td>
<td>.549**</td>
<td>.408**</td>
<td>.441**</td>
<td>.644**</td>
<td>.729**</td>
<td>.670**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BI3</td>
<td>.869**</td>
<td>.876**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.614**</td>
<td>.480**</td>
<td>.591**</td>
<td>.486**</td>
<td>.437**</td>
<td>.622**</td>
<td>.777**</td>
<td>.681**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.905**</td>
<td>.885**</td>
<td>.685**</td>
<td>.743**</td>
<td>.703**</td>
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<td>.605**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R2</td>
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<td>.953**</td>
<td>.778**</td>
<td>.753**</td>
<td>.793**</td>
<td>.695**</td>
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<td>R3</td>
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<td>.785**</td>
<td>.746**</td>
<td>.798**</td>
<td>.750**</td>
<td>.741**</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>.695**</td>
<td>.600**</td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

The results obtained from the correlation table above indicate that there is a positive relationship between items of the variables.

Regression Analysis

The influence of religiosity on buying intentions of customers with the mediating effect of social influences was gauged by running linear regression analysis through SPSS where Hayes process macro was used to test the mediation. The regression test ensures the influence of one variable over the other and also the predictive degree of the predictor variable for the outcome, that is; the influence of the independent variable over the dependent variable. The following sections detail the hypothesis wise statistical analysis:

139
Hypothesis 1 (H1): Religiosity Positively affects Customer Behavioral Intention to adopt Islamic Banking Services

Table 4
Testing Relationship between Religiosity and Consumer Behavior

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>OUTCOME VARIABLE: BI and R (IV and DV direct relationship = c)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Model Summary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.6115</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Model

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Co-eff</th>
<th>se</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
<th>LLCI</th>
<th>ULCI</th>
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</thead>
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<tr>
<td>constant</td>
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<td>.3090</td>
<td>3.1828</td>
<td>.0016</td>
<td>.3750</td>
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</table>

R = .7829, t = 12.3417, p = .000

The path (direct effect) from religiosity to behavioral intention is positive and significant (b = .789, t = 12.3417, p = 0.000) indicating that religiosity is the strong predictor of behavioral intentions of the customer of Islamic banking products (Islamic auto-finance).

Hypothesis 2 (H2): Social influence affects the relationship of religiosity and behavioral intentions to adopt Islamic banking services.

Hypothesis 2 test the effect of the mediator (social influence) on the direct relationship of religiosity and behavioral intentions by first considering the direct effect of religiosity on social influences followed by gauging the impact of social influences on behavioral intentions and in the last step total mediation is calculated by checking the impact of religiosity on behavioral intentions in the presence of a mediator. The step-wise process is detailed below:

H2a: Religiosity positively affects the social influence

Table 5
Testing Relationship between Religiosity and Social Influence

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>OUTCOME VARIABLE: SI (Mediator) and R (Independent Variable)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Model Summary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R</td>
</tr>
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Model

<table>
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<tr>
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<tr>
<td>constant</td>
<td>.3019</td>
<td>.2171</td>
<td>1.3904</td>
<td>.1656</td>
<td>-.1257</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

R = .9194, t = .0446

The path (direct effect) from religiosity to social influence is positive and significant as indicated by P = 0.000, b = 0.9194, t = .0446.

H2b: Significant relationship between Social Influence and Behavioral Intentions
Table 6
Testing Relationship between Social Influence and Behavioral Intentions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model Summary</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>R-sq</th>
<th>MSE</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>df1</th>
<th>df2</th>
<th>p</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.7682</td>
<td>.5901</td>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Co-eff</th>
<th>se</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
<th>LLCI</th>
<th>ULCI</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
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<td>Constant</td>
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<tr>
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<tr>
<td>SI</td>
<td>.8363</td>
<td>.0723</td>
<td>11.5744</td>
<td>.0000</td>
<td>.6940</td>
<td>.9786</td>
</tr>
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</table>

The path (direct effect) from social influence to behavioral intention is positive and significant (b=0.8386, t=11.5744, p=0.000).

Role of Social Influence as a Mediator

As per the table above (H2b) the path (c'= direct effect of religiosity on the behavioral intention with mediation) is positive and insignificant as evident from P<0.8681 (P<0.000) and b=0.0140, t=0.1662. Hence, the social influence has been statistically proven as the strong mediator because the c (direct effect of religiosity on behavioral intentions) is less than c’ (direct effect of religiosity on behavioral intentions in the presence of social influences) as the significance of c (p=0.000) reduced after running the mediation and the significance of c’ is reduced to p=0.8681.

Discussion and Conclusion

The data analysis has shown that there’s a significant positive relationship between religiosity and buying intentions of the consumers for Islamic banking products. It means that Islamic auto finance has gained popularity in Pakistan among consumers because of the religious faith of consumers who want to adopt products that are free from *sud* and are according to the *shariah*. Furthermore, the study hypothesized that religion cannot be implemented in its true sense, rather religious practices are shaped by social influences such as peer group practices, socio-cultural practices, and the prevalent lifestyle. Ideally, social practices should have roots in religion but in the case of Pakistan, the case is different. For centuries, Muslims and Hindus shared Sub-Continent and after the creation of Pakistan, an entirely new culture and social practices were witnessed here. Though Pakistan is the Islamic Republic, however, religious faith and socio-culture practices are intertwined. The statistical results proved that social influences are strong mediators hence proving the initially hypothesized relationship.

The data analysis has shown that there's a significant positive relationship between social influences and buying intentions of consumers regarding Islamic auto finance. It means that socio-cultural factors, peer group influence, and lifestyle affect the buying intentions of the consumers.

The combined effects of H2a and H2b show that social influences positively and significantly mediate the relationship between religiosity and consumers' buying intentions for Islamic auto finance.
This study aimed to find the impact of religiosity on the behavioral intentions of the customer for adopting Islamic auto finance by banks in Pakistan in the presence of strong social influences. The results confirmed that religiosity as shaped by the social influences strongly influences the customers’ buying intentions towards Islamic banking products. The socio-cultural practices of the society shape the religious faith of the consumers. Religious faith is the key factor shaping the norms for social practices that in turn form the consumers’ attitude towards the banking products in the country.

**Recommendations**

Based on the findings, it is recommended to the banks while structuring new products and marketing strategies they should take consider the religious orientation of the customers. Further, social influences facilitate the spread of key religious practices in the country, therefore, the lifestyle of customers, and the socio-cultural context of the customers impact the conviction to adopt Islamic banking products. The mere introduction of the new Islamic banking products is not enough, creating awareness and convincing the customers to buy the products is equally important. Due to this reason, it is recommended to Islamic banks find the best marketing channels and platforms to market their products.

**Limitations and Future Research Directions**

The limitations of the current study arise due to data access issues, time limitations, and sensitivity of the topic considered for a current research study. Methodologically the research is limited to the quantitative exploration of the role of religiosity, which is mainly a subjective phenomenon therefore, it is suggested that future investigations use the qualitative inquiry to gain an in-depth understanding. The study was cross-sectional, collecting data at one point in time. As the researcher had only one semester to carry out this research, therefore, a detailed investigation was not possible. It is suggested that longitudinal studies should be carried out for a comparative/trend analysis on why Islamic banking products are becoming more popular. Furthermore, the researcher had a data access problem that is why the data collection was limited to twin cities of Pakistan. Further exploration based on bank data from different cities of Pakistan is suggested.

**References**


Ashfaq, M., Zulfiqar, R., Anwar, M., Kausar, N., & Khalid, S. (2020). Customer Purchase Intentions towards Islamic Banking Products in Pakistan: A Study of


RELIIGIOSITY ON CONSUMERS BUYING


Basit, Maroof, Mian

http://eprints.lse.ac.uk/105929/1/businessreview2020_07_10covid_19_can_speed_up_the_use_of_technology.pdf


Politico-Economic Implications of CPEC on Pakistan

Sajid Hussain and Faisal Khan
University of Swabi

Muhammad Ayaz
Hazara University, Mansehra

Pakistan and China signed an agreement on November 8, 2014 regarding “China Pakistan Economic Corridor” with initial cost of about US $ 48 billion. The project was declared as a game changer for the entire region by the then premier of Pakistan, Nawaz Sharif whereas the Chinese Premier Wang Yi declared the same as the “flagship project” of OBOR initiative. The project would be completed in three phases, i.e. Short-term, medium-term, long-term with proposed dates of 2020, 2025 and 2030 respectively. CPEC is the real face of president Xi’s “constructive engagement” policy, will change the fate of the region. Pakistan, at the mouth of “OBOR” initiative would get maximum benefits under “CPEC” project. Economic development will cause political stability. The major objective of the study is to investigate the multifaceted worth of the project and its impact on Pakistan. Analytical and predictive methodology is adopted. This study concluded that the project would upgrade the life standard of the local Pakistani and will bring massive benefits to Pakistan in term of stability, security and development. CPEC will convert Pakistan’s location into an asset.

Keywords: CPEC, Pakistan, China, economic development, region

Present century experienced commencement of regional and international strategic environment throughout the world. Such environment strengthens partnership among states in the fields of geo-strategic and geo-economics. Significant parameters of this partnership are national interests and security. States, as realized they that they aren’t capable to defend their interests, reshaped their policies. The high level diplomatic meeting resulted multi-dimensional cooperation in various fields (Noor, Shah, Khan & Ali, 2008).

China, once known as sleeping giant, is imaged as an active player of the world. The largest country of the world became the charming diplomat. The changing patterns in Chinese foreign strategies are because of its growing energy demands (Belokrenitsky, 2007). Chinese President Hu Jintao declared his “good neighbor policy” as part of the peaceful development strategy. Under the policy China converted the nearest region into a hub of regional trade.

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Regional connectivity is the core component of Pakistan’s foreign policy. She wants to have good relations with neighboring countries. As its strategic partner to have good relations with China is the main objective of Pakistan’s foreign policy. Both have deep-rooted relations and helped each other in rainy days.

Both of the states initiate intense effort to recuperate the ancient “Silk Road”, the oldest trade route, connecting the Chinese Xinjiang region to Gwadar, Pakistan. CPEC will transform Pakistan into a significant state of the region. China would get an opportunity to have another naval base at Gwadar to counter US influence in the region. CBS news is of the view that Sino-Pak growing economic relation is to counter the American influence in Asia-Pacific region (Iqbal, 2015). The Prime Minister Li exposed the idea during his visit to Pakistan in May 2013. In his speech in May 23, 2014, he said in the parliament “closer relationship between the two states is indispensable to face the challenges and uncertainties in Asia”. He further said that both sides should enhance cooperation in strategic and economic fields to materialize Economic corridor. The corridor would help to strengthen the connectivity among regional countries of South and East Asia and will improve the livelihood and economic development.

The Chinese leadership tabled open invitation of participation in the Silk Road strategy. At a seminar in China on October 24, 2013, president Xi highlighted the need of Silk Road economic belt. He invited Arab states to give hand in hand to support Silk Road spirit, promote cooperation, Arab revival, realization of Chinese dream and to materialize the great cause of human development. After the first discussion with Pakistan the idea of “OBOR” was floated on various forms. Chinese stakeholders discussed with Arab countries, SCO, Kazakhstan and ASEAN the idea to be a founding member of AIIB Asia Infrastructure Investment Bank.

President Xi announced on Nov 2014 that China is intended to expedite the construction of Road and Belt and would boost cooperation among concerned states. He announced in his presidential address at a meeting in Beijing, a Silk Road fund of $ 40 billion. The Chinese president further elaborated that the fund will be used for infrastructure, industrial and economic development. The membership of AIIB expanded to 56 when 50 states signed the article of association in Beijing on June 29, 2015. On this occasion president Xi invited Saudi Arabia, Iran and Egypt to join OBOR. The idea would engulf many more countries, i.e. Malaysia, Japan, America, Philippines and Canada on win-win situation (Ahmed, 2009).

One Belt One Road
China initiated economic diplomacy in the region. The new Silk Road is a combination of road, railway, sea routes and fiber optics connecting different parts of the world. China has no influence policy in the region. Various steps to regional integration like free trade, low tariff, customs union, eradication of border barriers and relaxation of rules and regulation are initiated. The Chinese government is intended to relax its visa policy and secure the stay of the citizen of regional states.
OBOR has a vibrant history; the Chinese leaders have coined the idea and materialized in a short period of time from 2013 to 2016. The Silk Road is a historical Eurasian phenomenon connecting different parts of the world to China i.e. Europe, Asia and Africa. President Xi termed the idea of new Silk Road under the umbrella of OBOR, an initiative of balance development in the Asian region.

**China Pakistan Economic Corridor:**

The world realized the fact that regional integration is inevitable to satisfy the growing demands of the globalized world in an economic way. The idea of new silk road was coined by China in 2013 under its OBOR initiative, to have an economic belt besides the silk and maritime silk road (Ayesha, 2015). Pakistan is bridging China to Middle East, South and Central Asia. Deepest Sea port of Pakistan provides China with a direct access to open Seas. Both of them are working to promote their national interests. CPEC is a new outlet of cooperation from Pakistan and China and will serve in contradiction of complex and changing situation of the region and beyond (Khan, 2015).

Sino-Pak cooperation and strong bilateral ties are the outcome of years, in 1963 both signed long term trade agreement and now Pakistan is the major trading partner of China (Economic Survey of Pakistan, 2014). Both of the countries signed FTA on 24th Nov 2006 while on Feb 21, 2009 FTA on trade in services was signed.

China Pakistan Economic Corridor would attain economic and political objectives through trade and cooperation. The project will bring stability to the region as well. The corridor after its completion would be a gateway of trade among China, Middle East and Africa. This corridor will cut the Chinese oil transportation route distance of 12000 km from the Middle East with reasonable kms.

CPEC is the realization of China’s “new silk road” strategy which would connect China to Pakistan and beyond. The project will strengthen the already existing ties between the two countries. Both of the states realized that mutual cooperation will beneficial for both therefore they extended their cooperation under CPEC project. A breakthrough in relations was the handing over of operational rights to the Chinese state-owned company of Gwadar port in Feb, 2013 (Hussain, 2018). The Chinese stakeholder decided to develop infrastructure and to connect the port to western China, Xinjiang.

An MoU was signed between China and Pakistan during the visit of Chinese premier Li Keqiang in May 2013 to build a corridor to bridge Gwadar and Kashghar through rail and road. The same proposal was tabled to Mr. Sharif during his visit to Beijing in July 213, 8 MoUs were signed regarding economic and connectivity projects (Husain, 2018). Special attention was given to CPEC in the joint declaration (Ali, 2016). On 26th of August a secretariat was inaugurated in Islamabad to materialize the MoUs. A joint coordination committee was initiated to monitor the progress on CPEC and other related projects.
In 2013-14 Sino-Pak expanded their cooperation in various fields. China, Pakistan relation experienced new mood during the visit of president Xi to Islamabad in 20-21 April 2015. Both sides agreed to give serious attention to security, global issues and energy sectors. CPEC is a set of projects which connect China with Pakistan, Arabian Sea and Middle East. The project is of equal benefits for both China and Pakistan as it’s not only the package of roads and rail but is development of industries and energy projects. Fifty-one MoUs were signed during Xi’s visit to Islamabad; about twenty-three of these were related to CPEC and associated projects (Ali, 2015). The stress of both sides stakeholders shows that CPEC isn’t only the name of roads, but comprehensive improvement in various fields, i.e. public service projects, gas pipelines, industrial units, energy production, and Gwadar port development. The estimated cost of the project is about $ 46 billion. Some of the amount is grants from Chinese government while the remaining is FDI from public and private sector companies. The investor would be free to take their profits with them according to Pakistan’s regulations. These projects will take up to 15 years for completion (Hussain & Ayaz, 2017).

Engineers, technicians and workers from china would come to Pakistan to help the local workers from Pakistan Army and FWO to complete the project. CPEC has three routes when inter into Pakistan (Bengali, 2015).

1. **Western route:** the CPEC will enter Balochistan via Dera Ismail Khan to Zhob, Qila Saifullah, Quetta, Kalat, Punjgur, Turbet and Gwadar

2. **Central route:** Dera Ismail Khan to Dera Ghazi Khan and onwards to Dera Murad Jamali, Khuzdar, Punjgur, Turbet to Gwadar

3. **Eastern route:** Lahore, Multan and Sukkur, from there it takes the traditional highway to enter Balochistan, passing through Khuzdar, Punjgur, Turbat and Gwadar

The two provinces have some grievances regarding the routes of CPEC in Pakistan. KP and Balochistan are of the view that the original route of the project is changed by the central government. The government remained silent on the issue and at the end she insisted that there is no change in the original plan. This stance of the government remained temporarily and after some time it propagated that there will be two routes eastern and western, the western route is priority. But contrary to it claim the government allocated more funds to eastern route. Following is the analysis of these routes on the basis on production, land and population factors. Central route is also included in the table.
IMPLICATIONS OF CPEC

Table 1  
Routes of CPEC

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Central route</th>
<th>Eastern route</th>
<th>Western route</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Population density</td>
<td>156</td>
<td>264</td>
<td>98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total cultivable area  (000 ha)</td>
<td>5829</td>
<td>10322</td>
<td>2933</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Four major crops‘ production (000 tons)</td>
<td>13754</td>
<td>30928</td>
<td>7430</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Dr. Qasir Bengali, Paper for Chief Minister of Baluchistan

According to this analysis the Eastern route is expensive due to population displacement, production loss and loss of fertile and productive land (https://www.dawn.com/news/1235803). The Central route which was presented by deputy chairman of planning commission in 2006 to the then president Musharif. Dr. Bengali stressed the central route due to its cost effectiveness. Further, he supported the western route in present scenario or at least the equal share for western route.

Pakistan called a meeting of all political parties who give their consent to the first route which is the shortest among the three, on 28th May 2015 (Iqbal, 2015). Though the route is passing through backward areas, but the infrastructure development would contribute to the socioeconomic development of the region. The eastern route already existing which needs up gradation.

The risk factor of the project is that trica of India, America and Japan are trying to country the project as potential threat to their influences in the region. Further they consider the project as china’s move to be a world power. India the conventional opponent of Pakistan and timed ally of Russia, shifting its pivot of relations to USA while Pakistan trying to replace US is another bon of containment that may be a rising threat to CPEC project (Hussain & Ayaz, 2017).

Economic potentials of CPEC

The China Pakistan Economic Corridor is of immense value for both counties. Connectivity between the two states would open new avenues of development for both. The estimated completion date to bridge Kashgar to Gwadar is 2030. China is anxious to provide the required support of the project. CPEC is beneficial for Pakistan and for the entire region too. The project is an instrument of economic growth in Pakistan. The project is supposed as a corridor of peace and development. The project may have some negative as well, which Pakistan might face if the policy makers failed to take it seriously. CPEC is of transformative impact on both state and people of Pakistan.

The huge amount of investment in CPEC project get the world’s attention and the project was considered as a real agent of prosperity for Pakistan, region and even to the world in the long run. The premier of Pakistan got full support in the APC for Chinese investment (Shah, 2015). The project will uplift the economy of Pakistan and would improve about 3 billion lives of the region as well. The project is giant reason for Pakistan’s development and even will generate three-to-four-time profit of the amount
invested. CPEC will generate business opportunities which will ultimately eradicate poverty.

Pakistan will get the opportunity to balance geo-economic and geopolitical situation and would improve energy requirements and infrastructure. The project is known as a game changer for the region while as fate changer for Pakistan (Hussain & Ayaz, 2017). Regional connectivity and economic cooperation would enhance integration (Cheema, 2015). Common men would be affected positively by providing many opportunities of development and cooperation. The project would enhance trade and investment in Pakistan, search of mineral and strategic position (Umar, 2016). The project is of the same importance for China as well on one hand it would develop its Xinjiang region and with this socio-economic development, she will call back the Uyghurs to national life and on the other hand it will compete US in the region.

Economic corridors are designed in such a manner that it instigates economic development. To overcome its energy crisis Pakistan has required to launch trade and industry enhancement programs to get additional business from CPEC. It is fact that a major share of the project is allocated to the energy sector, which show that this corridor is an economic corridor. Build own operates model is applied to most of the projects in the energy sector, which means that most of the Chinese investors are independent power provider with protection guarantees. Chinese investors are promised of 18% return on their investment.

The implications of CPEC on industry and trade sector aren’t clear yet. Stakeholders of Pakistan projected 29 industrial parks, twenty one mineral zones twenty seven out of which would be labeled the status of special economic zone (Ali, 2015). Nine kms Gwadar special economic zone is the most innovative of these projects to be fully operational by 2017. Agriculture, mining, food processing, minerals, energy and livestock industries will be accommodated in the same (http://www.dawn.com/news/1235803). It is assumed that these steps would entice investment, know how and technology from China, that will cause the greatest Pakistani export. Joint marine research center and joint cotton biotech laboratory are the projects which can contribute to achieve the objective. The layman perception in Pakistan is that China isn’t interested in investment in Pakistan and not in a joint venture of private foreign ownership (Umar, 2016). Certainly, PCICC committee is yet to be establish and lack of solid financial promises for most of the promised mineral zones and industrial parks are not up to the mark.

Further it is assumed that the project would benefit Punjab only and the rest of provinces specially KP and Baluchistan will remain in shadow. Some of the economist are of the view that the financial burden on Pakistan would further shattered the already paralyzed economy of the country and such a huge burden of 110 USD and may drag Pakistan to certain bailout packages (Hussain & Ayaz, 2017).

Sino-Pak trade relations in historical perspective: Pak-China relations can trace back to 1950 which get stronger with each passing minute. The friendship is exemplified
IMPLICATIONS OF CPEC

with the famous statement of “greater than Himalaya and sweeter than honey”. Both of states give un-conditional support to each other on an international platform. The first agreement of trade was signed in January of 1963 and give MFN status to each other. In order to expedite trade and economic cooperation, a joint commission of China and Pakistan on economy, trade and technology was initiated in 1982.

On 12th of May 2001 both countries signed six agreements and one MoU to strengthen further the already close friendly relations, the agreement was estimated a billion dollars worth at that time. Seven agreements were signed between the two states to enhance cooperation in the fields of energy, trade and communication and to develop a structure for onward cooperation. Chinese government donated fifty million yuan to expedite cooperation in economic and technical fields, resulted completion of Gwadar port’s first phase in 2005.

As a sign of good well Pakistan give the status of FME to China and in reverse she granted $ 150 million to Pakistan for Chashma project phase II. The amount is part of $ 500 million, China has to provide to invest in Pakistan by Chinese enterprises. The visit of Chinese premier on April 2005 resulted signature of 21 agreements and MoUs in diverse fields. A treaty of “friendship, cooperation and good neighborly relations” was concluded as well (Ali & Gang, 2016).

Chinese government reduced the tariffs to zero under the early harvest program on 1st January 2006 on 767 items. It was a first step to have a free trade zone between the two. During his visit to Islamabad the Chinese president signed 18 agreement one of which was a free trade treaty agreement in November 2006. The FTA between the two has been fully operational after 2008. The trade volume between the two is expanding as it was 1 billion in 1998, grew to $ 15.15 in 2015 (Vandewalle, 2015).

**Economic opportunities for Pakistan**

CPEC would be a big relief for Pakistan as she is facing many challenges in the fields of economics and politics. She will be able to stabilize its devastating economy to make Gwadar port as the hub of regional economic and trade activities. This corridor will be the solution to the economic problems of Pakistan and would be giant opportunity to improve the life standard of the people. Special economic zones are proposed at all parts of Pakistan, which would attract investment from latent global investors and will bring speeded the economic growth in Pakistan.

CPEC is composed of various projects, i.e. railways, fiber optic, roads, gas and oil pipelines and Gwadar and associated projects. It would grace Pakistan with significant strategic infrastructure. China is proving billions of dollars to Pakistan with as soft loans with extended period of time to return. This makes Pakistan free from any other financial institute. Planning ministry disclosed that out $46 billion, $ 11 billion is the share of infrastructure (Aquil & shoib, 2017).
Hussain, Khan, Ayaz

CPEC allocated about $ 46 billion for various projects, to be completed during 2015-20. These projects are categorized in early harvest 2015, medium term 2020 and long term 2030. The energy sector projects are categorized into two i.e. energy priority and actively promoted projects. Following are priority projects

Table 2.
CPEC-Energy Priority Projects

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Projects</th>
<th>MW</th>
<th>Estimated cost US$ M</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Port Qasim Electric Company Coal Fired, 2X660, Sindh</td>
<td>1320</td>
<td>1980</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sahiwal 2x660MW Coal-fired Power Plant, Punjab</td>
<td>1320</td>
<td>1,600</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Engro thar 4x330MW Coal-fired, Thar, Sindh</td>
<td>1320</td>
<td>2,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Surface mine in Block II of Thar Coal field, 6.5 mtpa, Thar Sindh</td>
<td>1470</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gwadar Coal Power Project, Gwadar</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>360</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HUBCO coal power plant 1X660 MW, Hub Baluchistan</td>
<td>660</td>
<td>970</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rahimyara Khan Coal Power Project, Punjab</td>
<td>1320</td>
<td>1,600</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SSRL Thar Coal Block 1-6.5 mtpa Thar, Sindh</td>
<td>1,300</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SSRL 2x660 MW Mine Mouth Power Plant,</td>
<td>1,200</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quaid-e-Azam 1000MW Solar Park, Bahawalpur, Punjab</td>
<td>1000</td>
<td>1,350</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dawood 50MW wind Farm, Bhambore, Sindh</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>125</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UEP 100MW wind Farm, Jhimpir, Sindh</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>250</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sachal 50MW Wind Farm, Jhimpir, Sindh</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>134</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sunnec 50MW wind Farm, Jhimpir, Sindh</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>125</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Suki Kinari Hydropower Station, KPK</td>
<td>870</td>
<td>1,802</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Karot Hydropower Station, AJK &amp; Punjab</td>
<td>720</td>
<td>1,420</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Matiari to Lahore Transmission line</td>
<td>1,500</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Matiari to Faisalabad Transmission line</td>
<td>1,500</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total (Priority)</td>
<td>10400</td>
<td>21,486</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Planning Commission of Pakistan

After the CPEC agreement investment from China increased reasonably in the energy sector. The total allocated amount for these projects is $ 34 billion, of which $ 21486 million is for priority projects while $ 12927 million is for energy actively promoted projects. these projects after completion would reduce the energy shortfall (Ali, 2015). Pakistan will be able to overcome its energy crisis after completion of these projects.
**IMPLICATIONS OF CPEC**

**Table 3**

*CPEC-Energy Actively Promoted Projects*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Projects</th>
<th>MW</th>
<th>Estimated Cost US$ M</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gadani power park project</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(1) 2x660MW</td>
<td>1320</td>
<td>3,960</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(2) Jetty + Infrastructure</td>
<td>1,200</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HUBCO coal power plant 1X660 MW, Hub Baluchistan</td>
<td>660</td>
<td>970</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Salt Range Mine Mouth Power Project including mining, Punjab</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>800</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kohala Hydel Project, AJK</td>
<td>1100</td>
<td>2,397</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pakistan Wind Farm II 2X50 MW(Jhampir, Thatta, Sindh)</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>150</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thar mine mouth oracle, Thar Sindh</td>
<td>1320</td>
<td>1,300</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Muzaffargarh Coal Power Project, Punjab</td>
<td>1320</td>
<td>1,600</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gas Power Plant 525 MW</td>
<td>525</td>
<td>550</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total (Actively Promoted)</td>
<td>6645</td>
<td>12,927</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL Energy Projects</td>
<td>17045</td>
<td>34,413</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source:* Planning Commission of Pakistan

Those projects are known as energy actively promoted projects which the government of provinces recommends. The feasibility of these projects is ready for bid. The government disclosed that most of these projects would start production till 2018 and would deposit 17,000 MW electricity to the national grid. The total share of energy priority projects is 10,400 MW, whereas 6,645 MW would be given by energy promoted projects.

Lion share of the project is directed to energy sector (USD 33.79 billion), to produce 17,045 MW energy, most of the energy projects are coal based, needs imported coal while some of the local coal may also be used, the share of local coal in energy production is about 1980 MW (NEPRA, 2016). Such huge share of coal in energy sector will have diverse impacts on environmental situation of Pakistan. The dangerous gases produced by these energy projects will cause serious issues to damages to Pakistan’s environment.

**Table 4**

*CPEC-Gwadar Port Related Projects*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Projects</th>
<th>Estimated Cost US$ M</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Eastbay Expressway</td>
<td>140.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Gawadar International Airport</td>
<td>230.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Construction of Breakwaters</td>
<td>123.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Dredging of berthing areas &amp; channels</td>
<td>27.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 Infrastructure for Free Zone &amp; EPZs port related industries</td>
<td>32.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 Necessary Facilities of Fresh Water Treatment and Supply</td>
<td>130.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 Hospital at Gawadar</td>
<td>100.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 Technical and Vocational Institute at Gawadar</td>
<td>10.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Gwadar Port Projects</td>
<td>793.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source:* Planning Commission of Pakistan
CPEC project would upgrade the existing infrastructure and the new one will be constructed. Officials are optimistic about early completion. About all road projects are under construction. Some of the under construction projects are, Raikot-Islamabad, Sukkur-Multan and Peshawar-Karachi. Due to poor connectivity, communication is difficult in Pakistan, which increases transportation cost and enhance delivery time of goods. Pakistan’s infrastructure is expected to be better off after CPEC.

A network of roads in constructing throughout the country which would connect all the provinces, Pakistan to China and even the region. Faster communication is guaranteed after the completion of this highway network. Infrastructure is known as the key element in the investment environment. Development of infrastructure in Pakistan would make it favorable for FDI form the globe. On the other side these infrastructure development is a serious threat to local population as many of them are dislocated and causing deforestation.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 5</th>
<th>CPEC-Transport Infrastructure Sector Projects</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Projects</td>
<td>Length (KM)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Roads</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 KKH Phase II (Raikot — Islamabad Section)</td>
<td>440</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Peshawar-Karachi Motorway (Multan-Sukkur Section)</td>
<td>392</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rail Sector Projects</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 Expansion and reconstruction of existing Line ML-1</td>
<td>1736</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Havelian Dry port (450 M. Twenty-Foot Equivalent Units)</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>9,790</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source:** Planning Commission of Pakistan

Gwadar is a coastal town of Balochistan, located at the mouth of the oil rich Gulf region. When fully operational, Gwadar port would upgrade the geo-economic significance of Pakistan on the globe. Chinese government got the operating rights of the port in 2013. Under an agreement in 2016 Pakistan handed over Gwadar to China for 40 years. Gwadar is of immense importance for China as 60% of her oil is from the Persian Gulf, covering a distance of 1600 km, took about 2 months and a lot of risks as well. Gwadar port would reduce all these. $ 793 million is allocated for development of Gwadar in CPEC project. About 500 Chinese is working 24 hours to complete the ongoing projects in Gwadar.
IMPLICATIONS OF CPEC

Table 6

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Project</th>
<th>Length KM</th>
<th>Estimated Cost US$ M</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cross border optical fiber cable</td>
<td>820</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total cost of CPEC projects</td>
<td>45,040</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Planning Commission of Pakistan

The 820 km long fiber optic cable will bridge Khujrab China to Rawalpindi Pakistan.

According to BMA capital the investment of CPEC project can be categorized into two parts i. Local investment ii. Chinese investment.

Table 7

Estimation of Local Component in CPEC

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of project</th>
<th>Investment (US$ bn)</th>
<th>Domestic Share (US$ bn)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Energy (Breakup is given below)</td>
<td>33.8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coal 7560 MW</td>
<td>8.8</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wind 200 MW</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hydel 1590 MW</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Solar 1000 MW</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second Phase 6445 MW</td>
<td>9.5</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mining Expenditure</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Road</td>
<td>5.9</td>
<td>80%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rail</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>50%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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Second category analysis is the implication of the investment in national GDP. The project would increase national GDP by 1.5% in next three years. The project will encourage private investment because of developed infrastructure, energy, positive environment, and economic opportunities. Private investment will contribute 0.5% to national GDP, while the cumulative impact of the investment will 2% during 2016-18. The expected growth rate is 6% per year during this period (Daily Pakistan, 2016).

CPEC is important for Pakistan, but it is more significance for China as well. Regional connectivity is vital for China as she wants to be a global power. President Xi, express his policy during his address to the foreign affairs committee at communist party in 2014, he declared neighbors as top priority in its diplomacy (Communist Party meeting 2014). Further China will have friendly relations with resources rich countries (Goedment, 2014). The visits of president Xi to KSA, ran and Egypt is an effort to extend its friend periphery. She invested enormously in these countries. In KSA both countries agreed on “comprehensive strategic partnership” framework. But the most important statement of Xi is in Egypt, where he said “We are not setting up proxies or building a sphere of influence in the region” (ABC News, 2016) it shows the policy of constructive engagement of China.

In the light of above mention engagement of China in the region, the significance of CPEC became easy to understand. As the project is located at the conjunction of road and maritime belt, (Shah, 2015) will help China to establish its position in the Indian Ocean. It’s critical for Chinese future development as it will secure its energy routes (Bhattacharjee, 2015). Facts are evident that CPEC is of critical significance for both the states as Pakistan is eager to overcome its poverty and energy lacking, evils while China wants to boost its influence in the periphery, securing its supply routes and posture its international presence.

**Politico-Strategic Potentials:**

The ex-president of Pakistan General Parveez Musharraf termed the region as a channel. The vast region of China and Central Asia was termed as top of this channel. This channel then becomes narrowed at Afghanistan and Pakistan. The end point of this channel is Gwadar, where it ends. He termed it as an economic channel for the entire region (Hussain & Ayaz, 2017).

As Pakistan is required with a strategic depth, Gwadar will considerably increase its strategic depth. As for as the strategic importance is concerned the port is 460 km away from India, which will reduce the insecurity of Pakistan up to considerable extent. With a Sea port at such an important position like Gwadar, Pakistan will be able to have an eagle-eye on the sea line of communication from Persian Gulf to the Strait of Hormuz. The addition of a naval base at Ormara Gwadar to Pakistan navy will increase the importance of Pakistan. Furthermore, China is eager for here attendance here to have
an eye on the movement of India and USA in the Arabian Sea. Naval connection of Pakistan and China will keep an eye on India’s naval asset at the Arabian Sea. This will make marketable ships communication harmless at Indian Ocean.

In the case of any tension if Strait of Malacca gets congested by America movement, the port will serve as a substitute for West Asia and China’s interests. Strategically and Militarily, the construction of Gwadar port will enable China to have an easy check on the sea lines of communications from the Persian Gulf, the region from where China fulfill its 60% energy needs. China will be to watch out the movement of India in the Gulf of Adan and Persian Gulf.

The geography of the Gwadar port makes it an issue of interest for entire world and especially for region’s and non-region players. Many of the players have a keen interest in the port of Gwadar due to its central strategic location in region of Gulf that is a share of the new great game (Hussain & Ayaz, 2017).

**Energy Geopolitics**

Rapid growth in Asian’s demand for energy brings energy politics of Indian Ocean into the limelight of contemporary strategic interests. Gape between demand and supply enhanced strategic competition among these states, dragged by China to epoch. To keep their industries alive these states can go up to the last extent to keep energy flow uninterrupted, responsible to economic development. Such a situation enhanced significance of Indian Ocean exponentially. Out of every three barrels of oil one is occupied by Saudi Arabia or Iraq with reserves of 259 billion barrels and 112 billion barrels respectively (Robert, 2011). World’s energy demand experienced a growth of 95 % during the last 30 years. It is estimated that next fifteen years will saw thirty three percent growths while another forty five percent increase in next twenty years (Ahmad, 2009). This region of Persian Gulf encompasses sixty percent of world’s proven crude and forty five percent of gas reserves (Ahmad, 2009).

**Geo-strategic Imperatives**

Located at the coast of Makran, Gwadar port is an important maritime strategic outpost. Gwadar a third world’s largest port situated at mouth of Persia’s Gulf only 180 nautical miles distanced from strategically important straits of Hormuz. Its distance from Hormuz is 400 km where 16 to 17 million barrels oil transported. About 30 tankers passes through this significant chokepoint mean there is only six minutes gape between the two tankers using these waters. To military and strategic analysts Gwadar is like a watch post from where this shipping and the entire enemy’s activates can be checked. This proximity to straits of Hormuz enables Pakistan to check these SLCs.

The port at Makran coast was constructed in compulsion under the experience of 1965, 1971 and 1998 wars (Haider, 2005). Parveez Musharraf the then President who was the main figure of the Kargal war, launched the port project (Haider, 2005). Geo-political and geo-strategic situation of Pakistan is of crucial importance that got immense significance in national security paradigm. The port location grants it electronic
surveillance facility to monitor any activity in Arabian Sea and even in Indian Ocean. Actually the port of Gwadar lies entirely under the domain of “Rimland concept” of Mackinder that was used in the great game. Throughout the history Gwadar remained under the focus of military powers of Indian Ocean. These warm waters attracted Portuguese, Greeks, Persians, Arabs, Russian and Great Britain during times. Development of the port with associated projects would benefit Pakistan with the following, secure its maritime interests and would bring economic integration to the region.

Conclusion

The most important point is that China derides the concept of “go Global” and luckily Pakistan became the immediate beneficiary of the concept, hence Pakistan should remain focused on its development rather than wasting time in such petty issues. Not body should allow to use provincialism as tool to sabotage the agenda of development.

The project is of crucial significance for both Pakistan and China. It is an alternate route of energy’s transportation for China while for Pakistan it’s an opportunity to counter India’s influence in the region. Further, it would prove Pakistan as a connection point of South Asian region to Central Asia and Eurasian regions. The project is a quick boost to its economic growth.

CPEC about $ 50 billion worth project, completion date is 2030, is generally known as a game changer. It would improve the strategic and socioeconomic situation of Pakistan. The project faces serious challenges in shape of grievances of the two provinces i.e. KP and Baluchistan. There are a lot of internal and external actors who are trying to derail the project. The most important is India who inflamed Baloch issue. The government has to take serious steps to counter such threats and to ensure security of the project. All political parties, including opposition parties should think positively about the best options. Provincial governments must take on board by the central government on the project matters.

The security force initiated in the project should provide the best available equipment. Information regarding the project has to share with the common man through the media, especially the benefit of the project to counter any negative propaganda. All the agreements need to be materialized in good faith. To get maximum benefits the government has to arrange Chinese language centers in Pakistan. Further she needs to remain neutral in regional politics to gain maximum benefits of the project.

Reference


IMPLICATIONS OF CPEC


Hussain, Khan, Ayaz


Use of Narcotics in Pakistan: Situation Analysis and Way Forward

Khaleeq ur Rahman
Area Study Center, University of Sindh

The use of narcotics in Pakistan is mainly looked at as if it is something isolated from the political games that are played at regional and global levels. This research is partially an attempt to explain why this could not be the case. It looks at the connections between regional and global divisions of power relationships to set stage for understanding the flaws in our conception of the menace of drugs and their proliferation in our society at certain moments in our history. The role of shadow economy in this context has also remained under researched. This paper attempted to address these gaps in knowledge that mislead, misdirect our understanding and conception of drugs and their use, as well as affecting our effectively reacting to these social problematics. The conclusions drawn are the way forward for our policy making apparatuses. Pakistan is signatory to a number of bilateral and multilateral pacts and treaties on narcotics control. It also has vibrant national anti-narcotics and illicit drugs prevention policies and various task forces to deal with the menace of use and abuse of banned substances like National Anti-Narcotics Council (NANC), Ministry of Narcotics Control, Inter-Agency Task Force, Anti-Narcotics Force, National Anti-Narcotics Policy. Despite all these efforts, use and abuse of drugs is on the rise. In the present international scenario, especially the FATF related policies, international pressure and procedures, use of narcotics is no longer an isolated incident but rather part of a very huge ensemble of problems for Pakistan to deal with. Legally, there are no barriers to going after the complete eradication of the narcotics in Pakistan. In other words, the problem is not having the required legal and administrative cover to prevent the use, sale, and import of narcotics in Pakistan. There is plenty of cover available to drug enforcement agencies but still the menace of drug control is on the rise. This gives rise to many problematics. Why is it the case that with so much international cooperation the menace of illicit drugs is on the rise? Could this be the result of what international relations theorists refer to as “the shadow economy” which fuels this massive inflow of drugs, appropriately labelled as “Afghan opiates,” in Pakistan? What are the bottlenecks that prevent implementation of narcotics control policies? Are there other factors that hamper effective implementation of avowed national commitment against the use and abuse of narcotics in Pakistan? Is shadow economy, that the world has failed to harness, something that Pakistan can tackle with its limited resources? Or are there any capacity issues and double-dealings that leave the strongly worded national commitment against banned substances in the lurch? Answers to these pressing questions have been sought in this paper.

Key words: illicit Drugs, Narcotics Control, Shadow Economy, WOT

Use of narcotics in Pakistan is not an isolated issue. It is the symptom of a deep laying malaise that is at the very core of the way the world has been made to operate. It is also known as the shadow economy, an acronym for how the third world has remained an uninsured corner of the insured world (Duffield, 2007). It would be naive to think that the use of narcotics could be overcome without taking the happenings at the regional and global level into proper account. This paper has, therefore, adopted an interdisciplinary

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Rahman

perspective to be able to create a realistic, the term is loaded, understanding of the situation and to move forward with the newfound understanding.

Pakistan has a truckload of agencies that are supposed to implement national and international, bilateral and multilateral agreements on the use of narcotics and other class-A drugs. There is a full-fledged national policy titled The National Anti-Narcotics Policy 2019 in place that testifies to the State’s commitment to tackle this menace. But argued in this paper is that this understanding of the menace is not indigenous but imported lock, stock, and barrel from the west. That is where the gap in our understanding lies. It is to this gap that this paper attends. Narcotics, therefore suffer from many definitions and depends where you stand on the human divide to decide on the matter. This paper analyses the current situation as it exists at many levels and looks at the road ahead.

The paper has been divided into three sections. Section 1 details the gaps and contradictions that intersperse existing literature on the menace of drug use in Pakistan. Section 2 takes stock of the present policies of the government and all other concerned agencies in perspective of their efforts to curb the flow of drugs through our youth and society. Section 3 reflects on what can be salvaged from deconstruction of the existing mindset on drugs, their use and abuse, for a better - more cautious way forward.

**Literature Review**

If the argument in contemporary philosophy is anything to go by, which holds that everything is text i.e. constructed from a specific perspective (Hendricks 2016), then the best foray in our review of the literature on drugs are a few Hollywood movies *Jack Reacher* (2009) and *American Made* (2017) by their mainstream actors who implicate the American deep state to be involved in what came to be famously called the Iran-Contra scandal the world over. This thread of the argument leads us to a position where we cannot only make our analysis of the current situation of drugs in Pakistan but can also refine our understanding of the future course of action.

**Significance and Scope of the Study**

Pakistan has lost one of its most brilliant first generation to the menace of drugs abuse. Pakistan was quite young when it entered the Cold War from its Western dimension. The significance of the study derives from its ability to use interdisciplinary approach to highlight the hindrances in Pakistan's way that are far graver than the limitations of its human and financial resources. It is this dimension of proliferation of drugs which is not highlighted in its proper ideological setting. This is the significance of this study as well as its scope because it addresses a very neglected aspect of the work and literature on the use of narcotics in Pakistan that eventually lead to flawed inferences among our policy makers.

**Statement of Problem**

Pakistan is signatory to a number of bilateral and multilateral pacts and treaties on narcotics control. It also has vibrant national anti-narcotics and illicit drugs prevention policies and various task forces to deal with the menace of use and abuse of banned substances like National Anti-Narcotics Council (NANC), Ministry of Narcotics Control, Inter-Agency Task Force, Anti-Narcotics Force, National Anti-Narcotics Policy. Despite
all these efforts, use and abuse of drugs is on the rise. In the present international scenario, especially the FATF related policies, international pressure and procedures, use of narcotics is no longer an isolated incident but rather part of a very huge ensemble of problems for Pakistan to deal with. Legally, there are no barriers to going after the complete eradication of the narcotics in Pakistan. In other words, the problem is not having the required legal and administrative cover to prevent the use, sale, and import of narcotics in Pakistan. There is plenty of cover available to drug enforcement agencies but still the menace of drug control is on the rise. This gives rise to many problematics. Why is it the case that with so much international cooperation, the menace of illicit drugs is on the rise? Could this be the result of what international relations theorists refer to as “the shadow economy” which fuels this massive inflow of drugs, appropriately labelled as “Afghan opiates,” in Pakistan? What are the bottlenecks that prevent implementation of narcotics control policies? Are there other factors that hamper effective implementation of avowed national commitment against the use and abuse of narcotics in Pakistan? Is shadow economy, that the world has failed to harness, something that Pakistan can tackle with its limited resources? Or are there any capacity issues and double-dealings that leave the strongly worded national commitment against banned substances in the lurch?

Method

Qualitative, interpretive, deconstructive and interdisciplinary approach has been adopted to bring out the nuances of the topic at hand. It is mainly based on primary sources that are collected from the concerned ministries and other government agencies like the ANF. For adding global and regional dimensions to the study, an eclectic use of social, cultural, and critical theorists has been sought because the topic at hand demands an engagement from a theoretical perspective that Pakistan does not have. Therefore, international relation theorists come together with philosophers in the social sciences to help us make sense of the prevalent conditions and policies geared towards countering the spread of narcotics in Pakistan.

Deconstruction remains the main methodological tool that assists the theoretical framework i.e., social, cultural, and critical theories. This research method complements that main thrust of line of argument pursued in this paper. Both are extremely sensitive to the loss in translation of many aspects of the research and debate on the use of drugs in Pakistan.

Illicit Drugs: Their Classification

Pakistan is a signatory to three international conventions on drugs control like “the Single Convention on Narcotic Drugs of 1961 as amended by the 1972 Protocol, the Convention on Psychotropic Substances of 1971, and the United Nations Convention against Illicit Traffic in Narcotic Drugs and Psychotropic Substances of 1988” (National Anti-Narcotics Policy, 2019). Anti-Narcotics Force or ANF is responsible for spearheading this fight against the use, sale, and cultivation of narcotics in Pakistan in partnership with provincial anti-narcotics forces. Narcotics or illicit drugs refer to a phenomenon that includes too many things all at the same time. In order to understand different classification of Class A and B drugs, Figure 1 details different classification of these controlled drugs:
Establishing the Phenomenon

According to ANF, the factors responsible for the increase in abuse of drugs are “increased availability of drugs at low prices”; “rapidly changing social norms;” scarcity of financial security, joblessness, awareness about drugs and the consequences of their abuse, and lack of political will to deal with the problem. These are some of the main factors that ANF has identified to be responsible for the large-scale drug abuse situation in Pakistan. What this lack evidences, is a total want of an holistic perspective that takes into account the greater international political and economic “ventures” (rhymes with adventure), that are unfolding by the minute (National Anti-Narcotics Policy, 2019). As Mir, the great Urdu poet, has put it succinctly, that Mir is such a fool that he is asking for medicine from the same doctor’s son who got him ill in the first place.

What is immediately obvious is absence of any references to regional situation as a possible factor in the increase of drugs in our society. This omission is not unintentional. It is premised upon a certain understanding of the role of playing second fiddle to an international effort, mainly American, as well as on the Houdini act which makes all references, all allusions to factors that are far more sinister than meets the eye in our reports and policies on narcotics control, disappear in thin air. The nexus between corruption, shadow economy and narcotics is undeniable. It is this nexus which Pakistani scholars have read from an America perspective lacking a clear view of dynamics of realpolitiking in the region, especially in the Af-Pak region. For instance, in their article, International Security Assistance Force Drawdown from Afghanistan: Challenges and Opportunities (2015), Shah and Ayaz continue to look upon the presence of American and NATO forces in Afghanistan from a position that makes them the ‘good guys’ whose presence ensures a drug free Pakistan which is under threat once Taliban sweep into power:

While sympathizers of jihadi cause can find happiness in this eventuality [i.e., the withdrawal of US and NATO from Afghanistan] it should not be forgotten that state failure in Afghanistan would result in weak governance and lawlessness. This in turn would lead to ineffective counter insurgency and organized crime/drug trafficking which would spill over into Pakistan and hence this scenario would pose a clear and imminent danger to Pakistan’s security and stability as well. The domino effect will be stronger in Khyber
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Pakhtunkhwa, Baluchistan and FATA which are already beset with serious security challenges like insurgency, drug proliferation, and religiously inspired militant extremism (p.4).

It has already been assumed that the problem would start after their departure and that it would be the result of vacuum created by the withdrawal of ISAF. A similar position can be observed in many other scholars like Gul (2015), Sultan, Khurram, and Hussain (2018), and Bashir and Aman (2021) who do not look at US Imperial Army as the main perpetrators of terrorism and promoters of drugs in the world but, in a classic case of what Antonio Gramsci calls “consensual hegemony,” these indigenous scholars look up to America as if it is going to bring freedom and democracy to the wretched of the earth.

This literature review begins by trying to “establish the phenomenon” (Merton 1987) of the use, spread, and proliferation of narcotics in Pakistan. There would surely be many differences in how the phenomenon is perceived by different researchers from different perspectives, as elaborated upon by Reed (2011) in his book Interpretation and Social Knowledge: On the Use of Theory in Human Sciences, especially when he writes that

...debates about method often carry implicit disagreements about the nature and purpose of inquiry, the structure of social life itself, and the role of the critical intellectual or social researcher in comprehending it. If we render these disagreements explicit, we find that they are not only about method, strictly understood, but also about how knowledge claims are built out of conceptual innovation, justified in publication, and criticized as inaccurate and untrue (or, to use that infuriatingly ambiguous word, “problematic”) (Reed, 2011, p.3).

With this caveat in mind, the present Section concerns with bringing the available scholarly literature on the topic of the use of drugs in Pakistan for a more accurate rendition of the problem of the use of drugs and its multifarious connotations.

Writing at the beginning of the twenty first century, Sherman et al., (2005) conclude in their study of the use of drugs among street children in Lahore, Pakistan that drug use is a coping mechanism for these street children and that “[targeted] programs are needed to meet their special needs” (Sherman et al., 2005).

The study was a joint venture of Johns Hopkins University, USA and specialists from “Nai Zindagi”, Pakistan. Their study is meticulous in their collection and interpretation of the quantitative data. They have rightly pointed out the flaws in Pakistan’s approach to the menace of drug use and show through elaborate figures and interviews, or through firsthand accounts of the street children in Lahore, how Pakistan is not making any headway and state the obvious that a lot needs to be done to tackle the problem. They rightly point out that “throughout the world, the underlying cause of a country’s street children epidemic is that of poverty” (p. iv114) but do not pursue it further. The point that there could be specific policies that create grounds for destitution, deprivation, and poverty is not taken up as a concern in their reflections on many facets
of the problematic of drug use and abuse in Pakistan. Jafari et al., (2015) are perfect example of missing elephant in the room when they write that “Pakistan has been a producer of opium both for export and domestic consumption for centuries” (p 295) and right on the money when they write that “In 1979, the Government of Pakistan responded to the problem of increased illicit opium trade by enforcement of anti-drug policies, which prohibits trafficking, financing or possession of more than 10gm of heroin or 1kg of opium” (p 295). Despite a reflection of a sheer ignorance of historical inaccuracy, it is also one of phenomenal historical accuracy (Jafari et al., 2000). 1979 is extremely important because it marks the beginning of a long covert war, led by CIA every step of the way in our region, that Pakistan was inadvertently forced into as a result of its proximity with Afghanistan. This is precisely the time when poppy is transformed from an historical medicinal herb/drug into heroine: “The opium poppy is an ancient medicinal plant, included among 700 remedies in the Ebers Papyrus of about 1550 BC Egypt” (Cookson, Katona, & Taylor 2002).

Shadow Economy

Since Daniel Defoe and his 1726 The Political History of the Devil, we were made to believe that there are two things in our world that we may easily deem certain: death and taxes. Nevertheless, humanity always has its way of adjusting the status quo to its own will and thus, although the existence of taxes seems indispensable to the functioning of modern states, resourceful individuals get by correcting the great tax expectations themselves. And so they move into the shadows (Labendowicz 2015.).

Shadow economy, which this paper identifies as one of the root causes of the rise in use of drugs in Pakistan, is not an isolated issue. It has deep global roots and thrives on all kinds of shady deals that would otherwise fall under the purview of State machinery. There is no proper definition of the term, but it can be best described as any “gray economy/ informal economy/illicit economy” that is “both hard to define and to measure” (p 6). It contains all those sectors that do not come under the umbrella of a nationally organised economy that is taxed/milked called contribution to GDP. It is a parallel structure that attempts to keep clear of government regulations and works on its own locally valid business ethics. It is, in this sense, “[existing] alongside a country’s official economy and remains unseen/unreported to the regulator” (Labendowicz, 2015).

In other words, it works in the shadows like a petty thief. Labendowicz quips that the principle to save as many taxes as possible is perhaps the very legacy of the US President, Donald Trump, who had presented businessmen and entrepreneurs with his “infamous golden rule” to pay “as little taxes as possible.” But shadow economy is much more than about paying little taxes. It generates its billions in an altogether different kind of business ethos, the darkest of the dark in the shadow: by strangling a large chunk of humanity to keep its billions rolling. In other words, it works on entirely new terrain of exploitation that is not restricted by any moral codes. The proverbial gloves are off in this bare-knuckle grounding of the uninsured lives. This grounding is not restricted by region but universal.

It is here that we need the help of international relations theorists, particularly Mearsheimer and Duffield (2007, 2018) to make sense of what has come to pass in the
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world, in general, and Pakistan, in particular. They will help us make sense of the situation that is otherwise missed by our scholars focused on eliminating, like Don Quixote, the menace of drug use from our society side by side to their peers in drug enforcement agencies. It would be extremely interesting to notice how the very policies that are imported from the west, to look at the problem of drug use in Pakistan, are originating from and deeply imbricated in the very act of importation. This is, otherwise, also a tale of our ideological indoctrination as well.

In his book, *The Great Delusion: Liberal Dreams and International Realities* (2018), John Mearsheimer implicates a certain kind of thought process that has left a trail of terror in its wake across the globe. He calls it liberal hegemony (Mearsheimer 2018). The term liberal is not used in the context of oppression, exploitation, and capitalism at its brutal by him alone. It is, rather the legacy of the great French theorist, Michel Foucault, who laid to rest the very philosophical foundations of western liberalism by exposing its deep underbelly. He left it with no plausible deniability and thus the charges, once objectively verified, got stuck. This led to a massive inflow of scholarly work from many mainstream theorists across disciplines like David Harvey and Mark Duffield among many others. What they intended to expose was the kind of nexus that is best summed up by Waltraud Queiser Morales, the “dissident” Mexican writer, in “a provocative 1989 article entitled ‘The War on Drugs: A New U.S. National Security Doctrine?’”, writes that “during the Gorbachev era in the Soviet Union the Cold War had rapidly lost its ‘fear potential’. For U.S. policy makers the ideology of anti-Communism was becoming increasingly inadequate as the ‘automatic legitimating doctrine of the U.S. national security state’” (p 3). As part of their legitimising doctrine, Fraser argue, Morales thought the US invented many other justificatory narratives to keep its nose in the affairs of Latin America. Drugs was one obvious excuse to keep their presence in an otherwise ideologically laid out strategic game plan in Latin America where it was fighting Russian Communists. “War on Drugs”, which carries all the nuances of the erstwhile War on Terror, both Morales and Fraser agree, was one such justificatory narrative to cloak their political and economic intervention. “For example,” Fraser continues, “the Reagan administration had used the new U.S. crusade against the cocaine cartels to justify the presence of U.S. Special Operations Forces and counternarcotics agents in the Andes and Colombia, who in addition to fighting drugs had also clearly been engaged in counter-insurgency operations” (p.3). The Regan Administration sponsored a coup against its former ally, Panama’s corrupt dictator, writes Fraser, which illustrates the point further for us that “the United States would eventually use the War on Drugs as a rationale for a ‘bald-faced’ invasion of Panama” (Fraser 2003).

What is of particular importance for us here is replication of the same strategy of appearance and reality in Afghanistan during its fight with the USSR. Pakistani policy makers too got sucked into the liberal dream. That bandwagon has continued to exist and is now replicated in our policies on drug control when ‘Afghan opiates’ continue to fuel the presence of American troops in Afghanistan. Watching Tom Cruise’s *Jack Reacher* (2012) and *American Made* (2017), both mainstream Hollywood movies by its brand name, as if a scholarly book by Rutledge or University of Chicago Press, would illustrate the point pursued here further.
Rahman

Shadow economy, particularly when it comes to drugs and arms, acts in shadow of the US Army, the exact same place from where our briefings, policies, and training material on combating drug cartels come from. This obvious fact is mostly lost on those policy makers who cannot stitch the entire picture due to specific capacity issues, which, when analyzed further, are the result of another form of liberal hegemony. Pakistan is, therefore, between the devil and the deep blue sea when it comes to making sense of the problem of increasing demand of illicit, Class A drugs in Pakistan. A simple question would have revealed the reality behind the hype against the uses and abuses of drugs in Pakistan: why would a nation with such an atrocious record of lying to the international community and human suffering would be interested in eliminating narcotics as a cause of human suffering?

Results

Taking Stock

One thing that immediately jumps out from literature review is differences in approaches within Pakistan and the very best of critical/social theorists is their understanding of the specter of liberalism that haunts us. Something which stands totally deconstructed philosophically is presented to our nation as the panacea of all our ills. The national commitment against the use, sale, and cultivation of the banned substances like poppy is one such example to illustrate the moot point here. What is described by Pakistan’s premier anti-narcotics agency as its aim is not indigenous but would change with the patterns of change in the master narrative.

There are enough agencies and sub agencies, national and international, bilateral and multilateral agreements to fill a room but what has been witnessed continuously is the need to develop an indigenous understanding of how drugs related crimes, its trafficking, counter measures are perceived by Ministry of Narcotics Control, GoP, ANF and their entire fleet of subordinate branches. The point is that there is more at stake in how the use of drugs are commonly looked at from an angle and perspective that is fed to our policy makers on a platter from those who set the rules of the game. Once we understand that those who set these rules for us to follow as a national duty are the very same policy makers who are also making policies that impact the region and the globe in ways that perpetuate rather than curb the flow of drugs through the world. The money is then used to keep the world, and especially our region, restive and on permanent tenterhooks.

The way ahead is therefore marred by crucial and critical decisions. They could potentially determine the culprit that could yield us a win against proliferation of drugs through our society. As has been manifested by all kinds of data already, the use and abuse of drugs is on the rise rather than on the wane as it should have been, had our policies been realistic. The road ahead is the proverbial road by Robert Frost: it is the road less travelled by that will make all the difference. The other one has already been trodden by.

Facts and Figures

In their article titled Effect of law enforcement on drug abuse: a comparison of substance use in Pakistan, Afghanistan, Iran and Turkey (2015), Jafri et al argue that
“situation of opium cultivation and production over the last decade in Afghanistan, leaves no doubt that law enforcement has not worked”, because it is the only source of family income for many Afghan families. Drug economy clearly provides many livelihoods and incomes for Afghan families. The article surprisingly lacks reference to the ravages of the war imposed on Afghanistan that created grounds for evaporation of all other sources of income in Afghan society. They focus on the data by recording that “the number of families involved in opium poppy cultivation was estimated at 309000 families in 2005 that represented about 2 million persons or 8.7% of the total population in Afghanistan” (Jafari et al 2015) but do not elaborate the situation it is happening in. This is plainly an historical oversight that distorts reality.

“Law enforcement has no worked”? The means of livelihood for millions of Afghans notwithstanding, it is best to highlight the current position of Pakistan’s anti-narcotics muscle. The following data is garnered from primary sources like the main stakeholders in anti-narcotics efforts in Pakistan. The data is instructive as well as bewildering when compared in the light of what Jafri et al had been saying (p.298).

Fact Check
Government Agencies and Ministries
There are a number of dedicated governmental agencies and ministries that are working on controlling and finally eradicating drugs from Pakistani society. They include Ministry of Narcotics Control, Anti-Narcotics Force (ANF), National Anti-Narcotics Council (NANC), Parliamentary Committees on Narcotics Control, National Narcotics Control Committee (NNCC), Inter-Agency Task Force (IATF), Provincial Narcotics Control Committees (PNCC), and District Narcotic Control Cells (DNCC) (The National Anti-Narcotics Policy, 2019).

In other words, there is no dearth of governmental agencies, ministries, divisions, and think tanks to top it all off, that are supposedly fighting the menace of drugs proliferation in Pakistani society, yet the point remains elusive: why cannot the perpetrators be named?

National and International Agreements
The Road Ahead

Continuing from the previous discussion on the philosophy behind how drugs are perceived by dedicated agencies, one can argue that the case for not trusting Empire, heatedly argued between and among scholars is not only valid but the only possible alternative. The shift in gears, called \textit{Kumk in} colloquial Pashto, is required for many reasons all of which have something to do with our progress towards nation building. It cannot be done in a situation where policy makers are beholden to the tune of the Pied Piper. The road ahead is therefore not known and certainly not strewn with roses. The best contemporary practice is to keep \textit{locally} manufactured GPS or a compass to navigate the unknown terrain. That compass is mandatory because it not only keep us on a trajectory that brings us back to ourselves but gives us many lessons in nation building which is something we surely lack. Why else would John Mearsheimer, Mark Duffield, Michel Foucault, Noam Chomsky (all of them are credible and leading global intellectuals), hold that there is something sinister that lurked behind the facade of liberalism and new liberalism if it were the panacea for all the ills of humanity? Why would they hold it to account if it is what is taught to us? They keep us busy elsewhere as they decamp with booty. The most glorious example, one which also serves as an analogy for understanding the thrust of the main argument of this paper on the use of narcotics in Pakistan, is how Pakistani society has been engaged in playing the NGO/INGO game under the umbrella of community development and community resilience in war torn societies like ours. Pakistan’s premier think tanks like PSPDI, Islamabad and other such bodies are a case in point. This is how they advertise themselves to Pakistani people: “SDPI defines sustainable development as the enhancement of peace, social justice and well-being within and across generations. SDPI produces knowledge that can enhance the capacity of government to make informed policy decisions and to engage civil society on “issues of public interest” (sdpi.org, 2020). That they generate “original research on sustainable development issues” and collects data for researchers and research institutes. They also announce themselves as research “advisory” by training and facilitating individual researchers by providing training. These goals seem very good and amiable but look what happens to them when we bring insights from Mark Duffield. “For some years,” writes Mark Duffield, “I have been aware that development and security inter-connect. It is only now, however, after completing this book, that I fully realize how enduring and essential this relationship is” (Duffield 2007). He writes that the concept of development appears very “benign and practical act of helping others” but in reality, it is just another form of control that are utilised by “liberal forms of power and government” that Pakistan is very painfully aware of. Development, he writes, is method of cheating the less advanced societies (Duffield 2007).

The irony of the two situations must not be lost on any keen reader: what is hailed by PSDI as the greatest Cavour to Pakistan is, in fact, nothing more than a liberal technology of cover mentality and power. What we call ‘development’ is mere liberal management of the outcome, outflow, and blowback from relentless campaigns for what John Mearsheimer rightly calls ‘liberal hegemony’ (Mearsheimer 2018).

The point remains that Pakistan’s whole conception of narcotics, its control, and countermeasures are imported lock, stock, and barrel from the mother narrative of Pakistan. This mother narrative is also mother to liberalism in many an interesting way.
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that keeps us from finding the very crux of Pakistan. ANF’s goals for its SPEAR strategy would further elaborate the point under discussion here, especially when it announces its priorities and goals.

Some of the major tasks that Anti-Narcotics Force has prioritised under its Spear Strategy, write the authors of our National Anti-Narcotics Policy, are to have closer interaction “with other Ministries/ Departments as per National Anti-Narcotics Policy 2010”; establish close liaison between “Law Enforcement Agencies (LEAs) under Inter Agency Task Force (IATF) Forum”; engage in close “cooperation with international narcotics control authorities, organization, bodies, associations and societies” along with pledges to make Pakistan an effective front against drugs and its illicit trade in Pakistan and internationally with financial support from donors (National Anti-Narcotics Policy, 2019).

“Financial assistance from donors” is the axis around which ANF’s policy guidelines and objectives are based. It brings back Mark Duffield’s insight back into our focus that many things have become a shadow under the name of ‘development’, human or otherwise. This gives us an inkling of what lies ahead with the kind of blind faith that policy makers have been prone to adopt when it comes to finding their own way forward.

The way forward, our policy makers are unable to understand, is not in following the policies and objectives given to us by “donors” but understanding the regional and global situation that provides the context to drugs and its proliferation in our society. It is a multibillion-dollar shadow economy. What we need to understand as we move forward through this bog is realise the fact that a multibillion-dollar shadow economy has its international enablers who are hiding in plain sight. On the road ahead, it must be at the back of our mind that the donors are not angels but hard-core neo-liberals who are wedded to money. They would never want the fountainhead of their unlimited source of money be curtailed, jeopardised, and ultimately eliminated.

On the road ahead, one must also keep in mind the fact that our society has not been producing enough of those who could put country before self-interest. Shadow economy, that is deeply interlinked with drug cartels, does not survive on its own. Our reputation and position on the world’s most corrupt country list is not a myth that is based on legends. Our society values money and tolerates corruption because it is a means to something that is held in high esteem. Given this fact, shadow economy would thrive as we are to chase mirages and illusions. This could prove handy as we head into the unknown.

Conclusion

Pakistan’s anti-narcotics paradigm suffers from an acute sense of purpose and has been made to chase the red light which is perpetually in motion. It not only lacks human and financial resources to combat the use of drugs in Pakistan but also lacks the intellectual resources to make sense of the whole gambit. It is not helped by the shadow economy either that thrives side by side, what is commonly perceived as its antithesis, the legitimate one. The legitimacy of the legitimate economy is under erasure in the debates among critical, social, and cultural theorists. Pakistan does not have the capacity nor the resources to rid itself of this far graver problematic than drugs. A much larger population
has been reduced through, what Mark Duffield and Michel Foucault, call “bio-politics” i.e., the subjugation of man to a certain narrative, discourse, or hegemonic interpretation of the realities of our world. In other words, our lens is not indigenous but foreign. The war on drugs cannot be won when the interpretation comes from the same sources that create the trouble in the first place. It would be exactly like replicating that famous Urdu couplet penned by the inimitable Mir Dard: (Mir is so naïve that he seeks medicine from the son of the same doctor who had given him his illness in the first place. Mir bhi kya saada hain, Huway bemar jis kay sabab.... Ussee Ataar (doctor/quack) kay londay say dawa letein hain.)

There is no disputing the fact that the threat that the use and abuse of drugs pose to the future of Pakistan’s mainly young generation, but what remains to be realized is to get rid of the false beliefs that the West/ USA, an Imperial hegemonic power, could have been our savior. It is just business for them. Pakistan is poised to be on a completely different trajectory.

References


Effect of Using Computer Assisted Instructions in the Form of Tutorial Mode (CAITM) on the Academic Achievements of Students at Elementary Level in the Subject of Pakistan Studies

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Computer assisted instructions in the form of tutorial mode play revolutionary role in education sector. By application of CAITM based learning tutorials students cannot only enhance their learning but also retain their learning for long time. The objective of study was to find out the effects of computer assisted instructions in the form of tutorial mode (CAITM) on the academic achievements of the eighth-grade students in the subject of Pakistan Studies. All the male and female students of FGEI C/G Schools of Khyber Pakhtoonkhwa constituted as the population of the study. Forty students of both genders of 8th grade were taken from FG Public School No.1 Risalpur Cantt as the sample of the study. The sample was then bifurcated into two equivalent groups through pair random technique by using bi-monthly test scores for this purpose. The Post-test Only Equivalent Group Design was used. Post-test was used as the tool for data collection. The collected data were then analysed and interpreted by independent sample t-test. The findings of study revealed that the participants of the experimental group performed better than that of the control group, which leads to the conclusion that computer assisted instructions in the form of tutorial mode (CAITM) played a significant role in academic achievements. Therefore, it was suggested that CAITM based learning program may be incorporated in schools with teaching methods and techniques at elementary level, especially for the subject of Pakistan Studies and Social Studies. The current study is conducted at elementary level in the subject of Pakistan Studies which revealed significant results. To explore in-depth understanding of the CAITM program, it is recommended that further studies may be conducted at divers’ samples at different levels.

Keywords: CAITM, academic achievements, Pakistan Studies, elementary level

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At present, most of educational institutions have been connected to computer technology (Odili, Adetona & Enah, 2020). The development of computer technology in the field of education leads to the modern approaches of instruction which helps in reduction of teaching-learning issues (Sarker, et al., 2019). The problems related to the instruction in the field of education have become addressable due to the modern Computer technology (Misra, et al., 2016). The process of manipulation helps to integrate the computer technology with teaching learning process to accommodate the issues of educational sector (Amer, 2007).

The explorative studies have revealed that integration of computer technology in the field of education boosts up the teaching-learning program (Lawrence, & Tar, 2018; Aktaruzzaman, Shamim, & Clement, 2011; Ahmad & Nisa, 2016). The student-centred approach, cooperative learning skills and high order thinking skills of students can be enhanced by using computer technology (Haddad, 2003). Almost all developed countries of the globe, realizing the significance of CAI, have promoted the computer assisted instructional technology (Afrin, 2014; Ramani & Patadia, 2012). CAI based teacher training programs have been conducted to equip the teachers and instructors with modern computer technology (Uko & Ebute, 2013). According to Ibrahim (2012) computer assisted instruction in the form of tutorial mode (CAITM) helps in motivation of students. It also enables the students to convert the virtual approaches into practical forms. Due to this, they can be well motivated. Their comprehension level can also be enhanced with respect to subject matter (kabigting, 2020). Moreover, it improves the comprehension level of the students with respect to subject matter and facts. It makes the students relax and calm and do not force them. In addition to above mentioned facts, it is expected that, CAITM aided tutorials may improve success rate of the students, improve top order thinking skills of students as claimed by Fontana, (1993).

In Pakistan, Pakistan studies and social studies are being taught as core compulsory subjects from class one to tertiary level (Government of Pakistan, 2010). Pakistan studies help the students to learn about their history, economic system and socio-political condition of the country. It also makes them realize about the struggle, sufferings and sacrifices made by their ancestors and leaders to achieve the country. The subject matter has been constituted on the basis of Quran and Sunnah and saying of the Quaid-e-Azam. The subject matter of Pakistan studies also familiarises them with the religion, ideology, norms, tradition and culture of the country (Tabassum, 2004).

To build up the conduct of the students, CAITM has been integrated with the subject of Pakistan studies. B.F Skinner had the opinion that individuals’ participation and motivation levels might be strengthened by inculcating positive reinforcement (CAITM) (Dowling, Godfrey & Gyles, 2013).

Incorporation of computer assisted instruction in form of tutorial mode (CAITM) in teaching Pakistan Studies and other social disciplines have a significant impact on the performance of students and learners. Hard and complex issues and concepts can be comprehended easily by adopting computer assisted instructions in the form of tutorial mode (CAITM). In integration of audio-visual aids with CAITM program
helps the students to understand different concepts related to history and ideology of Pakistan, land and resources, political condition and geo-importance of Pakistan (Watson, Gemin, Ryan & Wicks. 2009).

The above-mentioned discussion has instigated the researcher to investigate “the effect of using computer assisted instruction in the form of tutorial mode (CAITM) on the academic achievements and retention level of students at elementary level in the subject of Pakistan Studies”.

**Literature review**

Since the development of modern exploration and innovation, human social and political life is being influenced day by day. Learning process is also influenced by these novel technological developments (Salmon, 2004).

It has been seen that speedy development in the field of instructional technologies in late 1990s, not only changed the learning content but also changed the traditions related to teaching-learning processes to a greater extent (Pishva, Nishantha & Dang, 2010; Aliasgari, Riahinia & Mojdehavar, 2010). Instructional technology encompasses all legitimate and dependable applied educational sciences which lead to the development of educational systems and procedures gained from scientific study and in a given context (Ishtaiwa, 2006; Bakaç, Tasoglu & Akbay, 2011). Danjuma (2015) explains that modern instructional tools may be inducted to endorse more drives of learning environment in order to integrate technology in educational sector. Students and teachers can take assistance for the educational tasks and assignments.

Computer assisted instruction (CAI) has performed a pivotal role in educational development procedures that results in exclusive alteration in the traditional teaching practices (Kara & Yakar, 2009; Rouse, 2007). Technological use in different institutions for instruction by incorporation of CAI tools has dominated the whole learning process (Hall, Hughes & Filbert, 2000; Romeo, 2008). That is the reason Gambari (2003) explains that the potential paybacks of Computer Assisted Instruction (CAI) may not be taken as too trivially in the advanced globe. Noticeable reality has been observed that CAI increases the students’ learning capacities with respect to comprehension level; therefore, the use of computer assisted program should be built-in in academic settings of educational institutions.

Gambari (2003) has perception that modern research endeavours explicit that modern computer technology has the capacity to revolutionize the educational sector. The student-based learning perception could be boosted up by utilizing the CAITM tools which can improve the creative thinking skills of the students very easily (Vandewaetere, Vandercruyssse & Clarelbout, 2012; Hendikawati, Zahid & Arifudin, 2019). To develop the CAITM approach, it is needed to integrate these programs with teachers’ training sessions so that they can equip themselves to counter the modern challenges (Haddad, 2003). Various developed countries of the world take the initiative to educate their teachers and mentors, so that they can be able to utilize CAITM based tutorials and make their pupils convenient while teaching them (Uko & Ebute, 2013; Cheng, 2021).
The tutorials mode of Computer assisted instructions performs a very crucial role from KG level to tertiary level (Van Daal & Reitsma, 2000). These not only educate and demonstrate concepts but also remediate mistakes of the learners (Kara & Yakar, 2009). Creswell (2003) revealed “some program enabled the students in learning fundamental spectacle words and skill of phonics”. Similarly, some additional program such as increased fluency, word-prediction, and story-prediction may also be improved (Gunadi, 2012). The effectiveness of CAITM based tutorial might be used for academic projects, community projects and other educational projects.

While working with CAITM tutorials, students feel no restriction. They carry on with complete freedom. They never feel bored and upset. This is because of their involvement in the learning process (Tabassum, 2004). Usually, students learn the things by themselves with entire liberty and feel happy (Watson et al., 2009). The tutorials of CAITM have been designed in such a way that students do not need a teacher. They become teachers of their own (Pagram & Pagram, 2006). In the same way, computer assisted instructional tutorials have been designed in such a way that students keep themselves connected to the program. These tutorial-based activity always keep the students well motivated and to be on right path. If students commit a mistake, the tutorials help them to re-correct themselves by their own (Frederickson, Reed & Clifford, 2005).

The CAITM based program get the learners actively involved in instructional activities. They also help them to be interactive with their fellow students. Students may be able to solve their issues related to the subject material (Morris, 2001). The CAITM assisted learning tutorials encourage the pupils to develop critical thinking minds with analytical approach (Eom, 2012).

According to Akour, (2009) Watson was the founder of behaviourist school of thought. He believed that behaviour could be measured and can be changed. According to Dowling et al., (2013) the positive reinforcement plays a pivotal role to keep the students in touch voluntarily. The CAITM program may do the same. Computer based tutorials, ppt presentations, Educational videos, live examples and internet provisions are all positive reinforcers which help in strengthening the desired behavior of students.

Classical Conditioning is a behavioural theory which focuses that how an individual learns, that how to move a response from one stimulus to a previously neutral stimulus (Kareem, 2003). According to Boud and Middleton (2003) Pavlov disregarded the cognitivists’ sight of learning and said that fundamental learning principles are same for the animals and human beings. Computer assisted instruction in the form of tutorial mode (CAITM) is a learning technique that can provide assistance to the teachers to condition the learning tools for effective learning.

From the above discussion it has been revealed that CAITM tutorials have strong theoretical and empirical basis that can help students to save their study time and help to prepare their assignments and examinations (Selim, 2007). Hence the current study was entitled to investigate the effect of using computer assisted instructions in the
form of tutorial mode (CAITM) on the academic achievements of students in the subject of Pakistan Studies at elementary level.

Objective of the study
The objective of the study was;

i. To find out the effect of CAITM on the academic achievements of the eighth-grade students in the subject of Pakistan Studies.

Hypothesis of the study
H0 1: There might be no substantial variation between the mean scores of both the (CAITM based) experimental group and control group on academic achievements.

Significance of the study
The study may be very substantial for the teachers, educators and students. Teachers may be inspired by the study findings to engage their students throughout the teaching sessions and also enhance their motivational level. It might be very helpful in shifting the workload of teachers to Computer assisted tutorials and make their job convenient. Students may also own whatever they learn through CAITM based tutorials. The learning through CAITM based tutorials may have a long-lasting effect. The study might be helpful for the future researchers and explorers who are interested in this field. Educational policy makers may also take assistance from the research findings.

Method
This section consists of method and procedural part of the research study which was adopted by the researcher. Additionally, it elaborates the population and sample of the study, collection of data, analysis of data and the adopted procedure for the research study.

Population
The population of the study consisted of all the male and female students studying Pakistan Studies at elementary level in FGEI C/G Schools of Khyber Pakhtoonkhwa.

Sample
From FG Public School No.1 Risalpur Cantt, researcher selected forty male and female students of 8th grade as the sample of the study. The researcher further divided the proposed sample into two equivalent groups (experimental group and control group) on the bases of first bi-monthly test by using pair random sampling technique.

Design
The nature of the research study was experimental which involved two groups, experimental and control group. Farooq (2001) considered that post-test only equivalent group design would be appropriate to appraise the significance of the treatment which involved two equivalent groups such as experimental and control group. Therefore, the researcher adopted the post-test only equivalent group design for the treatment of data to measure the effectiveness of CAITM.
**Research instrument**

With proper consultation of supervisor and subject expert, the researcher developed post-test as a research tool. Before going through the research experiment, the research tool was pilot tested. The teacher made post-test research tool was developed by the researcher with the consultation of subject experts and supervisor. The research instrument was pilot-tested before conducting research experiment.

**Procedure of the study**

Two teachers were selected to teach both the sample groups of students to conduct the research activity. One experienced subject specialist teacher was selected for control group. The experimental group was treated by the researcher himself. The students of experimental group were taught through CAITM based method whereas, the students of control group were taught through conventional lecture demonstration method.

CAITM based learning activities were based on thirty power point presentations lessons. Each ppt lesson consisted of text selected from the Pakistan Studies text book of 8th grade. All ppt lessons were installed in lab computers before start of activity session. The students were exposed to each lesson per day. They had to follow the given instructions regarding the CAITM programme. They had to open the programme and read the text. At the end of reading they had to solve MCQs section. Each MCQ had four possible options. Despite of one correct option, other options were hyperlinked with some extra information. If a student marked the incorrect option the CAITM programme would keep him on right path with some extra information about the marked option. In the entire activity, teacher kept himself in background as a supervisor.

The treatment of the study continued for six weeks. Experimental and control groups were exposed to same course of content at the same time in separate classrooms. Post-test activity was conducted after the completion of projected course. Data was gathered from both the groups for further treatment.

**Results**

After organizing the collected data, the researcher used statistical tools such as mean, standard deviation and independent sample t-test for data analysis. To measure the overall performances of the respondent groups, mean scores were calculated. For the measurement of difference between the experimental and control group, independent t-test was administered. The value of probability (p) was 0.05 for testing the hypotheses.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>S.D</th>
<th>S.ED</th>
<th>t-test</th>
<th>D-Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Control Group</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>53.55</td>
<td>3.05</td>
<td>1.06</td>
<td>9.05</td>
<td>3.26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exp Group.</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>63.50</td>
<td>3.53</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
COMPUTER ASSISTED INSTRUCTIONS

The inferential analysis of table 1 depicts that the elevated calculated values at 0.05 level of significance fall in favour of experimental group. Further the effect size of the treatment, 3.26 was also very high which shows a very high variation between the two means. Therefore, null hypothesis is rejected. It is revealed on the bases of appraised facts that there is a significant difference between the mean scores of experimental and control groups. The computer assisted instruction in the form of tutorial mode had a substantial effect on the academic achievements of the students as compare to the control group.

Discussion

H₀₁: The elevated t-value, 9.05 than table value, 2.042 at 0.05 level of significance, confirms the rejection of null hypothesis and favors the acceptance of the differences among the two groups caused by the application of computer assisted instruction in the form of tutorial mode to experimental group. Likewise, the elevated mean score (63.50) in academic performance of the experimental group supports the application of computer assisted instruction in the form of tutorial mode. This result of the study falls in favours of other studies like the findings of Van Daal & Reitsma (2000), that the tutorials mode of computer assisted instructions performs a very crucial role from KG level to tertiary level in academic performance. Further, good academic performance caused by the less mistakes in the tutorial mode of computer like the findings explored by the Frederickson, Reed & Clifford, (2005) that if students commit a mistake, the tutorials help them to re-correct themselves by their own. Their good performance may also be caused by critical thinking as explored by Eom, (2012) that The CAITM assisted learning tutorials encourage the pupils to develop critical thinking mind with analytical approach.

Conclusions

The post-test scores revealed that the participants of the experimental group performed better than that of the control group, and support of empirical studies is an indication of the effectiveness of computer assisted instruction in the form of tutorial mode (CAITM) in the subject of Pakistan Studies at elementary. Both male and female participants of the experimental group performed well as compared to the control group on the post-test scores which was a noticeable sign that CAITM had a significant effect on students’ performance in the subject of Pakistan Studies.

Recommendations

The following recommendations were made on the basis of findings and conclusion of the study:

1. The study showed that the computer assisted instruction in the form of tutorial mode had a significant effect on the academic achievements at elementary level. So, it is suggested that computer assisted instructions in the form of tutorial mode may be in incorporated in teaching learning process at elementary level schools.

2. Application of CAITM based program had confirmed considerable results in the subject of Pakistan Studies. To explore more credibility of CAITM, it is therefore, recommended that this technique may be applied for teaching of other subjects.

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3. The CAITM based teaching program was executed in well-equipped computer lab which made the students well motivated and involved. Their performance revealed the fact that well equipped computer lab is essential for every school. It is therefore, suggested that well equipped computer laboratories would be installed in every elementary level school.

4. The study was carried out at elementary level students. The results were significant. Thus, to explore in depth understanding of the CAITM, it is suggested that this teaching learning program may be launched at secondary and tertiary-level.

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Islamising Pakistan: The Constitutional Contours

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There had been a lot of debate in Pakistan over the nature of its constitution when it got independence from the British rule in 1947. Islamic parties such as JamiatUlama-i-Islam and Jamat-i-Islami demanded that the constitution of Pakistan should be an Islamic one. However, there existed ambiguity over the form of Islamic constitution as there was no pre-existing model. This article show what an Islamic constitution meant for them and how did their idea of Islamic Constitution evolve? It has taken up the Islamisation of the constitution of Pakistan in three phases i.e., period of concessions and compromises for the first constitution (1956), strategic retreat of the Islamic Parties in the second constitution (1962) and sharpening the pencils again for the third constitution (1973).

Keywords: Islamisation, Constitution, Sharia, Ulama, JamiatUlama-i-Islam (JUI), Jamat-i-Islami (JI)

Islamic Parties and the Concept of Islamic Constitution

The partition of India in 1947 put an end to the British Indian Empire and resulted in the establishment of a new state called Pakistan. Muhammad Ali Jinnah (1876-1948), the founder of Pakistan during the road to independence had canvassed support on the basis of Islam. He tried to win over Ulama and Mashaikh during the election campaign of 1945-6, had made various promises and had implied that Pakistan would be made an Islamic State (Shah, 1999). He succeeded in getting support from a faction of JamiatUlama-i-Hind (JUH) (Mian, 1945) who founded JamiatUlama-i-Islam (JUI) in 1945 with Maulana Shabir Ahmed Usmani (1887-1949) as its first president (Duliphala, 2015).

Another political party was Jamat-i-Islami (JI) which was staunchly against the creation of Pakistan. It was established in 1940 by Abu A’ala Maududi (1903-1979) (Nasr, 1996). He believed that Muslims were not just a nation rather they stood for a single ideology and principle. Therefore, if they struggled for their ideological livelihood instead of national safeguard and interests then not only, they could survive but it was possible that they could turn Hindustan into Dar-ul-Islam (Maududi, 2014).

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This article investigates the role of two religio-political parties JUI and JI in Islamising the constitutions of Pakistan. It further sheds light upon the respective understandings of Islamic constitution by both the parties and how their different approaches towards constitution making have been harmonised. For this study, primary data has been utilized extensively both in Urdu and English. Indigenous sources have been incorporated in order to have an idea of the Islamic constitution from the perspective of both JUI and JI.

After partition Jinnah left it to the constituent Assembly to draft the constitution for the country (Debates, 1947). This set the stage for the future constitution making process. When the debate on the constitution making process began, both JUI and JI demanded that the future constitution of the country should be Islamic. They premised their argument on the basis that India was partitioned because Pakistan was created in the name of Islam (Rauf, 2020).

As there was no pre-existing framework of an Islamic Constitution, therefore, they presented their own model of an Islamic Constitution (Maududi, 2002). Their model was comprised of nine broad sections. Namely, Sovereignty should belong to Allah, obedience to Prophet Muhammad (PBUH) should be in word and spirit, ‘no law should be against the Quran and Sunnah’, the form of government should be Khilafat (Maududi, 2002). The objective of the government should be to enforce ‘Amr bilma’rufwanahia nilmunkar’ (command what is right and forbid what is wrong), there should be a Shura (parliament), the principle of election should be adopted, the head of state should be assigned with the administrative powers and can only be among Muslims and should be male as female cannot become the head of state (Maududi, 2011). Lastly, they listed the fundamental rights which included the right to life, property, honour and freedom of religious practices, education and the independence of Judiciary.

This was the model of the Islamic Constitution which both JUI and JI espoused and demanded that the Constituent Assembly should work on and frame a constitution keeping in view the above-mentioned points.

Concessions and Compromises
It took two years for the Constituent Assembly of Pakistan to start working on formulating the constitution and it did so only when at the end of 1948 it was reported that the Indian constitution was presented to its Parliament (Binder, 1961). On 25 February 1949, the Muslim League Parliamentary Party met in complete secrecy to discuss the basic aims and objectives of the future constitution of Pakistan (Binder, 1961). The draft of the Objectives Resolution was prepared by Maulana Shabir Ahmed Usmani and Maulana Zafar Ahmed Khan Ansari and was then sent to Multan jail for consultation with Abula’la Maududi (Tufail, 2014) and on 7 March 1949 submitted the Objectives Resolution to the Constituent Assembly, which stated that the sovereignty belongs to Allah, exercise of State power through chosen representatives, enabling of Muslims to order their lives in… accord with… Holy Quran and the Sunna, the freedom to profess and practice the religion by minorities, protection of fundamental rights and independence of the judiciary (Debates, 1949).
Both JUI and JI were happy enough that they had secured enormous success and it was a great leap forward in the formulation of an Islamic constitution. Maulana Shabir Ahmed Usmani in his speech staunchly supported the resolution and said, ‘This Objectives Resolution is not a challenge to the world’, he refuted the idea of a theocratic state (Debates, 1949). It meant to him that the state was neither theocratic nor despotic or autocratic but it had the delegated powers of God and was run by man but would use its powers within the limits prescribed by Him (Debates, 1949). About minorities he expressed that they might have a place in the administrative machinery but could not be entrusted with the policy making authority (Debates, 1949). However, he was of the opinion, ‘It is the duty of an Islamic State to fully safeguard the lives, property, honour, religious freedom and civic rights of all loyal non-Muslims within its jurisdiction’ (Debates, March, Vol. 5. No. 03, 1949, P.6). The debate concluded on 12 March 1949 and the resolution was passed.

Jamat-i-Islami on the same day summoned its session of its central executive committee and passed the resolutions in favour of the Objectives Resolution. In these resolutions, Jamat ‘thanked God’ that the Constituent Assembly of Pakistan had ultimately passed the Objectives Resolution (Ahmed, 2011). By that resolution, according to the central committee, Pakistan had acquired the qualification to be called an Islamic State. The committee demanded that on the basis of the Objectives Resolution an Islamic Constitution should be established and Ulama and intellectuals should be taken onboard in this regard (Ahmed, 2011).

The Objectives Resolution was considered as the achievement of JUI and Jamat-i-Islami as it had somehow accepted the basic demands of both Maududi and Usmani. However, in reality, the words of the resolution were ambiguous and its interpretation varied among the religious class and the secular leadership of that time. For instance, the word ‘Islam’ was large enough to be understood by modernists and traditionalists in different ways. Secondly, the term ‘Sharia’ was non-existent in the resolution and instead ‘Quran and Sunnah’ were to be used as the sources through which the lives of Muslims were to be ordered in individual and collective spheres. It is quite interesting that Quran and Sunnah are thought to comprehensive sources yet they need interpretation thus it meant that both the sources were aimed to provide the directive principles (Ahmed, 2011).

After the adoption of the Objectives Resolution, the Basic Principles Committee was formed and in April 1949 this committee met and came to the conclusion that it would be further divided into sub-committees that would report back to the parent committee (Binder, 1961). The main problem which the committee faced was that whether the Objectives Resolution was to be included in the main clauses or should it serve a ‘general guide’ in the working of the government. Resultantly Board of Talimat-i-Islamia (BTI) was established to ‘advise on matters arising out of the Objectives Resolution’ (Binder, 1961, P. 156).

The BTI was asked to give its opinion on Head of the State and its election, powers, constitution and function of the legislature, on the question how to enable Muslims to order their lives according to Quran and Sunnah and the Emergency Laws (Binder, 1961).
The BTI in its ‘preliminary observations’ outlined the basis of its views. Those overture reflections were comprised of three points. Firstly, the Board declared Pakistan as an Ideological state, however, different from a ‘National State’. The main purpose of that declaration was to emphasize the importance of the ruling elite i.e., no one could be entrusted with the authority who did not believe in the ideology of Islam. Secondly, the Board showed its readiness to change or alter its views once a complete picture of the constitution was presented to the Board and thirdly, any law, bill or ordinance was to be rejected by the committee of experts on Sharia if it militated against Sharia (Binder, 1961).

The qualifications for the Head of State proposed by the BTI were that ahead of the State of Pakistan should be ‘a Muslim male’, of sound mind, ‘not blind or dumb or deaf’, of ‘40 years of age’, ‘learned and virtuous in terms of Sharia’, ‘wise and sagacious’, ‘got mental poise and was not a captive of a foreign government’ (Binder, 1961). The Board suggested that ‘the head of state should be elected for life time’, if necessary for five years, however, with the condition that ‘he could be removed at any time in accordance with the principle of Sharia’. For the election of the Head of state, the Board suggested that he could be elected by the representatives of people and in that case, the federal houses could do that job. The best suited process of election, suggested by the Board was the process of elimination of names (Binder, 1961).

On legislature, the BTI argued, ‘the real function of any properly constituted legislature is to enact and enforce the commands and injunctions of Allah and His Prophet’ (Binder, 1961, P. 406) The members were required to be learned in the laws of Islam, had Islamic character, were morally sound and were of 25 years of age. While for the non-Muslims it was mandatory that they must have not repudiated the ideology of Pakistan and for women the role was minimized as only a woman of 50 years of age and observing purdah (veil) were suggested to be eligible to the membership of the legislature (Binder, 1961).

The propositions of the Board of Talimat-i-Islamia(BTI) clearly reflected the endeavour of Ulama to transform the state of Pakistan and its constitution into a model of early Caliphate which they called the Rashidoon(Rightly Guided 632-660 A.D) but at the same time tried to adjust it to the needs of modern times. The major focus on the Head of state indicates that during the early Caliphate, the Caliph of Islam was the centre of power. The qualifications for the head of the State were taken from the medieval sources that looked towards the early days of Islam. The BTI had further proposed the ‘Committee of Experts in Sharia’. The purpose of this committee was to operate superior to parliament and define the boundaries of Sharia and its advice was supposed to be binding.

The Interim Report of BPC came as shock to the religious section of the country. There was nothing as Islamic in the ‘Memorandum on Federal and Provincial Constitutions and Distributions of Powers’. Furthermore, the enabling clause of the Objectives Resolution was treated as non-practical as the report stated, ‘It is not possible to enumerate the details of such activities in the Constitution’ (Debates, BPC Report 1,
1950, P. 16) i.e., ‘of ordering the lives according to Quran and Sunnah’. However, the teaching of the Quran was proposed to be made compulsory.

Reacting to the interim report Jamat-i-Islami, on 5 October 1950 Maulana Maududi issued a statement that the Constituent Assembly was even not competent enough to formulate a democratic constitution least an Islamic one. JI further demanded that a new directly elected Constituent Assembly should be established based on adult franchise that would formulate an Islamic Constitution (Ahmed, 2011). In order to pressurize the government, Jamat-i-Islami decided to hold public processions and in his speech on 14 October 1950 Maududi said; ‘in these recommendations…there is not a single word that would mean that in this country the commandments of Allah and his Prophet, are accepted as a Final Authority’ (Saulat, 1987).

JUI also protested against the interim report of BPC and vigorously criticized it. Mufi Shafisaid, ‘the People of Pakistan rightly felt perturbed to find that these reports are totally void of any provision for the positive requirement of Islam and many of their contents are given against Islam and against the Objectives Resolution’ (Dawn, 1950.).

After confronting severe opposition, the consideration of the BPC report was postponed and Liaquat Ali Khanasked to offer suggestions for ‘the basic principles of the constitution’ (Debates, Vol. VIII, No. 6, 1950) to submit their recommendations. As a response to the invitation of the Prime Minister to submit suggestion to the BPC, JUI convened a Ulama conference from 21 to 24 January 1951 and declared that the BPC report did not concur with the Islamic Principles (Maududi, 1950). The convention prepared a draft of the twenty-two fundamental principles of an Islamic state. The purpose of this draft was to provide a general framework for an Islamic constitution while on the other hand it was aimed to show that there was unanimity among the different sects over an Islamic Constitution.

The twenty-two points mainly revolved around three main aspects. The first section included Salient points regarding the Sovereignty of Allah, the clause of repugnancy, Islamic Ideology against territorial nationalism and establishing Millat-i-Islamiah (the nation of Islam) by making bonds with the Islamic world. The second part of the rights of the citizens included the basic necessities of life i.e., ‘food shelter security and property’, equality before the law, religious freedom according to their respective sects and religious and personal freedom to non-Muslims. The third portion relating to governance largely focused on the head of State and its powers. Judiciary was to be independent, civil servants were not to be given extra privileges and rights and lastly ‘no interpretation of the constitution in conflict with Quran and Sunnah was to be accepted as valid’ (JUI, 2013).

After taking the recommendations from various group the BPC submitted its second report to the Constituent Assembly on 22 December 1952 (Debates, 1952). The report embodied the Objectives Resolution as its preamble to future constitution. The directive principles of State Policy were more elaborate and had Islamic content in it. It elaborated specifically the steps ‘to enable Muslims to order their lives in accordance
Khan, Essa, Ullah

with Quran and Sunnah’. That included the facilities for the ‘teaching of the Holy Quran’, ‘prohibition of drinking’, ‘gambling’, ‘prostitution’, ‘elimination of Riba’ (usury), and ‘promotion of Islamic moral standards and organization of zakat’, ‘waqf and Mosques’ (Debates, 1952). It ensured that ‘steps would be taken for bringing the existing laws into conformity with Islamic Principles’. It had the repugnancy clause i.e. ‘No Legislature should enact any law which is repugnant to the Holy Quran and the Sunnah’ (Debates, 1952).

In response to the second BPC report, Ulama who had participated in the conference of 1951 convened again on 11 January 1953 to propose certain amendments and suggestions (Ulama’s Amendments to BPC Report, 1953). Ulama demanded that the teaching of Quran and the subject of Islamiyat be made compulsory, and proposed the amendment that all intoxication would be eliminated within three years. Ulama exacted that all laws should be brought in to conformity within five years and arrangements should be made to codify all the commandments of Quran with respect to the different schools of thought. The Convention also demanded that ‘the propagation of atheism and infidelity and the insulting or ridiculing of the Holy Quran or the Sunnah be prohibited through legislation’. Ulama further stressed that not only no legislation should be against Quran and Sunnah but also Quran and Sunnah must be accepted as the chief source of legislation (Ulama’s Amendments to BPC Report, 1953).

They demanded that five Ulama well versed in Islamic Law should be appointed to the Supreme Court who would decide ‘whether or not the law in dispute is in conformity with Quran and Sunnah’. Similarly, money bills were required to be brought under that condition within five years and the name of Pakistan should be Jamhuria-i-Islamiyah Pakistan (Ulama’s Amendments to BPC Report, 1953). They also demanded that Ahmadis should be declared as non-Muslims and one seat in the central legislature should be reserved for them.

Meanwhile, on 17 April 1953 Governor General Ghulam Muhammad dissolved the ministry of Khwaja Nazim-u-Din (1951-53) on the Pretext that ‘it had lost the confidence of the people’. The Constituent Assembly took almost another year to finalize the constitution making process and on 21 September 1954 adopted the third report of Basic Principles Committee (Debates, 1954).

BPC in its third report accepted making the teaching of only Holy Quran compulsory. It suggested that the Quran and Sunnah could be given Legislative effect ‘duly safeguarding the personal laws of non-Muslims’. The Quran and Sunnah were not accepted as the chief sources of law but it was conceded that where ever the expressions Quran and Sunnah occurred it would be accepted according to that particular sect in relation to which the expressions were used. Supreme Court was entrusted with the interpretation of the Islamic law, to be decided by full bench of five judges not necessarily Muftis. The financial matters were to be decided by a commission after 25 years in order to be brought under the repugnancy clause. In the third report the name of
the state was proposed as the ‘Islamic Republic of Pakistan’. The declaration of Ahmadis as non-Muslims was not accepted (Debates, 1954).

From the above discussion it is clear that there was huge difference between the Interim Report and the adopted report of the Basic Principles Committee. The former did not debate Islam in detail while the later had incorporated much of the Islamic content proposed by the unified religious section that included almost all sects and religious-political parties of the country. Jamat-i-Islami in its party meeting held on 9-12 October 1954 reiterated that they considered a constitution an Islamic one in which the sovereignty of God and, in principle, the standard verdict of Quran and Sunnah had been recognized. Therefore; the shura of JI requested the public to pressurize the government to pass the constitution draft timely and enforce it within that year (Ahmed, ed., 2014). Mufti Shafi, the president of JUI also called upon the public to celebrate 22 October 1954 as the Islamic Constitution Day and pressed that the constitution be enforced without any delay (Dawn, 1954).

The constituent Assembly, before the adoption of the constitution was dissolved on 24 October 1954 by General Ghulam Muhammad. When the Constituent Assembly was dissolved there was a short period of judicial struggle in which Maulana Tameez-ud-din speaker of the dissolved assembly filed a case against the dissolution of CAP in Sindh High Court that ruled in favour while the federal court ruled against and upheld the decision of the dissolution of the Constituent Assembly of Pakistan. When the assembly was dissolved and its legislation was considered as null and void it caused legal turmoil in the country and when the Governor General tried to handle the issue through emergency decrees, the Federal Court overruled it thus the Governor General had to appoint a new Constituent Assembly thus in this way the second Constituent Assembly was set up on 28 May 1955.

The newly elected Prime Minister Chaudhry Muhammad Ali (1955-56) worked for formation of the constitution and presented its draft in the Constituent Assembly was adopted on 29 February 1956 and was enforced on 23 March 1956.

When the Constitution of 1956 was adopted, it was hailed by the religious groups with some criticism as there were following major gains i.e., the Sovereignty of Allah, ‘the name of the country to be Islamic Republic of Pakistan’, ‘Head of State to be a Muslim’, ‘promotion of Islamic principles’, ‘Organization for Islamic Research and instruction’ and the ‘Repugnancy Clause’ (Mahmud, ed., 1975). When the constitution was adopted in its statement JI thanked God that after long period the future constitution of Pakistan was settled and it was announced that the constitution was accepted by Jamat-i-Islami (Ahmed, 1964).

JUI declared the adoption of the 1956 Constitution as a ‘great victory’ against the secularists (Kamal, 2006). However; JUI also criticized the Constitution of 1956 as, ‘an Islamic State which embody the Islamic injunctions, Islamic way of life and Islamic Ideology, in it the right to vote, the right to legislate and the right to the membership of ministries can only be awarded to those who are Muslims and have the veracious desire to run the affairs of the state according to it’ (Qureshi, ed., 2017, P. 135).
The whole process of Islamising constitution that spread over nine years after independence shows a pattern of continuous concessions by Muslim League to the Islamist parties along with compromises made by the religio-political parties. As the state of Pakistan had little common in national and cultural values so the only factor remained that could tie up the whole country was Islam. That’s why the Muslim League Parliamentary party despite of being modernists, gave way to the Islamic rhetoric and Maududi learned that the Islamic Parties could play the role of power broker (Nasr, 1994). On the other hand JUI was in alliance with Muslim League; Shabir Ahmed Usmani was in the Constituent Assembly and ‘did not want to see the modernists conduct their experiments unsupervised in what Liaquat Ali Khan had referred to as a laboratory’ (Zaman, 2018). Since, in general terms, all the Islamic parties wanted an Islamic Constitution, therefore, their interests aligned and it was easy for them to cooperate with each other. Thus, they joined hands and responded collectively to the complete constitutional process. When the unity was shown by the religious section the pressure on the government rose and it can be seen that the amendments proposed by Ulama after the second BPC report were incorporated in the third report and later on in the constitution of 1956.

**Strategic Retreat of Ulama**

There was continuous political instability in Pakistan after the assassination of Liaquat Ali Khan in 1951. This, however, did not end after the promulgation of 1956 constitution. Power remained in the hands of the then President General Iskandar Mirza (1955-58) and the overtly powerful Commander in Chief General Ayub Khan. On 7 October 1958 General Iskandar Mirza called the armed forces, declared martial law and appointed General Ayub Khan as the Chief Martial Law Administrator. All political activities were banned and political parties were not allowed to function till Martial Law remained imposed. On 27 October 1958 Ayub Khan pushed Iskandar Mirza out and assumed undisputed power.

The imposition of martial law was a blow to the efforts of the Islamic Parties which they had undertaken for an Islamic Constitution. It was so because Ayub Khan shared much with the modernists in his understanding of Islam (Zaman, 2018). Pakistan, according to Ayub, was divided on many issues but more than anything it was the ‘irreconcilable nature of the forces of science and reason and the forces of dogmatism and revivalism’ (Khan, 1967).

In his speech to the Ulama in Dar-ul-UlumIslamiah, TandoAllahyar Sindh, Ayub said that Islam was a ‘progressive religion’ but a great distance had come to separate religion and life (Zaman, 2018). Therefore; the constitution envisaged by Ayub for Pakistan was to be ‘democratic’ and in that, Pakistan according to its own circumstances, had to work out for the application of the Islamic principles. For that purpose, *Ijma* was the only method to be adopted (Khan, 1967). President Ayub wanted a constitution to be based on his ‘enlightened’ ideas.

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President Ayub announced on 17 February, 1960 of setting up a commission for the constitution under Justice Shahabuddhin (Khan, 1967). The commission after consultation submitted its report to the president, who did not agree with its recommendations therefore, he came up with his own plan which was drafted by Manzur Qadir and was implemented on 1 March, 1962.

The new constitution clearly reflected the mind of Ayub Khan who was not ready to entertain any religious group by accepting their claims. He left the question of ideology to be discussed and interpreted by the members of the legislature (Gauhar, 1993). In the preamble, sovereignty belonged to Allah…and the authority was exercisable by the people as sacred trust…Muslims were to be enabled to order their lives according to Islam (Mahmud, ed., 1975). In it the words ‘within the limits prescribed by Him’ and ‘as set out in the Holy Quran and Sunnah’ were omitted. The Constitution named the country as the Republic of Pakistan (Mahmud, ed., 1975. the word ‘Islamic’ was dropped. The president was required to be a Muslim. Advisory Council of Islamic Ideology and the Islamic Research Institute were established. The Advisory Council was required to make recommendations to the central and the provincial governments as means to enable the Muslims of Pakistan to order their lives in accordance with the basic principles of Islam. The research Institute was to conduct Islamic research ‘for the purpose of assisting in the reconstruction of Muslim Society on truly Islamic basis’ (Mahmud, 1975). The constitution faced severe criticism when it was promulgated. There was a ban on all kinds of political activities yet there were agitations. Therefore, as soon as the political activities were restored both JI and JUI took no time to criticize the government and the constitution. Maududi in his speech at Mauchi Darwaza Lahore stated that in the present constitution all regressive elements are included and those terms are avoided that may reflect the meaning of freedom and democracy (Tufail, 2014). Jamat-i-Islami passed the resolution on 6 August, 1962 in which it declared the constitution with the perspective of Islam as a ‘disappointment’. The party criticized the government that it had dropped the word Islamic from the name of the country, Ribawas interpreted as usury and laws were not to be against Islam and the use of the words of Quran and Sunnah were evaded (Ahmed, 2014). It was not mentioned in the constitution, the resolution stated, that the existing laws will be conformed to Quran and Sunnah. Due to the stated reasons, it was not acceptable to the Jamat, however, it had no option other than to bear with it (Ahmed, 2014).

All the political parties including JUI and JI held the view that once the political parties were restored then the constitution could be amended to suit it to the democratic norms and Islamic principles (Ahmed, 2014). Thus within two years of its promulgation the National Assembly passed first amendment on 10 January 1964 (Mahmud, ed., 1975) by virtue of which the Preamble of the constitution was amended. In it the words, ‘within the limits prescribed by Him’, and ‘as set out in Holy Quran and Sunnah’ were added (Ahmed, 2014). The name of the state was reversed back to the ‘Islamic Republic of Pakistan and repugnancy clause was inserted back into the constitution.
By virtue of the amendment the Islamic Provisions that lacked in the constitution were brought back. This showed the recognition of the influence of Ulama. It was also a political tool used by Ayub as he had decided to enter the political arena (Zaman, 2018). The response to the abrogation of the Constitution of 1956 and the promulgation of the 1962 constitution shows interesting political behaviour of bothJI and JUI. Both the religio-political parties showed great flexibility in accepting the ‘less Islamic’ constitution as compulsion. Apart from this fact, it also reflects the behaviour of religio political parties that they made compromises in changing circumstances.

**Sharpening the Pencils and the Formulation of 1973 Constitution**

The constitution of 1962 remained in force till president Ayub remained in power. It was abrogated by Yahya Khan (1917-1980) on 28 March 1970. Elections were held in December 1970, which were the very first elections based on adult franchise. JUI nominated ninety candidates for the national assembly in West Pakistan and fifteen in East Pakistan. Only seven returned to the Assembly and Mufti Mahmud defeated Z. A. Bhutto from Dera Ismail khan (Pirzada, 2000). On the other hand only four candidates of JI returned to the assembly. The election results showed complete East and West divide in which Awami League of Sheikh Mujib-ur-Rehman had won 160 out of 162 seats of East Pakistan and did not secure a single seat in West Pakistan. In West Pakistan the Pakistan People’s Party won 81 seats and emerged as the majority party in West Pakistan (Pirzada, 2000). As a result Awami League secured the majority and Z. A Bhutto wanted to have a share in the government to which Awami League was not prepared. This led to the political chaos and ended up as an armed struggle of Bengalis and subsequent military operation by Pakistan military forces and ultimately a war with India in which Pakistan was defeated and East Pakistan became Bangladesh. On 20 December 1971 Yahya Khan resigned and handed over the power to Zulfikar Ali Bhutto. The history of old Pakistan was over and Bhutto assumed the reigns of New Pakistan.

The most arduous task that laid ahead was the formulation of a constitution. Bhutto in his maiden speech declared Pakistan as an ‘Islamic State’ and stated that the state system would run on the basis of Socialism. Mufti Mahmud welcomed the transfer of power and demanded the summoning of the session of the Assembly, adoption of the Constitution and founding the Constitution on the Holy Quran and Sunnah (Hussain, 2006). However, JI called for the formulation of the new Constitution and fresh elections should be held afterwards (Ahmed, 2014).

The Assembly Session was called on 14 April 1972 and the Interim Constitution was adopted on 17 April 1972. Presenting the Constitution Mia Muhammad Ali Qasuri, the Law Minister stated that they had made every effort to make that Interim Constitution ‘a document worthy of, and acceptable to an honourable dignified sovereign state’ (Debates, 1972). Responding to the law minister, Maulana Ghulam GhausHazarvi of JUI stated that ‘country cannot become an Islamic Republic by merely pronouncing it so and similarly a Constitution cannot become Islamic by only calling it so, unless special provision is made therein for Islamic tenets, commandments and prohibitions and for the Islamic teachings’ (Debates, 1972). He emphasized that ‘the definition of Muslim shall
be inserted in the constitution and Islam be declared as the official religion of the state’ (Debates, 1972, PP. 216-17). Mufti Mahmud in his speech pointed out that the country was neither Islamic nor democratic but in order to get rid of martial law, he had to support the Interim Constitution, however; he also demanded that Islam be declared as the official religion of the state (Debates, 1972). He also criticized the clause of Freedom of Religion which gave independence to Muslims to adopt any faith which was against the instructions of the Prophet (PBUH) (Debates, 1972).

Professor Ghafoor Ahmad of JI, complained that the amendments to the Interim Constitution did not include any of the amendment proposed by ‘them’ (JI) (Debates, 1972). The amendments proposed by Ghafoor Ahmed included the inclusion of provisions relating to Islam in the operative clauses, establishment of an ‘effective machinery’ by virtue of which the present laws could be brought in to conformity with Quran and Sunnah within a fixed period. On the same day the Interim Constitution was put to vote, adopted and enacted ‘to remain in force until the constitution is framed by this Assembly’ (Debates, 1972).

A twenty-five member constitution committee was formed in order to report on the future constitution (Debates, 1972). The Constitution Committee presented its proposals in the National Assembly on 31 December 1972. On 2 February 1973 the constitutional bill was introduced in the National Assembly while on 17 February 1973 it was taken in to consideration by the House. The debate continued till 10 April on which the final and permanent Constitution for the country was adopted and passed and signed by members of the constituent Assembly (Debates, 1973). The president gave his assent on 12 April and was promulgated on 14 August 1973.

The Constitution of 1973 was a compromise document among the political parties after the breakup of Pakistan. It started with the Objectives Resolution as its Preamble with few additions, (Mahmud,1975).it named the country as the Islamic Republic of Pakistan, declared Islam as the official religion, teaching of the Holy Quran and Islamiat were to be made compulsory, state had to facilitate the teaching of Arabic language, had ‘to secure and exact printing and publishing of the Holy Quran’. (Mahmud, 1975). The 1973 constitution required the President to be a Muslim, all existing laws were to be brought in conformity with the Holy Quran and Sunnah and no law was to be repugnant to such injunctions, the Council of Islamic Ideology was to be established to advise that whether a proposed law was or not repugnant to the injunctions of Islam (Mahmud, 1975). Presidents and Prime Ministers were required to take oath that they were ‘Muslimsbelieved in Oneness of Almighty Allah, the Books of Allah, the Holy Quran being the last of them, the Prophet hood of Muhammad (peace be upon him) as the last of the Prophets and there can be no Prophet after him, the Day of Judgment and all the requirements and teachings of the Holy Quran and Sunnah’ and ‘strive to preserve the Islamic Ideology’ (Mahmud, 1975).

The journey from the failure of the Constitution of 1956 to the promulgation of the third constitution in1973, the religio-political parties showed quite a pragmatic and flexible behaviour. The rock-ribbed notions of Islamism and Islamic Constitution went
through many transformations. Firstly, immediately after the imposition of Martial law in 1958 the religio-political parties adopted a soft or rather evasive attitude towards the formulation of the constitution of 1962. They did not protest over the abrogation of the first constitution and their views were not incorporated in the second constitution, yet they accepted it. The only reason was that they did not have the power to counter Ayub through any political means, thus they made a choice and received what was given to them by the military regime and waited for the time to make changes to the constitution, which they did and brought back the Islamic content through the first Amendment.

Secondly the political instability at the end of Ayub regime to the Fall of Dhaka in 1971, religio-political parties concluded that it was the failure of the state of Pakistan to implement Islamic Ideology that’s why the country broke up and then onwards started to demand the inclusion of their demands in the constitution of 1973 more forcefully. Thirdly after the separation of East Pakistan, Awami League no longer existed so it gave a chance to the religio-political parties to play a greater role in the national politics, therefore; JUI emerged as the third largest party in the country. The religio-political parties not only made gains by binding the government to promulgate Islamic Laws within the two years of receiving the report from the Council of Islamic Ideology but also contributed in bringing constitutional stability to Pakistan.

Conclusion
In the constitutional history of Pakistan, religio-political parties have effectively worked for Islamising the Constitution because they succeeded in romanticizing the notion of Islamic Constitution among the general public (Rais, 2017). There is a pattern of unity in that respect i.e., both JUI and JI have worked together to Islamise the Constitution of Pakistan. That fraternization has always remained multi-facet. Both the parties came close to each other on many occasions because they needed it. Such as in the primal days JI had no representative and JUI had only Shabir Ahmed Usmani in the Constituent Assembly who voiced for the Islamic Constitution. JI had to bring the issue of the Constitution in public and in order to pressurize the government Maududi used public pressure. In addition to that for the purpose of effectiveness, Ulama needed a singularity of opinion. Thus, they always came close together in the first decade after and unanimously reacted at each stage of constitution making.

The Second common pattern is the discussion over the notion of ‘Islam’ itself. Both religio-political parties agreed on the fact that Pakistan was made in the name of Islam and Islamic System had to be implemented. However, the approach towards the implementation of Islam varied as JI with Maududi called itself not merely a political party but a revivalist movement that was established to revive Islam and to build a community of pious who would then rule the land of pure and would implement Islam in each and every walk of life. This would then give way to the establishment of pure Islamic government. JI viewed that only the implementation of Political Islam was not enough rather it was the last step and before that the society had to be Islamised.
JUI had, however, a different approach in implementing Islam in Pakistan. JUI had its roots from Jamiat Ulama-i-Hind (JUH) which was the party of Deobandi Ulama established in 1919. And the institution to which it was associated, Deoband, was established in 1866. It had been working for almost eight decades and it had its own system of Tabligh (preaching) and Madrassa. Therefore, when Pakistan got independence, JUI argued that it only needed the implementation of Islamic law and appointing a body of Ulama that would look if any law was repugnant to Quran and Sunnah.

Another common pattern in which the religio-political parties built relation with each other regarding the Islamisation of the constitution is historical learning. This process of learning enabled JUI and JI to adjust its views and claims with the changing circumstances. JI wanted to implement the Islamic Constitution but stayed out of electoral Politics for time being and later decided to join it. Similarly, the Ulama of JUI, when they were appointed in the Board of Talimat-i-Islamia (BTI) gave proposals for the government on the pattern of early Islamic Caliphate but later on they agreed to the 3rd BPC Report in which there was very less content of the suggestions of the BTI. The historical learning also made the religio-political parties understand that once few demands were accepted, new proposals were to be made. This process went through out the history of Constitutional development.

Islam remained an important political factor in the national politics of Pakistan, therefore, it gave the religio-political parties a chance to use it in their favour for Islamising the Constitutions. The breakup of Pakistan in 1971 was used by the religio-political parties to claim that it was a proof that without implementing the Ideology of Islam, Pakistan could not survive and the parochial, ethnic and linguistic identities were against the solidarity of the country. This notion affected the constitution of 1973 to a greater extent and thus the Islamic content was increased in it.

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**Dawn** (5 Nov 1950).


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