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[HUMANITIES]



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LAHORE



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# JOURNAL OF RESEARCH IN HUMANITIES



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## CONTENTS

	Page
I. A STUDY OF OCCUPATIONAL VALUES AND ORGANIZATIONAL ATTRACTIVENESS	<i>Dr. A. R. Jafari</i> .. 1
II. COLONIALISM AND THE COLD WAR : THE LIMITS OF CON- TEMPORARY HISTORY	<i>Dr. Sadiq A. Gill</i> .. 45
III. D. H. LAWRENCE'S VISION : IN- TEGRITY AND WHOLENESS OF AN INDIVIDUAL	<i>Dr. Zahir J. Khattak</i> .. 65
IV. CONTRIBUTION OF VARIOUS MOTIVATIONAL FACTORS TO L2 LEARNING AND APPLICABILITY OF SOME OF THEM IN ESL SITU- ATION OF PAKISTAN	<i>Sarfraz Khan Chaudhry</i> .. 73
V. DEVELOPMENT OF UNIVERSITY TEACHERS	<i>Dr. Munawar Mirza</i> .. 87



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## A STUDY OF OCCUPATIONAL VALUES AND ORGANIZATIONAL ATTRACTIVENESS

Dr. A. R. JAFRI

It is a matter of common observation that the selection of a particular kind of work has important implications, both for the individual and for the total society. Every society must somehow arrange to get people to do what has to be done in order to enable the society to survive and prosper.<sup>1</sup> It must distribute its human resources both in quality and quantity effectively to satisfy the societal needs. From the view point of the individual, work will importantly influence diverse aspects of his life. The individual's status in the community, based on the esteem in which his people hold him, will largely depend on the work he does and how well he does it. This evaluation by others will be reflected in the mirror of his mind to influence the individual's evaluation of himself; thus, his self-esteem or self-confidence will, to some extent, hinge upon his occupational choice and preferences. Furthermore, every individual has certain creative potentialities which find greater or lesser expression in work.

Part of the richness of human experience lies in our abilities to spend ourselves in an activity which challenges and draws out our highest potentialities.<sup>2</sup> Consequently, the chance of living a life characterized by productiveness, self-actualization, and self-fulfilment will depend to some extent on the degree to which our work allows us to exercise our creative potentialities.<sup>3</sup> The individual choosing an occupation, therefore, often does so with reference to a host of subsidiary wants which the extrinsic rewards of work can potentially satisfy.

Another way in which an individual's work will tend to affect his life is in the requirement to play a certain occupational role. To some extent the doctor or engineer must behave in a way which the society has defined



as appropriate for one occupying such a status. Thus, the individual who makes an occupational choice also commits himself to a certain pattern of thought and behavior for his future working career.

In many cases, if the role is sufficiently internalized, it may influence the entire personality structure. In addition, the individual's interaction with other human beings, which tends to be the source of most gratification, is influenced by the nature of his occupation.

It is obvious, then, that the individual's occupational choice has important implications both for society and for his future life activity and satisfaction. But, whenever an individual makes a decision, which is a process of selecting one alternative from a given number of alternatives, it is likely that some value is behind the decision. For a value is a "conception of the desirable."<sup>4</sup> Values are things "in which people are interested . . . things they want, desire to be or become, feel as obligatory, worship, enjoy."<sup>5</sup> When an individual chooses an occupation, he thinks there is something 'good' about it and this conception of 'good' is a part of an internalized mental structure which establishes priorities and preferences regarding what he wants out of his life.<sup>6</sup> To ask what an individual wants out of his work is, to a large extent, to ask what he wants out of his life. It is, therefore, indispensable to an adequate understanding of occupational appeal of a particular source of employment to consider what people want or consider good or desirable, for these are the essential criteria by which choices are made. But the domain of values is not as simple as it might appear, because human values are often inconsistent, conflicting, some times unrealistic and, as such, very subjective in character.

In many definitions of values proposed by sociologists and anthropologists, the common element lies in the recognition of values as an expression of the ultimate 'ends', 'goods', or purpose of social action.<sup>7</sup> Furthermore, values deal not so much with what is, but with what ought to be. In other words, they express moral or ethical imperatives. Because

of this normative nature, the study of values in the past has been confined within the realm of philosophy and metaphysics.

It was only after World War II that social scientists went beyond merely defining and discussing values and began actively to measure their nature and distribution.<sup>8</sup> One of the most complex and interesting efforts has been carried out by Florence Kluckhohn.<sup>9</sup> She began by defining certain basic "common human problems for which all people at all times must find some solution."<sup>10</sup> All societies, she maintained, "adopt some value position with regards to man's relation to other men, to nature, to time, and to activity."<sup>11</sup> She argued that all cultures had discovered much the same range of positions or alternatives one might take with regard to these life problems, but that different cultures placed different values on the various alternatives.<sup>12</sup>

Despite the ubiquitous nature of values, they form an indispensable part of human behaviour. They are guides to beliefs, attitudes, and actions, and as one writer has put it, without them a man is like a ship without a rudder.<sup>13</sup> Parsons has most ably worked out the interpenetrating and integrating relationship of values and social systems. He wrote :

The implication of the role of norms in the stability of system of social interaction can be generalized in two directions. The first of these concerns the consistence of the normative system governing the process of interaction. The primary reference point for the treatment of this problem is to be found in the goal-orientation of the individual members. For the normative system to be consistent, they need not within considerable limits pursue the same goals, but they must not, to too great a degree, pursue goals the attainment of which are mutually incompatible. A normative system, which can successfully define the conditions of stability of an interaction system, must include the definition of the goals to be pursued by interacting units in the system, at least to the extent of setting limits with reference to their mutual compatibility.<sup>14</sup>



Parsons further indicates :

There must be a generalized consistency of pattern in normative 'definition of situation' which include goal specifications, adaptive or institutional procedures, and inter-unit or integrated actions. It is as such a normative system generalized to include all these functional contacts of relevance that I should like to define the common value-system of a system of behavior. I have stated this in terms of the system of interaction. i.e., as a social system, but it applies equally to any system of action, i.e., it includes personality systems.<sup>15</sup>

The present study is, however, concerned with only one aspect of socially structured action system that related to the way in which people achieve their values concerning their occupational life through accepting organizational roles in the various sources of employment. This, then, requires us to understand the social and psychological dimensions of the processes of occupational choice. For this purpose we shall explore these dimensions in the next two sections of this study.

### PSYCHOLOGY OF WORK

Let us start with fundamentals. Why do people work? No question is more vital to society, as Hearnshaw points out : "A theory of work is basic to any industrial psychology of work."<sup>16</sup> A ready answer is that men work to earn a living. This reason seems so obvious and so sufficient that the inquiry often stops there. People do have to have money to purchase the necessities of life and the customary way to get money is to work for it. The logic seems compelling and it is supported by the authority of classical economists and their emphasis on economic man.<sup>17</sup> But many inquiries both casual and serious, have not been content to stop there, for economic motives are not enough to explain the cases where people do not need to work in order to have money for their necessities. Other reasons for working, therefore, exist.

Lists of human motives, of reasons for working, of why people like or dislike their jobs are many in number and varied in content. Each student or observer of human nature seems to have preferred his own classification, his own terminology, causing a great deal of confusion.<sup>18</sup> The discussion that follows does not, therefore, correspond exactly to that of any other writer on the subject. It does, however, include the investigations which have been reported by other students of work, organized here in what seems to this writer to be the most meaningful and simple way. It includes three major needs for which satisfaction is sought in work, human relations, work, and livelihood.

### Human Relations

People are happy when their relations with other people are satisfying. This does not necessarily mean that they are happiest when there are close or affectionate relations, nor that satisfying relationships are the cause of happiness, but only that people like whatever relations they do have with others to meet certain needs. Let us look at these 'human relations' needs.

Much of modern living is anonymous. People live, travel, work, and play together in large numbers. This amounts to a pattern of relationships based on mass identification without individual participation. As Roethlisberger and Dickson found in the '*Hawthorne Studies*'<sup>19</sup> and as Warner and Low showed in the '*Yankee City Study*'<sup>20</sup> depersonalization seems to be an increasingly common characteristic of the modern work situation, one which creates serious dissatisfaction in workers. The depersonalization is partly the product of the corporate nature of modern enterprise, both public and private, in part due to scope of present industrial, business, and government activity, and it results also from the increasingly large centralization of people in geographically small areas, the so-called metropolis. It often makes the individual feel that he is lost in a large complex and impersonal machine.<sup>21</sup> The '*Hawthorne*,' '*Yankee City*,' and other such studies suggest that recognition as a person means preserving



one's integrity. This, in turn, requires independence, fair treatment, and opportunity for self-expression, this last factor being, however, more one of work activity than human relations.

### Independence

Independence involves autonomy, a degree of control of one's own actions and activities. The need seems to be general in the Western World, at least in the United States.<sup>22</sup> To the worker in a factory or in an office, independence means freedom to express opinions concerning the work being done or to be done, as Guest has shown with automobile workers.<sup>23</sup> To the professional worker it means an opportunity to select aspects of the job which should be emphasized, to determine priorities, to plan one's work activities, to answer to others for the end results rather than the method of attaining it. Every one gives up a degree of independence in order to be a member of society. As Hobbes and Rousseau long ago pointed out, in a socio-economic system as highly organized as that of the present day, independence is only a relative matter.<sup>24</sup> But a common need in modern man is to find a life and work situation in which he can retain sufficient independence to pursue his own integrity, to be himself.

The extent to which the need for independence or autonomy is met varies from one occupation and from one work situation to another, while it is often those whose needs are or have been frustrated who are most conscious of having them. Knutson<sup>25</sup> has shown this need appears to be strongest at higher occupational levels, as, for example, the professional group, at which freedom is greatest.<sup>26</sup> In others, it appears to be uniformly important at all occupational levels.<sup>27</sup>

### Fair Treatment

Fair treatment to the present day worker means an equitable system of rewards on known standards. People like to know how they are being judged and what the bases of judgement are, and they want to be sure that the persons making judgements are impartial. To say this, however, is not very helpful unless standards which are acceptable to the worker are

made specific. As numerous morale surveys in industry have shown, the typical worker of today, white-collar or blue-collar, believes that the length of time on the job and the quality of work done are the most important criteria for judging merit, and he wants advancement and retention to be based on a combination of these. Personal factors still enter in, of course, for the younger worker tends to want quality of work to be stressed and the older employee wants more weight to be given to seniority. Fair treatment also means consideration of the needs of the individual and loyalty in return for loyalty. Another aspect of recognition is related to the idea of status. Just as relations with others must involve recognition of oneself as a person, as some one distinct and in some way different from others in order to be satisfying, so must they be such that the individual should have some feeling of status.<sup>28</sup> Prestige derived from status appears to be a need of persons in the higher level as well as lower level occupations.<sup>29</sup> Occupational status is somewhat complex, for it involves a variety of relationships. These are relationships with others in the same occupations, with clients, and with the general public. In each of these relationships, the status of the given person occupying an occupational role is revealed; sometimes, as superior, but at other times, as subordinate; sometimes as one who belongs, but sometimes as an outsider; sometimes as one who has something in common with others, but sometimes one who is remote socially and psychologically. Furthermore, not every occupation bestows or can bestow a high prestige on its members, and not all members of an occupation react in the same way to its status-giving characteristics. Physicians rank higher on the prestige and income scales than nurses, they are more highly organized and their profession bestows more prestige on its members than does nursing. Moreover, different aspiration levels and backgrounds result in different reactions to the status-giving characteristics of occupations. For example, the young woman whose physician-father wanted her to be a physician and who herself aspired to become a physician but failed for academic reasons to gain admission to a medical college and then entered nursing might feel bitter about the nurses' lack of prestige in dealing with physicians and think nothing of the



status which being a nurse gave her. At the same time, the laborer's daughter who made a sacrifice to go to nursing school and is the only professional member of her family might derive great satisfaction from her general social position and not be aware of her subordinate role in relation to the physician.<sup>30</sup>

### Interesting Work Activity

Opportunity for self-expression seems to be more important at higher than at lower occupational levels.<sup>31</sup> It exists if the individual finds in his work outlets for his abilities, interests, and needs, and if the work itself and the work situation permit him to play a kind of role that is in keeping with his 'self-concept'.<sup>32</sup> A study of relationship between occupations and hobbies, for example, brought to light a number of instances in which workers were dissatisfied with their opportunity to use their training and knowledge on the job.<sup>33</sup> However, it must be pointed out that sometimes self-expression is more a matter of role and values than of outlet for specific types of interests or abilities because, as Morse and Weiss have shown, the need for self-expression in work tends to be a middle class need.<sup>34</sup>

Opportunity to use skills and knowledge helps to make work activities more interesting. It is interesting to speculate as to the reason for this. Perhaps aptitudes are dynamic, in that unused activities create tension which needs reduction. Perhaps attitudes which have been used in some way result in feelings of satisfaction with the relevant experiences, so that rewards lead to repetition. The latter explanation seems likely, in view of what we know about psychological theories of learning, although Berdie<sup>35</sup> found abilities unrelated but interests related to chosen occupational fields.

Opportunity to express seems to operate in the same way. Long-term studies of subsequent careers of college students, who were tested as freshmen or as seniors, conducted by Strong, Jr.<sup>36</sup> have demonstrated the tendency of men to enter or shift to occupations in which their interest

scores were high. Interest may be, in part, as Strong suggests, the production of satisfaction through successful activity, aptitude leads to success, success results in satisfaction, satisfaction produces interest in the activity, and interests result in more activity, or, as Derley and Hagenah<sup>37</sup> view it, with better evidence, personality, i.e., needs, values, and motivations, lead to the development of interests which in turn lead to occupational choice.

For some people, the specific content of the work activity seems to be less important than its variety.<sup>38</sup> What has been meant by the term variety has not been investigated in surveys of job satisfaction, but in some cases, in which its meaning has been explored, it seems change in the content and pace of work; in others, change in location of work. For a professional employee working below his ability level with too simple and concrete work content is greatly undesirable, and for him variety means more abstract and more demanding work.<sup>39</sup> On the other hand, a factory worker considers variety in terms of doing a work activity that leads to a completion of a product which he could see and understand. We have, therefore, reasons to believe that different work activities provide different interests to the members of various occupational groups in a work situation.

### Satisfying Work Situation

The physical conditions in which the work is done, the way in which the work-flow is organized, the equipment and materials with which the work is done also affect the worker's satisfaction in his work.<sup>40</sup> Viewed psychologically, these factors should be discussed along with the need for status, for independence, for the preservation of the integrity of the self. The desire for pleasant and efficient working conditions is a desire for personal adequacy and for respect by others.

### Livelihood

The need to earn a living is so obvious and so often stressed in popular writing and discussion to the exclusion of, or at the expense of, other



reasons for working, that it has been left until the end of this section. The reasons for stressing it are clear enough; when one cannot earn a living or when one's earnings are close to subsistence level, other needs, such as those we have been discussing, lose some of their importance.<sup>41</sup> But once the basic needs of livelihood are met, human relations and the work itself become at least equally important. In fact, once the standard of living is truly adequate, earnings continue to seem important more because of their psychological and social significance than for their material affects.<sup>42</sup> The phrase 'earning a livelihood' refers to two points in time, the present and the future. Current wages, salary or fees, are important largely because they fix the present standard of living. But what earning that income in that way does to the future prospects of earning is also important. It is, in fact, more basic to the question of economic security than that of current income.

The absolute level of current earnings is important because it determines the standard of living. The term 'absolute' is used in Economics to denote consumer or capital goods the income will buy. This usage is made necessary in this context in order that it may be contrasted with the relative level of current earnings, that is, how much an individual can buy with his income level as compared to his neighbor. These terms have not only economic implications but also socio-psychological meaning. If the needs of the worker are to be satisfied by his work, the absolute level of current earnings must be sufficient to maintain an adequate standard of living. The relative level of current income is more often, in the United States, a factor in work satisfaction or morale. The individual likes to feel that he is earning as much as others of his sex, age, experience, seniority, education, and profession. He wants to be paid as much as his employer can pay for his type of work and as much as he might earn if he worked for another employer. It therefore becomes perfectly clear that this is a status need, one of human relations rather than of economics. It is helpful for some practical purposes to view it in terms of its manifestations, economically, but many managerial or administrative mistakes

have been made because of failure to realize that this is basically a psychological problem. The results of an investigation conducted by Reynolds and Shister<sup>43</sup> provide empirical evidence to substantiate this point of view.

Another dimension of the problem of livelihood need satisfaction is concerned with security. In the thinking of the average person, security is best assured through working in a situation which is minimally affected by seasonal or cyclical fluctuations of employment market. The middle or upper-middle class people, however, commonly think of security as being achieved through hard work, ability, and thrift. But the beliefs that merit will be recognized and that enterprise and activity will win rewards are as widespread in the lower 'working' class as in the middle class, just as the experience of being able to save for future need is not as common. These observations are supported by the research studies of Weits and Nuckols<sup>44</sup> for the life insurance agents. In particular, they reported that the attitudes towards security are in considerable contrast with that of professional men of middle-class background and those of wage earners. The professional men considered that it is not the job which provides security, but it is the job you can get, thereby showing a confidence in merit and mobility.

Professionals have their own standards as to what constitutes advancement. To be sure, they are interested in higher incomes and status titles (though they sometimes deny it).<sup>45</sup> But they seek recognition from their fellow professionals. Thus, they are tied to a criterion of excellence that exists outside the organization for which they work. In a way they have a dual loyalty.<sup>46</sup> This dual loyalty may both help and hinder the structuring of work activities. A man's feeling of professional pride may motivate him to work harder and to maintain higher standards than he would otherwise. A recent study of hospitals found that this motivation was an important element in explaining the doctor's higher level of voluntary cooperation in accepting many unpleasant administrative procedures.<sup>47</sup> On the other hand, severe conflict arises when a man is



more interested in winning recognition from his professional colleagues than from the organization for which he works. For example, the medical professional has a tendency to look down upon physicians who take administrative jobs in hospitals, and for this reason highly qualified men may refuse such assignments.<sup>48</sup> Similarly, engineers, architects, accountants, and other professionals sometimes turn down promotions that require administrative work which may interfere with their research. One author has put in it this way :

Management believes that an individual's success is primarily product of his position on the management ladder, yet many professionals in this environment, though not all, still cling to their belief that success for an individual should be a result of his professional and technical achievements. They are more interested in approbation by their colleagues than the positions offered by management.<sup>49</sup>

Such a radically different way of thinking is often completely foreign to a traditional approach to administrative management and is, therefore, responsible for causing many intra-organizational conflicts. At this point it seems proper to change the focus of our discussion from the psychology of individual in a work situation to the socio-psychological environment created by the organizations which provide opportunity for people to work.

### SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY OF ORGANIZATION

One of the dominant features of our time is the existence of large-scale organizations which employ thousands of people and influence their behavior in many ways. This prevalence of organizations and their influence has not always been viewed as an unmixed blessing. There are those who are concerned with the power these large organizations have in our social, political, and economic life.<sup>50</sup> Still another group is concerned with the tremendous, often subtle, influences that organizations

can have on the individual. They see organizations subverting the individualistic nature of man and moulding him into a cog in a large impersonal entity. On the other hand, there are those who view large-scale organizations as one of the factors in developing our modern society to its higher level of material well-being. Obviously these different points of view deal with very fundamental issues relevant to organizations. The limited scope of this study however, does not allow us to deal with them, although they are of vital importance. The point of view taken here is that organizations do exist, they are numerous, and have a profound impact on the individual and collective life of the people. The purpose of our discussion is to bring about a better understanding of organization as an instrument of social action and as a determinant of human behavior.

### Organization Defined

In order to understand the relationship between organizations and people, we must first define what we mean by organization. The traditional approach to organization gave us the following definition :

An organization is the rational coordination of the activities of a number of people for the achievement of some explicit purpose through division of labor and a hierarchy of authority.<sup>51</sup>

It must be noted that the classical view of organization as depicted by the above definition was totally mechanistic as it did not take into consideration the socio-psychological dimensions of organization. March and Simon observed that :

Scientific management group (classical approach) was concerned with describing the characteristic of human organism as one might describe a relatively simple machine for performing comparatively simple tasks. The goal was to use the rather inefficient human organism in the productive process in the best way possible.<sup>52</sup>

But dealing with organizations as simple mechanism produces outcomes which cannot be anticipated on the basis of classical theory. Out



of the search for an explanation of these unanticipated outcomes was born the modern approach which includes the mechanistic and dynamic aspects in order to present an integrated picture of organization. Pfiffner and Sherwood, for example, define a large administrative organization as :

Organization is the pattern of ways in which large number of people, too many to have intimate face-to-face contact with all others, and engaged in a complexity of tasks, relate themselves to each other in the conscious systematic establishment and accomplishment of mutually agreed purposes.<sup>53</sup>

This definition emphasizes the systematic interrelationships between people working together to accomplish certain purposes. The social-psychologist Bakke emphasizes even more strongly the importance of thinking of human organizations in their social context, with the following definition :

A social organization is a continuing system of differentiated and coordinated human activities utilizing, transforming and welding together a specific set of human, material, capital, ideational and natural resources into a unique problem-solving whole whose function is to satisfy particular human needs in interaction with other human activities and resources in its particular environment.<sup>54</sup>

In a similar vein Presthus points out :

Organization is defined as a system of structural interpersonal relation. . . . Individuals are differentiated in terms of authority, status and role with the result that personal interaction is prescribed. . . . Anticipational reactions tend to occur, while ambiguity and spontaneity are decreased.<sup>55</sup>

In this study, an organization is considered to be a social unit within which people have achieved somewhat stable relations (not necessarily face-to-face) among themselves in order to facilitate the accomplishment of a set of objectives or goals.<sup>56</sup> From this definition it is clear therefore that organizations are purposeful social units and that

they achieve their objectives through people who agree to offer personal needs. Although it is often asserted that all the members of an organization have, or should have, the same objective as the organization, the circumstances which promote such singleness of purpose are, however, 25 more the exception than the rule. Organizations consist of individuals and small groups, as well as arrangements of these elements into larger collectives. Each of these elements may have not one but many goals. Further, it is likely that these goals are not identical, in many instances, dissimilar, in some relatively few, actually in opposition.

Although the individuals or groups within an organization may have different goals, it would be wrong to assume that they can have just any goals, because organizational behaviour in contrast to individual behaviour is highly structured, more predictable and stable.<sup>57</sup> It is only by focussing individual behaviour on the accomplishment of over-all goals that the organization is able to accomplish its objectives.

#### MODERN ORGANIZATION AS A COMPLEX SOCIAL SYSTEM

One of the difficulties in discussing the field of organization, as Litterer has pointed out, is the scope of the subject matter.<sup>58</sup> To some, organization is the study of whole cultures or societies. To others it is the study of small groups. Needless to say, between these extremes there are a number of intermediate concepts of how inclusive the study of organization should be. To delimit the area for the purpose of this study, we will explore the field of organization from the general system view-point. There are several reasons for this choice, but the strongest argument is that the general system approach offers a unique theoretical framework for scientific investigation and meaningful understanding of complex and dynamic organizational processes. In order to put general system approach in a proper perspective, in relation to earlier organization theories, it is desirable to say a few words about them.

The traditional organization theory emphasized parts and segments of the organization and was centered with the separation of activities into



tasks or operational units. The traditional theory did not give sufficient emphasis to the problem of interrelationship or integration of activities. Nor did the neo-classical or human relations approach move in this direction. Its approach was aimed at injecting back into the mechanistic traditional models human motivations, aspirations, desires, and limitations.<sup>59</sup> Neither of these approaches provided a basis for an integrated systematic behavioral model of modern organization. The task of developing such a model was accomplished by the modern organization theory with its distinctive qualities of conceptual-analytical base, its reliance on empirical research data, and, above all, its integrating and synthesizing nature. These qualities are framed in a philosophy which accepts the premise that the only meaningful way to study organizations is to study it as a system.<sup>60</sup>

As Scott has pointed out :

Modern organization theory is in part a product of the past, systems analysis is not a new idea. Further, modern organization theory relies for supporting data on microcosmic research studies, generally drawn from the journals of the last ten years. The newness of modern organization theory, perhaps, is its effort to synthesize recent research contributions of many fields into a system theory characterized by a reoriented conception of organization.<sup>61</sup>

The system approach has its roots in science and engineering. It is not the invention of any one individual, or group of individuals, nor any profession, but has evolved from many sources. Scientists and engineers have long used the systems approach, whether under that or some different name, in the solution of scientific or engineering problems. However, the approach has now been applied to many organizational problems which had not previously been considered to be within the domain of scientific inquiry.<sup>62</sup>

The systems approach has been variously defined with different definitions, representing different perspectives and different fields of application.

In this study, however, we plan to focus our attention only on certain features of the systems approach which we feel to be the most important from the organization theory view-point. According to Johnson, Kast and Rosenzweig :

The system concept is primarily a way of thinking about the job of managing. It provides a framework for visualizing internal and external environmental factors as an integrated whole, allows recognition of the proper place and functions of the systems. The systems within which businessmen must operate are necessarily complex. However, management via systems concept fosters a way of thinking which, on the one hand, helps to dissolve some of the complexity and, on the other hand, helps the manager to recognize nature of complex problems and thereby operate within the perceived environment. It is important to recognize the integrated nature of specific systems, including the fact that each system has both inputs and outputs and can be viewed as a self-contained unit. But it is also important to recognize that business systems are part of larger systems, possibly industry-wide or including several, may be many companies and/or industries, or even society as a whole.<sup>63</sup>

These authors have described the systems approach from the private business organizations standpoint but their description applies equally to various kinds of organizations existing in our society like government agencies, voluntary organizations, professional associations, and other social, political, and economic organizations. It must also be pointed out that organization theory is a special case of general systems theory. As Johnson and others have put it :

Systems theory and organization theory are both concerned with the investigation and performance of the organization as an integrated whole. However, the general system theory is concerned with the nine levels of systems whereas organization theory focusses primarily upon the human social organization.<sup>64</sup>



Before outlining a systems concept of organization, it is important to describe briefly what we mean by system. The term system is often used in such a generic and common sense meaning in the literature of social sciences that many scholars do not commit themselves to a particular definition. However, those who believe in scientific specificity and empirical validity have defined system in their theoretical formulations. According to Miller :

Systems are bounded regions in space and time involving energy interchange among their parts which are associated in functional relationship and with their environments. . . . Systems must have some properties. They should be surrounded by a single boundary, continuous in space-time and have recognizable functional relationship.<sup>65</sup>

He further comments :

Some may wonder whether 'system' is identical with 'Gestalt.' Are there laws of the whole which do not apply to specific parts ? We hold that both the parts, or subsystems, and the whole behave according to similar laws. However, there are characteristics of the whole which do not apply to any part. This is true of systems at every level.<sup>66</sup>

Johnson and others have dealt with the system concept at a lower level of abstraction, under the following definition : "A system is an organized or complex whole: an assemblage or combination of things or parts forming a complex or unitary whole."<sup>67</sup> A general survey of the literature on the system theory and application suggests that a system is a collection of interacting elements which can be viewed as an entity. We will adhere to this definition throughout our discussion.

Turning now to the application of general system theory to the field of organization, we observe that the modern organization is a system of mutually dependent parts or subsystems which are joined together in order

to accomplish certain tasks or to achieve a set of goals. Parsons expresses this view :

It seems appropriate to define an organization as a social system which is organized for the attainment of a particular type of goal ; the attainment of that goal is at the same time a performance of a type of function on behalf of a more inclusive system, the society.<sup>69</sup>

It is obvious from the above discussion that the system model of organization consists of four dimensions :

1. The strategic parts of subsystem of the system.
2. The mutual relationships or dependency between the parts.
3. Processes which link the parts together and facilitate their adjustment to each other.
4. Goals sought by the systems.<sup>70</sup>

Let us explore these dimensions in a little more detail in order to put our discussion in a conceptually clear and theoretically meaningful frame of reference. Because of its scholarly insightful analysis, sharp theoretical focus and close relevance of subject matter, we have borrowed the following exposition from Scott's article, "Organization Theory : An Overview and An Appraisal".<sup>71</sup>

### Parts of the System and their Interdependency

The first basic part of the system is the individual and the personality structure he brings to the organization. Elementary to an individual's personality are motives and attitudes which condition the range of expectancies he hopes to satisfy by participating in the system.

The second part of the system is the formal arrangement of functions, usually called the interrelated pattern of jobs which make up the structure of a system. Certain writers like Argyris<sup>72</sup> see a fundamental conflict resulting from the demands made by the system and the structure of the



mature, normal personality. In any event the individual has expectancies regarding the job he is to perform, and, conversely, the job makes demands on, or has expectancies relating to, the performances of the individual. Considerable attention has been given by writers in modern organization theory to the incongruences resulting from the interaction of organizational and individual demands. A thorough discussion of this point is postponed until a later section of this study.

The third part in the organization system is the informal organization which appears in response to social needs, the needs of people to associate with others. But it must be noted that an interaction pattern exists between the individual and the informal group. This interactional arrangement can be conveniently discussed as the mutual modification of expectancies. The informal organization has demands which it makes on members in terms of anticipated forms of behavior, and the individual has expectancies of satisfaction he hopes to derive from association with people on the job. Both sets of expectancies interact, resulting in the individual modifying his behavior in accordance with the demands of the group, perhaps, modifying what it expects from an individual, because of the impact of his personality on group norms.

The fourth part of the system is the physical setting in which the job is done. Although this element of the system may be implicit in what has been said already about the formal organization and its function, it is well to separate it. In the physical surrounding of work, interactions are present in the complex man-machine system. The human 'engineers' cannot approach the problems posed by such interrelationships in a purely technical engineering fashion. As Haire says, "These problems lie in the domain of social theorists."<sup>73</sup> Attention must be centered on the responses demanded from a logically ordered production function, often with the view of minimizing the errors in the system. From this standpoint, work cannot be effectively organized unless the psychological, social, and physiological characteristics of people participating in the work environment are considered. Machine and processes should be designed

to fit certain generally observed psychological and physiological properties of men, rather than hiring men to fit machines.

Storm and Finkle have stated this fact in more general terms as :

That good organization and administrative design must be adopted to institutional purposes, processes, and ultimate goals is almost an axiom of administrative theory. Perhaps less widely understood or accepted is the extent to which in any given organization, administrative design must be adopted to the characteristics of persons responsible for achieving the organization's purpose. In other words, structure and design of organizations are not independent variables but are factors subject to manipulation.<sup>74</sup>

#### Linking Process

One can say, with a good deal of glibness, that all the parts mentioned above are interrelated. Although this observation is quite correct, it does not mean too much in terms of system theory unless some attempt is made to analyze the process by which the interaction is achieved. Modern organization theorists point to three linking activities which appear to be universal to human systems of organized behaviour. These processes are communication, balance, and decision-making.

Communication is viewed as the method by which action is evoked from the parts of the system. Communication acts not only as stimuli resulting in action, but also as control and coordination mechanism linking the decision centres in the system into a synchronized pattern. Deutch<sup>75</sup> points out that organizations are composed of parts which communicate with each other, receive messages from the outside world and store information. Taken together these communication functions of parts comprise a configuration representing the total system.

The concept of balance as a linking process refers to an equilibrating mechanism whereby the various parts of the system are maintained in a harmoniously structural relationship with each other. Balance



appears in two varieties : quasi-automatic and innovative. Both forms of balance act to ensure system's integrity in face of changing conditions, either internal or external to the system. The first form of balance, quasi-automatic, refers to what some think are 'homeostatic' properties of the system. That is, systems seem to exhibit 'built in' propensities to maintain steady state. If human organizations are open self-maintaining systems, then control and regulatory processes are necessary. Systems have programs of action which are put into effect when change is perceived. If the change is relatively minor and if the change comes within the purview of established programs of action, then it might be fairly confidently predicted that the adaptation made by the system will be quasi-automatic.<sup>76</sup> The role of innovative creative balancing efforts now needs to be examined. The need for innovation arises when adaptation to change is outside the scope of existing balance. New programs are created by trial and error search for feasible action alternatives to cope with a given change.

A wide spectrum of topics dealing with types of decisions in human systems make up the core of analysis of another important process in organizations. Decision-analysis is one of the major contributions of March and Simon in their book, *Organizations*.<sup>77</sup> The two major classes of decision they discuss are decisions to produce and decisions to participate.<sup>78</sup> Decisions to produce are largely a result of an interaction between individual attitudes and demands of the organization. Motivation analysis becomes central to studying the nature and results of the interaction. Individual decisions to participate in the organization reflect on such issues as the relationship between organizational rewards versus the demands made by the organization. (This point will be discussed in greater depth in a later section). Participation decisions also focus attention on the reasons why individuals remain in or leave organizations. March and Simon treat decisions as internal variables in an organization which depends on jobs, individual expectations, motivations, and organizational structure.<sup>79</sup> In this case, the organization is viewed as having inherent to its structure the ability to maximize survival

requisites through its established decision processes.

### Goals of Organization

Organization has three goals, which may be either intermeshed or independent ends in themselves. They are growth, stability, and interaction. The last goal refers to organizations which exist primarily to provide a medium for association to its members with others. Interestingly enough, these goals seem to apply to different forms of organizations at varying levels of complexity ranging from simple clockwork mechanism to social systems. These similarities in organizational purposes have been observed by a number of people, and a field of thought and research called general system theory has developed, dedicated to the task of discovering organizational universals. The theme of a system theory is to create a science of organizational universals, or if you will, a universal science using common organizational elements in all systems as a starting point.<sup>80</sup>

Having briefly described the four dimensions of systems models of organization, we are now in a position to take a step further and discuss the conceptual scheme underlying the general system approach. Before outlining this conceptual scheme, it is important to set aside the idea that a system is necessarily something that is fully predictable or tightly controlled. This impression is created whenever anyone tries to apply to a human organization the closed or non-human models used by physicists and engineers. A human organization is much more complicated. Gross has indicated that, specifically, when viewed in general system terms, a formal organization whether a business enterprise or a government agency is :

1. A man-resource system.
2. Open, with various transactions between it and its environment.
3. Characterized by internal and external relations of conflict as well as cooperation.



4. A system for developing and using power, with varying degrees of authority and responsibility both within the organization and in the external environment.
5. A feedback system, with information on the results of past performance activities feeding back through multiple channels to influence future performances.
6. Changing, with static concepts derived from dynamic concepts rather than serving as a preliminary of them.
7. Complex, that is containing many subsystems being crisscrossed by overlapping systems.
8. Loose, with many components that may be imperfectly coordinated, partially autonomous and only partially controllable.
9. Only partially knowable, with many areas of uncertainty with 'black regions' as well as 'black boxes' and with many variables that cannot be clearly defined and must be described in qualitative terms.
10. Subject to considerable uncertainty with respect to current information, future environmental conditions, and the consequences of its own action.<sup>81</sup>

The conceptual scheme of systems approach is based on two basic concepts. First, the organization must be conceived as an open system, which means that it is in constant interaction with environment, taking in raw materials, people, energy, and information, and transforming or converting these into products and services which are exported into the environment.<sup>82</sup> Second, the organization must be conceived as an input-output system. The flow in inputs and outputs portrays the system's performance. Considering the output concept, we can easily distinguish between two kinds of performance: (1) producing outputs of services or goods and (2) satisfying (or dissatisfying) various interests, values, and

attitudes. The input can similarly be broken down into three ways: (1) acquiring resources to be used in the inputs; (2) using inputs for investment into the systems; and (3) making efficient use of resources. Furthermore, the organizational performance also includes efforts to conform with certain behaviour codes and concepts of technical and administrative rationality in order to achieve organizational goals. This conception of organizational performance is graphically portrayed by Gross<sup>83</sup> in Figure 1.

Although Figure 1 very effectively depicts the relationships among the performance variables, a word of clarification must be added here. This clarifying point is concerned with the fact that these relationships, if looked upon in a static or constant state of environment, will result in confusion and misunderstanding.

The organization exists in a dynamic environment which consists of other systems, some larger, some smaller than the organization. The environment places demands upon and constraints the organization in various ways, while keeping these relationships in a constant state of flux. The total function of the organization cannot be understood, therefore, without explicit consideration of these environmental demands and constraints. Furthermore, because of continuous exchange between the organization and the environment, the boundaries of any given organization become less distinct. Finally, the systems concept of organization is perhaps more suitable than the static structural approach for the study of dynamic behavioral aspects of organization. Given the systems concept of organization, how can one assess the occupational attractiveness of a given source of employment. This will be the topic of the next section of this study.



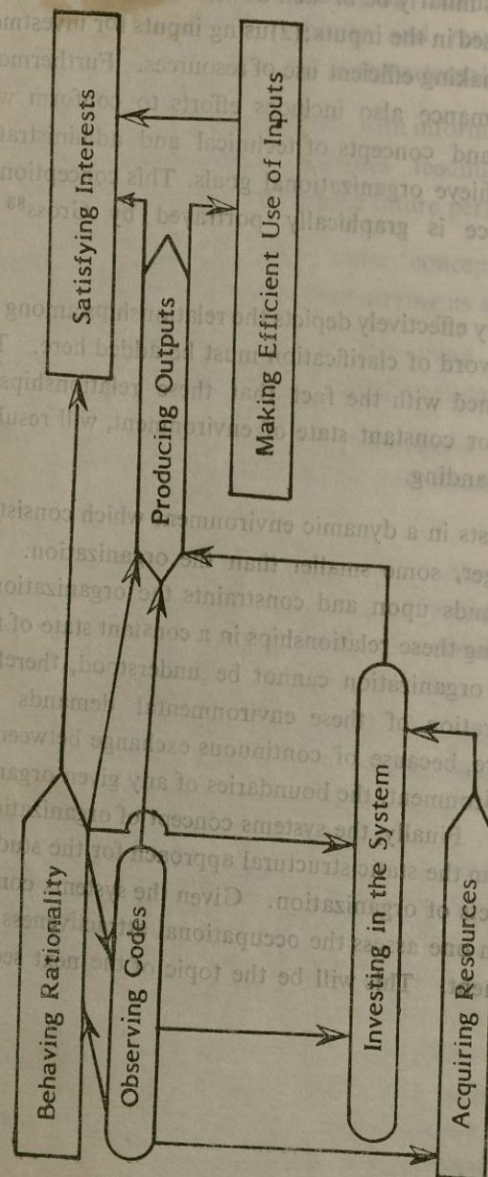


Figure 1 -- A model of organizational performance

## TRANSACTION BETWEEN THE PSYCHOLOGY OF WORK AND SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY OF ORGANIZATION

Before attempting to describe the dynamics of transaction between the psychology of work and social psychology of organization, which itself is a process of synthesis, it may help us to remind ourselves of what is being synthesized. It is, on the one hand, the personal needs and resources of the individual, and, on the other, the economic, social, and administrative demands and resources of the social system. The former we have seen include needs, values, interests, and other variables concerning the psychological satisfaction of the individual. The latter comprise the opportunities, experiences, and demands of the social system to achieve the predetermined goals. The developmental tasks described by Havighurst include the expectations which society has of the individual as one of its members and the roles which he must learn to play.<sup>84</sup>

The satisfaction which is derived from the rewarded use of abilities, the approved meeting of needs, the accepted manifestation of interests, and the social realization of values channelize personal resources. The result is, then, an integrated person whose personal resources are harmoniously allied, attuned to the cultural resources of his environment, and adequate for the developmental tasks with which he must cope. Synthesis may, however, take place and values may be rewarded in some contexts but not in others. The result is a poorly integrated person who is ill equipped to fit into his environment and to meet the requirements of the social system.<sup>85</sup>

From the discussion above, the importance and implications of transaction of resources between the individual and the organization are evident. The question of assessing how well or poorly a transaction process is functioning in an organization is difficult to answer. However, the answer to this question has an intrinsic value for the understanding of occupational attractiveness of a source of employment. Hence, it is imperative for this study that we explicitly face up to this question.



Perhaps the best way to get at this question is to explore the relevant contributions of the distinguished students of organization theory who might have found some logically reasonable and rationally acceptable answers. It must, however, be admitted at the very outset that we intend to expose ourselves only to the highlights of three most significant contributions, because the limitations of time and space do not permit us to attempt an intensive or extensive exploration.

It will be useful for the purpose of this study to take the pioneering work of Bernard and Simon as our starting point.<sup>86</sup> According to the equilibrium theory of Bernard and Simon, the decision by the individuals to participate in an organization depends upon its ability in arranging payments in terms of inducements for acquiring their contributions towards the fulfilment of organizational objectives. As Simon himself points out :

The clue to the participation of individuals in organization lies in...regarding the organized group as a system in equilibrium. Individuals are willing to accept organization membership when their activity in the organization contributes directly or indirectly to their own personal goals. The contribution is direct if the goals set for the organization have direct personal value for the individual.... The contribution is indirect if the organization offers personal rewards...monetary or other...to the individual in return for his willingness to contribute activity to the organization.<sup>87</sup>

Organization equilibrium is concerned with the forces of inducements and contributions which motivate the individuals to offer or withdraw their willingness to cooperate in satisfying the organization's demands. One of the central postulates of the Bernard-Simon theory is :

Each participant will continue his participation in an organization only so long, the inducements offered to him are as great or greater (measured in terms of his values and in terms of the alternatives open to him) than the contributions he is asked to make.<sup>88</sup>

However, willingness to contribute is a phenomenon of consent. In order to secure consent and to maintain equilibrium, organization yields "net satisfaction which induces a man to contribute his efforts."<sup>89</sup> The ability to provide net satisfactions and secure participation from its members is crucial. Bernard refers to this as organizational efficiency.

The efficiency of a cooperative system is its capacity to maintain itself by the individual satisfaction it affords. This may be called its capacity of equilibrium, the balancing of burdens by satisfaction which results in continuance.<sup>90</sup>

Organization maintenance will depend, in part, on the ability to secure a stream of contributions. Something must be offered by each in the trade between participants and organization, inducements as perceived by the organization, satisfaction as perceived by participants.

Considering some implications of equilibrium theory on the personnel function of the organization, we can safely suggest that an organization which can afford a variety of inducements to its participants will have no difficulty in attracting sufficient contributions for the purpose of achieving organizational goals. Further, if the organization is able to transmit to the external environment, the scope of its potential in providing inducements to the prospective participants, it can hopefully attract the contributions of the type of non-members desired for attaining its purposes. But we must inject a comment from Sherman Krupp who pointed out :

Even if inducements and contributions are measurable in principle, to measure them in practice may necessitate the introduction of highly limiting conditions. These conditions may so limit the observational field that what is observed may not correspond to inducement, contributions concept.<sup>91</sup>

The above comment, therefore, draws our attention to the fact that, although the equilibrium theory provides a theoretically sound explanation, it fails to help us in providing a quantitative assessment of the transaction process of an organization.



Let us now take up another effort to develop a theoretical framework of organization based upon the transaction process by which the organization attracts and holds the individuals for securing its objectives. Bakke and Argyris have put forth a conceptual scheme which provides a useful understanding of the relationship between the individual and organization. This scheme, as we will see, is not fundamentally at odds with the Bernard-Simon model, but is somewhat more differentiated and attuned to empirical investigation.<sup>92</sup> Bakke and Argyris have the organization and the individual as their orienting points. Their main concern is with integrating the organization and the individual. To be able to do so, they have developed the concept of fusion process, which is in operation when the socializing and the personalizing processes are congruent and compatible, i.e., when they fuse in the role of the individual. The two elements of fusion process are defined as :

The socializing process is defined as that by which individuals are made into the agents of the formal organization and/or informal group. The personalizing process is defined as that by which the individual actualizes himself and by which aspects of the organization and the informal group are made into agencies for the individual.<sup>93</sup>

The individual in some circumstances gains satisfaction from work without contributing anything to the organization. Obviously the socializing requirement is not then met. Again, when the organizational demands are met without bringing any satisfaction to the worker, the personalizing dimension is sacrificed. "Only when personalizing and socializing demands are simultaneously being actualized can we say that fusion is really occurring."<sup>94</sup>

Argyris applied the theory of fusion process in the study of a bank; and by extensive interviews and questioning, he tried to identify the processes in the bank by which the effort was coordinated and work accomplished. He also tried to compute fusion scores on the basis of two scales, one measuring the extent to which the personality is expressed through the organization and the other measuring the degree to which the

organization achieves its goals and fulfils its ends through the behavior of its employees.

In attempting to evaluate Bakke and Argyris's contribution towards the understanding of how well a social system is organized to recruit and maintain its supply of human resources, it is in order to point out that the fusion model can provide many helpful guidelines for creating an internal organizational environment which is conducive enough for the attractiveness of the organization to its members, but it does not allow us to draw any inferences as to the ability of the organization to create external organization environment which is sufficiently attractive to lure prospective personnel to it. Taking full cognizance of this limitation, we are led to embark on further exploration to find a conceptual framework which offers a rationally acceptable solution to our problem.

Faced with the pressing problem of how to recruit, train, and effectively utilize people in organized human effort, many contemporary industrial and social psychologists have recognized :

That for an individual member, whether worker or manager, an organization as a whole exists as a psychological entity to which he reacts. The quality and quantity of his work are related to his image of the organization as a whole, not just to the immediate characteristics of the work or his immediate monetary incentives.<sup>95</sup>

In order to understand the nature of relationship between the psychological forces operating on individual and behavioral constraints required by the organization, Schien has proposed : "That the problem is a complex one which can better be conceptualized in terms of a 'psychological contract' entered into by both the individual and the organization."<sup>96</sup>

He further elaborates this concept as :

The notion of a 'psychological contract' implies that the individual has a variety of expectations of the organization and that the organization has a variety of expectations of him. These expectations



not only cover how much work is to be performed for how much pay, but also involve the whole pattern of rights, privileges and obligations between worker and organization. For example, the worker may expect the company not to fire him after he has worked there for a certain number of years and the company may expect that the worker will not run down the company's public image or give away company secrets to competitors. Expectations such as these are not written into any formal agreement between employee and organization, yet they operate powerfully as determinants of behavior.

Applying the notion of 'psychological contract' to a real work situation, Schien makes it clear :

The psychological contract is implanted from the organization's point of view through the concept of authority, in that the decision to join an organization implies the commitment to adopt the authority system of that organization. From the side of the worker, the psychological contract is implanted through his perception that he can influence the organization or his own immediate situation sufficiently to ensure that he will not be taken advantage of.<sup>98</sup>

He has summarized this conceptual scheme as : "Thus the organization enforces its view of contract through authority and the employee enforces his view of contract through upward influence."<sup>99</sup>

Turning now to the question of assessing the ability of organization to attract and maintain a steady supply of personnel resources, it is obvious that the 'psychological contract' theory leads to some useful implications for eliciting greater cooperation and commitment of the employees towards the achievement of organizational goals, but it also fails to take into account the forces in the external environment which attract or repel an individual from accepting an organizational role with a given employing unit.

The discussion of three models of relationship between individual

and organization clearly suggests that their concern is primarily with the processes by which the organization and its members adapt to the needs of each other, but they fall short of presenting a systematic theoretical formulation to deal with the problem of external environment which enhances or depresses the attractiveness of an organization to the kinds of prospective members who are in short supply. Consequently, we have every reason to wonder why these conceptual schemes are slanted so heavily in one direction, i.e., towards the internal environment. After an extensive survey of the literature we found that probably the best answer to this question is given by Roethlisberger :

Obviously this formulation slanted in the direction of looking at and trying to understand the organization's internal environment, i.e., how the actual on-going social-structure operated and was administered in order to survive in its external environment. This did not mean that we ignored the organizations external environment, we were very interested in any changes going on there that would have consequences for the social-structure and the way it would cope with them. But why these changes were going on 'out there' we were willing to leave to the economists and the sociologists to explain. We were interested in trying to explain how the internal system, i.e., the organization within, was going to assimilate and cope with this external environment.<sup>100</sup>

He further indicates :

According to this point of view, the executive's natural habitat is the internal environment and from an acquaintance with and a knowledge about the internal environment the professional competent manager as well as a general theory of management would be developed.<sup>101</sup>

It is worth pointing out here that this concentration of effort towards understanding of internal dynamics of organization is not only observed in the field of theory but also in research. As Blau and Scott noticed :



One serious shortcoming of most organizational research including our own is that there is no investigation of the publics related to the organization. Studies of the organizations have not included within the scope of their analysis the publics directly in contact with the organization, let alone the larger public which is potentially in contact. The neglect of this aspect of organizational research means that a one-sided picture of the official client relation has been constructed. We are beginning to know something about the orientation of officials to clients, whereas we know little of the orientations of clients to officials and organizations.<sup>102</sup>

This, however, should not be taken to mean that the students of organization have totally neglected to bridge this gap in our knowledge of internal and external dynamics of organization. But we must admit the fact that theory and research pertinent to the problem of developing an organizational image which is favourable enough for attracting high quality personnel is not only sparse but also rather scanty.

Although favourable external environment, particularly the public opinion, is indispensable for growth, stability, and interaction (the three organizational goals mentioned earlier) of any kind of organization, it has special importance to the government agencies. There are several reasons for greater dependence of government agencies on the public opinion, but the most notable fact is that in a democratic society like the United States, government is the agency through which the society's public purposes, responsibilities, and activities are determined, expressed in the form of public policies, and assigned public resources for fulfilment.<sup>103</sup> The government organization in a democratic setting, therefore, cannot acquire a fair share of resources if it fails to create a favourable public image. The difficulty of the United States government in attracting highly qualified professional personnel as reported by the Brookings study at the federal level and Municipal Man Power Commission at the local level provides a clear evidence to this fact.<sup>104</sup>

The public opinion towards government employment and the image of public employee in the society became the subject of systematic study after the publication of White's pioneering works in 1929 and 1931.<sup>105</sup> Although White's studies could not provide an answer to the question of why the public-at-large attached low prestige to government employment, we cannot neglect the fact that his studies laid the course for further research.

As Kilpatrick and his associates have put it :

Even so, White's work is a landmark of enduring importance for research on the occupational appeal of all levels of government, it was the first systematic attempt to probe into the public attitude towards government service by using the social survey technique, and it uncovered broad patterns of attitudes towards public employment which continue to prevail today.<sup>106</sup>

In 1954 Janowitz and his associates, following the lead given by White, attempted to evaluate the prestige of public employment in Detroit. They found that in spite of the presence of old views, a marked rise in the general prestige of public employment has occurred since the 1920s.<sup>107</sup> While Janowitz's study updated many of White's findings, it failed to take into account the causes which increased the occupational appeal of public employment. Miscellaneous other surveys and public opinion polls have been done from outside as well as within the governmental arena which show a trend toward lifting of public service prestige but none has attempted to explore the basis of change and its implications for the ability of the government organizations to attract and retain professional man-power.<sup>108</sup>

Let us now tuck in some loose ends, which we deliberately left dangling for the purpose of maintaining a simple sequence of ideas which helped us to a great extent in avoiding ambiguity and confusion. We must, therefore, go back to the subject of values and occupational choice which we considered at some length in the beginning of this study and tie



it with the systems concept of organization to bring this discussion to a meaningful conclusion.

As we stated earlier, from the systems point of view, an organization is an assemblage of human and non-human resources geared to task accomplishment through a series of interactions and integrated into a social system.<sup>109</sup> In order to carry out its purposes and to survive, an organization must continually have inputs of various resources. At times, the acquisition of resources is a fairly simple procedure. In other situations where resources are scarce, their acquisition and maintenance at a level which will satisfy organizational needs become a problem of considerable magnitude. One of the key resources needed by an organization is personnel. Yet, acquiring the type of personnel needed to fit or carry out organizational objectives can be a very difficult task, so much so, that we have to introduce several fundamental changes within the organization in order to provide for this resource. For the organization to succeed in acquiring new personnel, it is often necessary that the organization itself be such that it will attract the type of people desired. Hence, there is the problem of developing an organizational image which is attractive enough to induce the prospective personnel to it. To do this the organization must adapt to the occupational values which are the kinds of things people hope to attain or avoid in their jobs, and it should learn the attitudes of the group of people whose services are critically needed for the attainment of its goals.

It was pointed out in the preceding section of our discussion that, according to the systems concept, organization is considered as an open system which is influenced by, and influences, its environment and reaches a state of dynamic equilibrium in this environment. The system performance therefore depends upon a dynamic inter-play of internal and external environmental forces which determine the state of equilibrium at any point of time. We noticed that the previous theoretical formulations, represented by the three models of organizational behaviour, was entirely focused on the sources of internal strain and accommodation and remained oblivious

to external aspects of the organization's environment. This study is directed towards the understanding of the impact of external environmental forces on the ability of the organization to acquire scarce personnel resources, specifically, the professional manpower, without which no large scale organization can hope to remain viable.

To sum up, then, the primary focus of this study was to provide some knowledge of the occupational values which impinge upon the appeal of an employment source and further to explore the undercurrents of attitudes which carve out an organizational image for a particular group of people.

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## COLONIALISM AND THE COLD WAR THE LIMITS OF CONTEMPORARY HISTORY

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The overall purpose of this paper is to investigate the relationship of current historical research to contemporary issues. The basic questions to be addressed may be stated as: Is there an area of historical interest justifiably known as Contemporary History? What is its content and its limits in time? The investigative method will be to analyze a representative sample of current historical writings in areas selected because of their importance in the 'recent past'.

The need for definitions to keep this investigation within bounds can be shown through the statement of a scholarly friend of mine that history ended with Napoleon; everything since has been current events. The statement was made in a humorous context but is not too extreme; a British historian writing in 1966 felt that he still had colleagues who believed that history stopped in 1914.<sup>1</sup>

There is a temptation to construct a definition that emphasizes relevance. Examples are: "If we do not learn from history we are doomed to repeat it" or "the past is prologue." Relevance itself is not wrong; a distinguished medieval historian has in fact stated that "... the relevance of the past is that it connects with the present and has indeed caused it."<sup>2</sup> And I suggest that few would argue that "... our options are limited by what has gone before and our preferences are shaped by our image of who we are and have been..."<sup>3</sup>

The dangers of such definitions for this study are tautological. If we define contemporary history in terms of relevance to today's affairs we will have difficulty in claiming an unbiased view when we later analyze the



results of recent historical research. A more disciplined, and useful, guide to defining any period of history is provided by an American historian who specifically denies that relevance has anything at all to do with the discipline. His thesis is that on the subject of relevance "... the other, more pliable, social sciences can always outbid history.... The use of history lies in its capacity for advancing the approach to truth. The historian's vocation depends on this minimal operational article of faith. Truth is absolute; it is as absolute as the world is real."<sup>4</sup>

The problem is how to define the 'recent past' in a meaningful way, not as a field separate from the traditional historical division but rather as a useful area of investigation within modern history. There seems to be a general consensus among at least one group of scholars that the term Contemporary History is applied to events occurring since the Second World War.<sup>5</sup> Another view from across the Atlantic would include the events in Europe's "Thirty Years of 20th Century Civil War", thus beginning the period in 1914. As we will later see the *British Journal of Contemporary History* gives considerable emphasis to the period of between-the-world wars.

A third approach is taken by Geoffrey Barraclough, a British historian who has written extensively on contemporary affairs. He cautions that we should beware of precise dates, arguing that "Contemporary History begins when the problems which are actual in the world today first take visible shape." Barraclough sees the first half of the Twentieth Century as one of those periods when "... humanity swings out of its old paths on to a new plane ..." thus resembling the changes at the turn of the eleventh and twelfth centuries or the Renaissance and Reformation.<sup>6</sup>

Barraclough further holds that since the time of Thucydides much of the greatest history has been contemporary and that the idea of history linked to the present is not new, but was the accepted thesis until the eighteenth century notion that history was something dedicated exclusively to the past.<sup>7</sup> He does not, however, deny that there are problems in the area

with some works which are claimed as contemporary history being little more than propaganda or journalistic comment. Here he is joined by other writers on this subject. There is a general consensus that the problems are three in number: first, the question of sources, second, the problem of bias and third, the problem of perspective.<sup>8</sup>

The problem of sources has both quantitative and qualitative factors. Quantitatively, there is almost too much potential historical data becoming available in a world where the information flow about all phases of human activity is increasing in quantum jumps. Indeed, one historian has humorously remarked that pre-modern historians have an easier time of it simply because so much of their sources have been destroyed.<sup>9</sup> This quantity factor increases the difficulty of the qualitative analysis of data since the historian of any period arrives at the best approximation of the truth through the critical sifting and crosschecking of bits of evidence; some old, some new, some respected and some suspect. Thus, the quality of contemporary sources need not be automatically questioned and when the potentials of oral history are added it is suggested that sources, correctly used, need not be a scholarly barrier to contemporary historical research.

The question of the bias of the researcher seems to be the least dangerous of the problems not because it does not exist but because it is present in all types of humanist or social science research. Even the historian of an ancient period faces the problem if an historical truth developed by him through a lifetime of research, indeed perhaps named after him, is brought into question by a small piece of new information unearthed in some remote section of the globe. Fortunately bias is a factor that can be recognized, if we are honest, and can thus be combated by an intellectually honest approach to research.

The problem of perspective thus becomes the most important of the problem areas. It is here where the non-contemporary historians have a significant advantage; they know how the story turns out! In brief, when you study a specific event or period in history, it helps to know not only



what has lead up to the event, but what follows. If you only know one-half of this information, how can you be certain that events and trends are as significant as they seem?

Proof of the validity of this question can be found in the works of a previously cited authority in the contemporary history field. Geoffrey Barraclough selected late 1961 as the date that "...with some degree of assurance..." marked the beginning of a new period. Since Barraclough was almost certainly writing this in 1963, it may be assumed that this judgment was based on very close-range observations. One of Barraclough's major points, (the fact that President Kennedy marked the arrival on the political scene of a new group of young leaders in the world) was destroyed by the President's assassination and replacement by a man with pre-World War II political roots. Further, Barraclough buttressed his argument with a separate source which held that the turning point for South-east Asia in the modern world had come about in 1958, a claim that would not survive the 1960s and probably did not represent the consensus of Asian scholars in 1963.<sup>10</sup>

It should, however, be noted that the problem of perspective is not unique to the contemporary effort for in many non-contemporary periods the relationship between successive periods is not completely clear. And it can be further argued that the proximity of the contemporary historian to his material provides a perspective with the clarity and freshness lacking in other research.<sup>11</sup> There are intangible factors which enlighten interpretations and which are seldom found in documents alone. A. J. P. Taylor emphasizes this when he points out that there are few official state papers that give the minority or dissident point of view. "We have to piece its assumptions together from sentences in parliamentary speeches or newspaper articles; it is a stroke of luck when there is a relevant book or pamphlet."<sup>12</sup>

The consensus thus seems to be that, on balance, these three aspects of historical research (sources, bias and perspective) when applied to contemporary issues are (1) not unique in principle, (2) capable of being

solved in much the same ways that they are solved by researchers in other time periods, (3) indeed possess some advantages to understanding that are a function of their contemporary nature, although (4) the issue of perspective requires careful evaluation.

For this investigation I have chosen to construct a definition based on Barraclough's general statement, although not with the specific dates he derives from his definition. Thus, "Contemporary History begins when the problems which are actual in the world today first begin to take shape." It is argued that the period of the Second World War provides a useful historical divide for this endeavor. The world of the 1930s differed markedly from the world that slowly began reconstruction in the immediate post-war period. It is not too difficult to trace the origins of many characteristics of the post-World War II world back to 1939 and before, but the magnitude of World War II altered these connecting links to a significant degree. In addition, new movements that effectively changed the major societies of the world were generated. Further, any startpoint later than 1945 would certainly not include the time when today's problems "...first began to take shape." Thus the following definition for this research project: Contemporary History is concerned primarily with events that have occurred since 1945. It does include, however, the historical origins of those events which have their roots prior to that date.

Many significant events have occurred within the thirty-five years between 1945 and 1989. It is thus important that this investigation select a manageable number of issues. The two subject areas chosen, although not without roots in the pre-1945 era, had their major points of origin soon after 1945. They also have had a continued effect on the major societies of the world throughout the complete 1965-1988 period.

The first event is known almost universally as the Cold War. Basically, the event is concerned with the bi-polar power arrangement between the United States and the Soviet Union which developed soon after



World War II. It includes the military/political actions in the closing days of that war which led to the division of Western Europe, the political divisions and alliances that accompanied the post-war reconstruction period as well as such recent events as arms control and detente.

The second event relates to the passing of the Colonial Era. It includes both the peaceful and the violent processes whereby the former colonies in Asia and Africa became sovereign states, their continued economic dependency on the western world and the rising political power of these nations in the United Nations and other regional and international organizations.

Our purpose will be to determine the extent to which these two subjects are being addressed by historians writing in the present time frame. Here again, a decision was made to confine our attention to articles in recognized academic journals and doctoral dissertations. The decision to not include scholarly books on these subjects was not made because of any doubt as to the value of the research published by this means; the works on the Cold War by John Lewis Gaddis and Daniel Yergin are examples of extremely valuable contributions.<sup>13</sup> But the aim here was to prevent our results being biased by the efforts of a few 'giants' of historical research. Rather, we are interested in the work being done by the many scholars who, through articles and dissertations, are hopefully adding new insights about the contemporary world.

Five journals were selected: the *American Historical Review*, the *Journal of Modern History*, the *Journal of American History*, the *Journal of Contemporary History* and *Diplomatic History*. The content of the articles in each of these journals was examined for the last five years (except for *Diplomatic History* which began publication in 1977). This examination included a total of 546 articles, of which 53 (approximately 10 per cent), dealt specifically with the period since World War II. The different journals were not uniform in their coverage of this area; a table showing the time-period distribution of the articles is in Appendix I.<sup>14</sup>

Appropriate dissertations were examined through two sources. The first included all University of Kansas history dissertations for the past 10 years (1969—79). (There were a total of 89 dissertations in this group with 4 related to the post-1945 period). The second source was the listing by University Microfilms International of all history dissertations reported to them in 1978.<sup>15</sup> The index procedure used in this collection does not show the total number of dissertations included therein, although it is certainly in excess of 1,000. The procedure is complete enough, however, to give a high degree of confidence that all dissertations relating to our two subject areas (a total of 20) were identified.

We will first analyze the articles and dissertations which investigate the Cold War experience. (These titles are listed in Appendix II). The first impression is definite and, to the author, surprising. It may not be true that "history stops with Napoleon" but the evidence in Appendix II can be interpreted that Cold War history stopped with President Harry Truman. The origins of the Cold War during World War II are given good coverage, to include the various wartime conferences that did not start the confrontation but certainly laid the necessary environment for it to occur as soon as the 'hot war' ended. We also find good coverage of the beginnings of the containment policy from several facts; the internal politics of the United States, the general containment of the USSR and several specific situations such as Iran in 1946. Recognizing that we are dealing with a sample here, the conclusion is still valid that the origins of the Cold War and the first four to six years of its existence have been the subject of considerable historic research.

This conclusion accentuates the marked change in the content and number of sources dealing with post-1952 events. Two of the seven articles/dissertations are devoted to the Rosenberg nuclear spy trial and reflect the emotions of the age more than its diplomacy. (Statistically the two articles should be counted as one, since the second was a rebuttal of the first). Three other articles are internal politically, covering



education and internal security measures. Only one source deals with arms control; one with US-USSR economic rivalry.

Cold War issues which are conspicuous by their absence are readily identifiable. The North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) and its less endurable cousins the Central Treaty Organization (CENTO) and the South East Asian Treaty Organization (SEATO) are equally absent even though the first of these three historical developments is still in existence (and publishes a wide range of source material) and the now defunct SEATO played a significant role in U.S. history during the 1960 decade. The arms control effort during the 1950s' 60s and 70s is another area where the lack of historical coverage is interesting, particularly since a historical base on this subject exists from the 1920s and 30s. Finally, the total effect of the 'Cold War ideology' on the American and European peoples and their political and social life is neglected within this sample.

The articles and dissertations on the passing of the Colonial Era give even less support to the role of contemporary history in explaining, or even narrating, a major event of the post-World War II era. More than 80 cultures changed from a dependent, colonial status (primarily of European powers) to the status of independent nation states but this fact would not be known from this sample of recent historical research. The applicable sources are shown in Appendix III, arranged geographically. The two subject areas where significant coverage is found are both instances where United States involvement was high; the Vietnam experience in South East Asia and this struggle for access to Middle East oil immediately following World War II. The more basic historical facts of what happens to a colonial power when it loses its empire and what happens when a less developed society is thrust into the 20th Century as a new nation-state was not of interest to the researchers represented in this sample.

It is thus necessary to inquire into the reasons that contemporary historical research declined after the mid-1950s, even though the events analyzed here extend significantly into the next two decades.<sup>16</sup> The first

and most obvious point is the previously discussed question of sources, particularly since the decrease in research effort after the early 1950s correlates positively with the availability of information from the State Department of the United States. If contemporary historical research into foreign policy is to be limited to archival sources, the mid-1950s cut-off point is logical.<sup>17</sup>

A key point, of course, is that scholars in general are writing well and definitively about contemporary events. The prestigious journal *Foreign Affairs* is an example. Many of the articles in this contemporary journal are from the pens of members of government (the U.S. and other nations), recent members of governments or from various institutes and think-tanks dealing with international events of current vintage. An examination of the articles appearing in the last five years shows that eight academic historians contributed articles of a contemporary bent. The number is not insignificant but is far short (by a factor of at least 4) of the number of political scientists or inter-disciplinary scholars published by this journal. Further, an examination of other scholarly journals which specialize in international relations without a specific discipline connection shows that the political scientists, sociologist economists, anthropologists, etc., are moving into this area with little apparent constraint.<sup>18</sup> These research scholars have no unique source of material and indeed their use of such techniques as content analysis of available publications together with the increased use of quantitative data is fully recognized as correct methodological techniques in historical research. Basically, these scholars have been using the information explosion of this communication age to challenge effectively a related phenomena of our time; the increased security restrictions on government information. The result has been particularly significant in investigating historical events within the more totalitarian countries where no official release of archival information can be expected within any reasonable future.<sup>19</sup>

The evidence thus supports the conclusion reached earlier in this paper; the availability of sources is not in itself a bar to scholarly



research on contemporary issues. The evidence also supports the earlier conclusion that perspective is the greater problem, particularly as it intrudes here in the matter of research methodology.

Landes and Tilley are pointing us in the right direction when they hold that the social scientist "... has been able to simplify his problem by exclusion of all but a few paramount variables ..." while the historian, in contrast, "... will always have a hard time; the matter to be studied is inherently complex ... and resistant to simplification. That ... makes the task harder ... it does not rule out a closer approach to the truth."<sup>20</sup>

A political scientist or sociologist would of course take considerable umbrage at a literal interpretation of this statement, holding that his work is not inherently simplified and that he too is a searcher for truth. Most of their empirically-based research in recent years is in search of a commendable objective; i.e., overlying theories that will explain and predict the human experience. But the emphasis in empirical research is on the well defined particular, usually examined in a researcher-defined environment. Further there is emphasis on the ability of others to replicate the research experiment, a requirement which further increases the need to define, and limit the problem. Much of this work has been productive—within the carefully defined limits of the investigation. However, a question remains—what is the role of the historical researcher in this area?

Early in this essay we were careful to avoid the 'relevance' factor in a definition of history. The purpose was to escape a tautological trap but the definition can be drawn too fine. If history also is the "... custodian of the collective memory" and thus in all societies functions as a primary vehicle for the socialization of each new generation then the historical treatment of comparatively recent events becomes necessary (and relevant).<sup>21</sup> The point is particularly important in teaching. A distinguished historian of the contemporary emphasizes this factor in speaking to the needs of the undergraduate. He argues, with perhaps some exaggeration, that events occurring three to four years before one

enters a university are "... as distant and unimaginable in the twentieth as they are in the twelfth century." But he makes a most cogent point when he continues that: "It is urgently necessary that contemporary history *with its emphasis on continuity as well as change* should not halt in 1940 or 1945 but should advance into the post-war years" (emphasis added).<sup>22</sup> The thirty-five to forty years old scholar may look at the world of fifteen or twenty years ago through the 'current events memory' of his own undergraduate days but today's student does not see these same events as part of his experience. To him they are definitely historical (even pre-natal and thus he rightfully asks for an historical approach in teaching, backed by sound historical research.

An even more compelling advocate of contemporary history may well be one of the greatest historians of them all, Thucydides, who wrote the history of the Peloponnesian War while it was still going on. He tells us the reason at the beginning of his account, "Thucydides, an Athenian, wrote the history of the war between the Peloponnesians and the Athenians; he began at the moment that it broke out, believing that it would be a great war, and more memorable than any that had preceded it."<sup>23</sup> An assumption that Thucydides would view the major events of today in the same light would seem to have some validity. He would probably agree that there was no rationale which requires that scholars of other disciplines massage information on contemporary happenings for fifteen to twenty years before a historian publishes his research on these same events.

In summary, it seems that the literature within the discipline supports the requirement for historical research in the contemporary time-period even though there seems to be a definite reluctance to publish articles or dissertations concerning the more recent events. Further, the basic problem seems to be not source material availability, but rather the question of perspective in the conduct of the research itself. This is not an easy task; a respected practitioner in the contemporary field, Alan Bullock, states the problem in words that can be regarded as either discouraging or challenging, depending upon one's point of view:



"For no one who wants a quiet scholarly life, remote from all but academic controversy, or who dreams of writing a definitive study would choose to work on the history of the past fifty years... it can never be a cloistered pursuit or an intellectual refuge."<sup>24</sup>

But if true understanding of our society requires the placing of events within a coherent narrative that emphasizes both commonalities and differences within and between historic periods, it would seem that the historian cannot avoid his responsibilities in the contemporary period.

The literature search conducted for this essay indicates that if the above premise is true, some encouragement of publication (as an indicator of research) in the contemporary area is needed. Three areas are suggested. First, more interest on the part of the major historical professional journals in publishing articles of a contemporary bent is certainly indicated. A second and related need is appropriate encouragement to try these comparatively new waters. Finally, both of these incentives may assist in solving the broader problem of cross-discipline research so that the contemporary 'information explosion' can be utilized more effectively. In this later area the historian, with his breadth of approach and expertise in relating the present and the past, would make a significant contribution.

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14. The information in this Appendix, and similar data concerning the number of dissertations, is provided only for general interest. Our specific interest in this study is in the *Content* of the articles and dissertations (i.e. qualitative, not quantitative).

15. University of Kansas, Microfilms International Comprehensive Index, 1978 Supplement—Social Science and the Humanities, Part 2.

16. Foreign policy is not the only contemporary event showing this syndrome. The listing of 1978 dissertations shows 54 titles related to the black experience in the U. S. Six are concerned with post-1945 events, 41 with pre-1945, 7 are not classified. Specifically there are more dissertations on the slavery period in the American south than on the civil rights movement of the 1950s and 60s.

17. The series of books published by the U. S. State Department known as The Foreign Relations of the United States has not yet reached 1955, it is doubtful if it will ever close the 25-year gap between date of source material and publication date. The Freedom of Information Act is opening up some official files; the procedures are both slow and administratively cumbersome but should improve. An informative discussion of the subject of government archives and archival research is contained in Richard W. Leopold, "The Historian and the Federal Government," *Journal of American History*, Vol. LXIV, No. 1 June 1977, pp. 5 - 23.

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# APPENDIX I Distribution of Articles

Time Period	American Historical Review	Journal of Modern History	Journal of American History	Journal of Contemporary History	Diplomatic History	Total
Post-1945 Cold War	(3)	(0)	(3)	(3)	(12)	(21)
Post-1945 colonization	(1)	(0)	(3)	(2)	(5)	(11)
Post-1945 her Subjects	(2)	(1)	(2)	(8)	(8)	(21)
Post-1945 Total	6	1	8	13	25	53
World War II	1	3	4	20	7	35
1919 - 1939	6	18	12	81	15	132
World War I	0	12	1	13	3	29
1900 - 1914	2	14	5	19	6	46
Pre-1900	47	69	46	7	14	183
at Classified according to Date	23	13	11	19	2	68
TOTALS	85	130	87	172	72	546

Note: Articles "Not Classified According to Date" Were of a general nature with either no reference to an not historical period or a reference so broad that an attempt to designate a specific time period would be meaningless.



## APPENDIX II

## THE COLD WAR

## World War II.

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Gormly, James. "In Search of a Cold War" Settlement: The London and Moscow Foreign Ministers Conferences and the Origins of the Cold War" (Dissertation, University of Connecticut, 1978).

Albert, Resis. "The Churchill-Stalin Secret 'Percentages' Agreement on the Balkans, October 1944" *American Historical Review*, Vol. LXXXIII No. 2 (April 1978).

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Sharp, Tony. "The Origin of the 'Teheran Formula' on Polish Frontiers" (*Journal of Contemporary History*, Vol. XII, No. 2, April 1977).

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Back, Gregory D. "The United States and Italy 1943-46: The Drift Toward Containment" (Dissertation, University of Kansas, 1973).

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## APPENDIX III

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# D. H. LAWRENCE'S VISION : INTEGRITY AND WHOLENESS OF AN INDIVIDUAL

Dr. ZAHIR J. KHATTAK

D. H. Lawrence's art is concerned with the wholeness of life ; it tries to recapture the individual's integrity. This is the most one can safely abstract from his works. But this is obviously an incomplete, if not an altogether vague, statement. If one generalizes it any further one is bound to land in a wrong territory which is full of such misleading valleys as that Lawrence stands for sex or primitivism. The truism that art is the profounder statement as compared to abstract ideas and views is particularly apposite for Lawrence's works. "Man can embody truth but he cannot know it" says W. B. Yeats.<sup>1</sup>

The fact that Lawrence's art proves recalcitrant to abstraction is its very *raison d'être* and an invitation to discuss his writing instead of ideas. His first work of importance, in terms of chronology, is *Sons and Lovers*. Paul Morel, the hero of the novel, is classically sick because of the damaging hold that his mother exercises upon him. His love for her incapacitates him to form any vital relationship with Miriam. The novel is autobiographical,<sup>2</sup> no doubt, but at the same time it is much more comprehensive than this term ordinarily suggests. Paul's integrity as an individual is a damaged one because of "the crippling love of a son for his mother"<sup>3</sup>—and that is his main difficulty. He lacks an inner core to fall back upon ; he measures everything from the stand of a divided personality. He gets himself back only when his mother dies. His tortured career is largely the consequence of the influence of a mother who is unfulfilled in life and makes her child the object of her unrealized ideals. The mother's possession of the child as a consolation for her personal failures and disappointments has tragic implications for the child, Paul. It obstructs the development of his personality ; he cannot meet the outside world for what it is.



His perspective on life is coloured, so to speak; it is not his but his mother's. He wants to take his mother along with him; this burdens him to death. For example, he loves Miriam because she is his mother-type, and so this love can never be a healthy one because he is engaged in the relationship neither with his own total personality nor is taking into account the personality of Miriam as Miriam (not Mrs. Morrel).

Lawrence's major statements about "this strange disease of modern life" to adapt a phrase from Mathew Arnold, and embodies in *The Rainbow* and *Women in Love*, though his other novels such as *Aaron's Rod* and *Rangaroo*, or his tales for that matter, are not the less important.

The scale of *The Rainbow* is vaster than any of his previous efforts. In this novel Lawrence pictures forth how—and through what stages—civilization has come to the present pass. Ursula Brangwen in the novel is a typical modern woman, with all the problems and weaknesses that go with the term 'modern' in Lawrence's vocabulary (Lawrence is not against modernism; but he dislikes the form it has taken). *The Rainbow* is written to show what went wrong with the individual and his psyche. The malaise is the result of the extension of the mind and the feelings that come with modern forces—an extension that includes many kinds of strain. The gradual deterioration and the consequent denials of life-values that have gone on in her ancestors affect Ursula in many complex ways. To illustrate this point one needs to go back to the novel and trace the spiritual and psychological factors that solidify towards the close of the novel, that is, in the life of Ursula. The older Brangwens are complete men—they are capable of "spontaneity and vigorous in their affirmation of life."<sup>4</sup> Tom Brangwen and Lydia can also take life as it is offered, though his Brangwen mother, who looked towards the life of ideas, has affected Tom somewhat. Tom marries Lydia because of the mystery that is in her; but he is also attracted by the gracious manner of the foreigner at the hotel<sup>5</sup> and this certainly gives an added charm to Lydia who is also a foreigner, for Tom. His love towards Anna is possessive at times, for instance, during Will's courtship of her, he strongly resents both of them.

However, he overcomes his personal problem of finding an anchorage for which he might have fastened on Anna, and celebrates her wedding with a speech that is an apostrophe to marriage.

When it comes to Anna and Will the deterioration of the individual's integrity has a destructive impact on their children. Will's demand on his child, Ursula, is excessive and it calls her into consciousness earlier than its appropriate time. As a child, Ursula does not have the strength to respond to his needs positively. Consequently, she suffers from a sense of guilt or failure; she loses self-confidence and is always uncertain of herself.

The socio-economic changes have also their direct bearing in the loss of selfhood. *The Rainbow* is an accurate history of English society from its beginning as an agricultural society to its twentieth-century industrial situation. The changes in the socio-economic aspect of the society—more education, fair choice of work and higher wages—have their effect on the individual's consciousness. The twentieth-century Ursula is a different girl from her mother and grandmother because, besides many other things, she is an educated woman and economically independent. The close-knit family life tied to the marshland of the Brangwens gives way to the rootless and isolated life of Ursula.

Rootless and isolated Ursula is, though it is characteristic of Lawrence's vitality, as F.R. Leavis describes it, that the novel does not end on a pessimistic note.<sup>6</sup> Lawrence, in spite of his insistence on the diseases of the modern world, believes in the possibility of its rehabilitation. The strength to revive is invariably present in his world and nowhere does he sound as hopeless as say, Samuel Becket. Who can revive the for-ever lost characters of *Waiting for Godot*? With Lawrence it is different. His novel suggests that if the enormous spread of consciousness can be combined with the old integrity, the result will be a great new achievement. Ursula's modernism is decidedly for the better in the scales of values. It is not only the rainbow-vision that she sees at the end but throughout her portrayal Lawrence has shown that she is continuously struggling to find her selfhood and the desired equilibrium—a wholeness of life.



The sincerity to her self that is so strong a mark of Ursula in *The Rainbow* is carried on to *Women in Love*. In this novel, too, her faithfulness to herself accounts for her positive attitude towards life. *Women in Love* is much more intensive in its delineation of the evils within that a modern man has to contend with. Gerald's main concern is with the idea of efficiency: Gudrun's sensuality is mindless—it is true neither to itself nor the object (be it Gerald or Loerke) on which it fastens. The extreme form of sensuality is also represented by Halliday and his group (Lawrence never lets go a chance to have a dig at the Bloomsbury Circle) or the African Statue.

Birkin and Ursula succeed because they are true to themselves. It is significant to note that Birkin violently attacks the word 'love'. He does so because he is skeptical of the traditional concept of love:

At the very last, one is alone, beyond the influence of love. There is real impersonal me, that is beyond love, beyond any emotional relationship. So it is with you [Ursula]. But we want to delude ourselves that love is the root. It isn't. It is only the branches. The root is beyond love, a naked kind of isolation, and isolated me, that does not meet and mingle, and never can.<sup>7</sup>

The kind of surrender to an ideal beloved that is characteristic of romantic love is loathsome to Birkin who we can safely assume Lawrence's mouth-piece on such matters. Birkin feels that the surrender to the woman negates one's personality. He is, in fact, at pains to redefine the term:

The point about love...is that we hate the work because we have vulgarised it. It ought to be prescribed, tabooed from utterance, for many years, till we get a new, better idea. (122)

He wishes to divest it of all the negative connotation. First, and foremost, Birkin wants to have his individualism intact: 'it was sex that turned a man into a broken half. And he wanted to be single in himself'. (191) He would approach Ursula with a healthy personality, so to speak, that does not lack in any vital aspect. He says to Ursula:

What I want is a strange conjunction with you...not meeting and mingling:—you are quite right:—but an equilibrium, a pure balance of two single beings:—as the star balances each other. (139)

So far I have been stressing Lawrence's interest in the individual's getting back his unity or integrity. But, in fact, Lawrence goes further than that. After the individual has recovered his 'self' he must form a relationship with a woman; otherwise 'the emptiness within' can never be satisfactorily filled in. The chapter 'Mino' in *Women in Love* is devoted to the image of a kind of relationship that Birkin would like to have with Ursula. Watching Mino's peculiar courtship of the she-cat Birkin observes:

But with Mino, it is the desire to bring this female cat into a pure stable equilibrium, a transcendent and abiding rapport with the single male. Whereas without him...she is a more stray, a fluffly sporadic bit of chaos. (142)

Birkin does believe in love but he sets the individual's wholeness of personality as a precondition for it. Once he has possessed that, then he must reach out towards others:

I do think...that the world is only held together by the mystic conjunction, the ultimate unison between people—a bond. And the immediate bond is between man and woman. (143)

So, Lawrence's individualism is different; it is not self-centredness. For all their outward show of confidence and attachment to great social ideas it is the people like Hermoine or Gerald who "could never fly away from himself, in real indifferent gaiety." (199) Ursula, in her silent dialogue with Hermoine, tells her:

What is the good of your talking about love—your nature spectre of a woman: How can you know anything when you don't believe? You don't believe in yourself and your own womanhood. ... (289)



Similarly the trouble with Gerald is that he does not "livingly believe" (345) in "any pure relationship with any other soul." Lawrence upholds the way that Birkin offers to Gerald :

The other way was to accept Rupert's offer of alliance, to enter into the bond of pure trust and love with the other man, and then subsequently with the woman. If he pledged himself with the man he would later be able to pledge himself with the woman ; not merely in legal marriage, but in absolute mystic marriage.(345)

The passage very strongly suggests that Lawrence believes in "a friendship whereby both men can combine resources their reserves of sanity and hope in mutual truth and commitment." In fact he is so insistent about it that some critics have accused him of favouring homosexuality. But what Lawrence is interested in is the wholeness of man or woman, first, and he thinks that a healthy relationship with another person ensures the continuance of one's integrity.

The loss of individual's integrity is also the theme of Lawrence's tales and short stories. The short novel or tale, "St. Mawr", exemplifies them all in their essentials. Lou, the heroine of this tale complains of the 'rotteness' of modern man. She thinks that man is no more a man ; he is all sham. The stallion, St. Mawr, is a perfect image of wholeness (though he has also been damaged somewhat by his previous master). St. Mawr is not a horse like others : he is different. Lawrence would like men to be different. Lou's comment, when she is comparing St. Mawr with men, are pertinent :

Just think of St. Mawr ! He seems a far greater mystery to me than a clever man. He's a horse. Why can't one say in the same way, of a man : He's a man ? There seems no mystery in being a man.

St. Mawr is so highly regarded by F.R. Leavis because Lawrence has found an apposite image to denote what he wishes to say. In this story Lawrence has made a major statement about the corruption of

modern world. Rico has no inner core ; the manby-family is like the people in Pompadour Cafe in *Women in Love*. The two servants are much below the level Lawrence would like his men to be. It is in effect like T.S. Eliot's "Wastland" though greater in scope and intent, as Leavis holds it to be.

Lawrence's novels or stories have to be lived through to make a real sense of them. He was always against dry intellectualism—though by no means anti-intellectual—and his deepest insights are always embodied in poetic images instead of abstract formulas. The horse's episode, the rabbit and the Mino in *Women in Love* or the stallion in *St. Mawr* (just discussed) or the fox in the story of that name are some of the instances of such symbols. Through these images Lawrence has conveyed his message : he wants back the mystery, spontaneity and the wholeness in life.

Lawrence is certainly a great believer in humanity but he wants to revive it through healthy individuals whose primary loyalties are to themselves as men and women, instead of attaching themselves to great social ideas, as it is only then that they can be of any real asset to it.

Motivation is one of the important factors in second language learning. Harmer (1987: 3) has defined it as "some kind of internal drive that encourages somebody to pursue a course of action." Gardner and Lambert (1959) have defined it as "an inner drive, impulse, attitude, a desire that moves one to a particular action and is dependent on human needs." Stern (1983: 385) defines it as the characteristic of learners "that initiates and maintains the learning process, or that leads to the acquisition of a second language as well as the maintenance and recovery of the first language." Gardner (1985: 34) states that "motivation refers to a complex of three characteristics which are attitudes towards learning the language, desire to learn the language, and motivational intensity." A careful analysis of these dimensions of motivation shows that the 'inner drive' is a common element among them.



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## CONTRIBUTION OF VARIOUS MOTIVATIONAL FACTORS TO L2 LEARNING AND APPLICABILITY OF SOME OF THEM IN ESL SITUATION OF PAKISTAN

SARFRAZ KHAN CHAUDHRY

## INTRODUCTION

Contribution of various motivational factors to L2 learning in general has been described in the light of the latest available research in the related field. At the end of this paper, it has been discussed whether factors like parental encouragement, motivating teachers, and teaching materials are available to all Pakistani learners of English as the second language of the country, and how far their effect on them is motivating or demotivating. A few suggestions have been made to make the learning of English language popular among the students and improve its falling standard.

## WHAT IS MOTIVATION?

Motivation is one of the important factors in second language learning. Harmer (1983: 3) has defined it as "some kind of internal drive that encourages somebody to pursue a course of action." Gardner and Lambert (1959) have defined it as "an inner drive, impulse, emotion, a desire that moves one to a particular action and is dependent on human needs." Stern (1983: 385) defines it as the characteristic of learners "that initiates and maintains the learning process, or that leads to the avoidance or rejection of learning; the stated reasons and perceived goals as well as the sub-conscious drives and needs that prompt and sustain the learning effort or lead to its inhibition or rejection." Gardner (1985: 54) thinks that "motivation refers to a complex of three characteristics which are attitudes towards learning the language, desire to learn the language and motivational intensity." A careful analysis of these definitions of motivation shows that the 'inner drive' is a common element among them.



It seems to be a powerful factor that makes the learners learn a second or a foreign language for one or other reason. Learning does not seem to occur in its absence.

"Motivation is one of the most important elements in learning. Without motivation, learning is not likely to take place. Although a course may be made up of well selected items, and these items repeated many times, if the learners are not motivated to learn there will be little learning" (Nation; 115).

### DIFFERENT TYPES OF MOTIVATION

#### Integrative Motivation

The type of motivation is primarily determined by the reasons for learning a second or a foreign language. Those who are interested in studying a second language in order to be able to identify with the target people, or because they are interested in the culture of the target people, are said to be integratively motivated.

#### Instrumental Motivation

Instrumental motivation occurs when the learner's goals for learning the L2 are functional. Learning directed at passing an examination, furthering career opportunities or facilitating study of other subjects through the medium of the L2 are the examples of instrumentally motivated learning.

The integrative and instrumental motivations were measured for the first time by Gardner and Lambert (1959). They published an article in 1959 in which they introduced a measuring instrument, the orientation index. This scale provided students with four reasons for studying French which they were asked to rank-order in terms of their personal importance. The students were classified as integratively or instrumentally oriented on the basis of the alternative they ranked as most important to them personally.

They were classified as integratively oriented if they emphasized one of the two reasons which stressed either meeting and conversing with more and varied people or as a means of better understanding French Canadian people and their way of life. The students were classified as instrumentally oriented if they emphasized that they were learning French because it would be useful in obtaining a job or if it made them better educated.

#### Extrinsic and Intrinsic Motivation

Harmer (1988: 3) also divides motivation into two main types: extrinsic motivation, which is concerned with factors outside the classrooms, and intrinsic motivation with what takes place in the classroom. Whereas Stevick, Earl W. (1976: 49) remarks that the distinction between 'instrumental' and 'integrative' motivation is a useful one but it would be a mistake to regard these terms as new synonyms for extrinsic and intrinsic motivation. But personally I feel that both instrumental and integrative motivations are extrinsic in nature.

#### Primary and Secondary Motivation

ISP Nation (1975: 115) puts forward the notion of primary and secondary motivation. He claims that motivation can come from the learner himself or it can come from outside the learner. The first type of motivation is called primary motivation. The learner feels that he wants to learn and finds the subject that he is studying an exciting one for him.

Secondary motivation comes from outside the learner. He feels that he must learn in order to pass a test, to avoid punishment, or to please his parents or teachers. He is not really interested in the learning himself but, in the result of the learning.

Jakoboritz (1970) equates an integrative orientation with an intrinsic interest in the language, and an instrumental orientation with an extrinsic interest. But both, "the integrative and the instrumental orientations are extrinsic in that they indicate that the language is being learned in order



to satisfy some goals not simply because of an intrinsic interest in the language itself." (Gardner 1985: 12).

### CONTRIBUTION OF DIFFERENT TYPES OF MOTIVATION TO L2 LEARNING

Up till now, the researchers have not succeeded to establish which type of motivation is the sole determining factor in achieving proficiency in L2 learning. All the studies which have been made so far give different results. In one study Gardner and Lambert (1972) found that an integrative motivation was related to successful learning of French in schools in both Canada and America, but that instrumental motivation was more important in the Philippines. They explained it in terms of the role L2 plays in the learner's community. Where the L2 functions as a 'foreign language', an integrative motivation helps; but where L2 functions as a 'second language', an instrumental motivation is more effective.

Lukmani (1972) also found that instrumental motivation could be more effective than integrative motivation. (Ellis 1986: 118-9).

Laine found a strong instrumental motivation for learning English as a foreign language in the secondary schools in Finland, but he also found that an integrative motivation was connected with high achievement. Spolsky (1969) found a significant correlation between proficiency in English and integrative motivation and he concluded "a person learns a language better when he wants to be a member of the group speaking that language."

Oller et al (1977) on the other hand, found in their study of the acquisition of English as a second language by Mexican-Americans in New Mexico that those students who were anti-integratively motivated towards the Anglo American majority and instrumentally motivated to learn English scored highest on the proficiency tests. However, these two types of motivation are not mutually exclusive. SLA rarely involves just an integrative or just an instrumental motivation. Burstall (1975) found

that the pupil's achievement in the NFER primary French project was closely associated with both types of motivation.

According to Nation, there is a strong correlation in primary motivation and learning itself rather than in the result of the learning. Harmer (1988) is of the opinion that it is the intrinsic motivation which plays "largest part in most student's success or failure as language learners."

### CONTRIBUTION OF ATTITUDES TO LANGUAGE LEARNING

Motivation and attitudes are important factors which help to determine the level of proficiency achieved by different learners. Attitude is considered to be a development of cognition and affect in human beings which is the result of environmental influence such as "parental and peer attitudes, contact with other people of interactive affective factors in the human experience", Gardner and Lambert (1959); Stern (1983: 372-7) classifies attitudes relevant to L2 learning into three types.

- (1) Attitudes towards the community and people who speak L2,
- (2) Attitudes towards language concerned, and (3) Attitudes towards languages and language learning in general. A learner's attitude to L2 learning is strongly influenced by those around him. If he has a positive attitude towards target language community, it will contribute to his proficiency in L2 learning.

In a study, Jacobson and Inhof (1974) demonstrated the importance of attitudes towards the target language community. In an investigation of 600 Protestant missionaries living in Japan who had at least two years of intensive language study, they found that Japanophilia was among the three best predictors of speaking proficiency for both men and women.

### 6. AGE

The age of the learners also effects their attitudes towards L2 learning. The more they advance in age, the less positive becomes their



attitude towards learning a L2. A study of Gardner and Symthe (1959) indicated that attitudes towards learning a second language become less positive with age. John L. Clark (1987: 73) suggests that it is better that F1 learning is started before adolescence sets in. Both young children and young adults are more likely to be open to other cultures than some adolescents, and it is at young age that emphatic goals are successfully promoted.

Students tend to have a favourable view of the target language community; if they study the target language for a longer period. Gardner and Smythe (1975a) found that attitudes towards the other community (French-Canadians) became more favourable the more years the students spent studying French.

#### PARENT'S ROLE IN DEVELOPING ATTITUDES TOWARDS L2 LEARNING

Parents seem to play a definite role in developing negative or positive attitudes in children towards L2 learning. According to Gardner, parents play two roles—active and passive. They play an active role when they encourage their children to do well, monitor their language learning performance and reinforce any success identified by school. They play a negative role when they agree that learning French is a waste of time.

#### ROLE OF SOCIO-ECONOMIC AND SOCIO-CULTURAL FACTORS IN MOTIVATION

Besides parental attitudes, socio-economic and socio-cultural factors also seem to influence the attitude of the learners towards the target language learning. If a foreign language is held in high esteem in a society for certain political or economic reasons, its learning will involve positive attitudes towards it among the learners, and proves a powerful motivation in itself. Therefore, the students come to language learning with positive or negative attitudes derived from the society in which they live, and these attitudes in turn influence their motivation to learn L2.

The psychological and social conditions prevailing in the language learning environment also play their part. If they are adverse, social and psychological distance between the learner and the target language community will increase. If the distance is less then the learner will acquire the target language and have a positive attitude towards it.

#### PERSONALITY'S ROLE IN MOTIVATION

Clark (1967) remarks that motivation seems to be "more a matter of individual personality." As a result of studying the native students patterns who were studying a foreign language in Scotland, Clark (1967: 212) concluded that "motivation seems to be more a matter of individual personality and teacher effect than was hypothesized... if class and home background are not significantly associated with pupil motivation, then it must be personal attitudes, personal goals, personal feelings of success and failure and intrinsic interest that is motivating the pupil.

The personality of a learner plays a vital role in L2 learning. Extrovert learners learn more rapidly and more successfully than introvert learners. The formers find it easier to make contact with other users of the L2, and therefore obtain more input. Krashen (1981a) argues that an outgoing personality may contribute to 'acquisition.'

The learner while learning L2 is completely dependent on others, the teacher in the language class and a friend in the L2 setting. He tries gradually to acquire his own internal language standards and sufficient competence to be relatively independent. But in order to achieve this goal, he must in the first place accept the infantile status, and must be prepared, "to make a fool of himself", without the fear of being rejected. Consequently the mature and mentally healthy individual who is detached, self critical, and has a sense of humour, can cope with this demand of language learning better than a rigid or status-conscious individual who suffers a sense of deprivation in the early stages of L2 learning. According to Stern (1983: 382) those students/learners who are more



relaxed and confident of themselves are assumed to be more proficient than those who become anxious in the language class.

### TEACHER'S ROLE IN CREATING MOTIVATION

The role of the teacher seems to be a pivotal one in creating motivation among the learners. According to Denis Gardner (1970), a teacher can motivate his students to learn a language if he possesses the following qualities :

- (a) He must be a good model in the use of foreign language, especially the spoken language.
- (b) He must be a good technician of language teaching in order to be able to :
  - (i) Make his pupil understand.
  - (ii) Correct their pronunciation and develop their communicative skills.
  - (iii) Stimulate activities in the foreign language.
- (c) He must also, and above all, be a good psychologist, well aware of all his pupils individual problems, capable of coping with them and of creating at all stages an atmosphere of mutual confidence and sympathy in the teacher-class relationship.

When these three qualities combine in a teacher, he can not only make his lesson interesting but also motivate the reluctant pupils to learn and provide a proof of his professional competence. Sharing the views of Denis Girard, Peter Strevens says that the language teacher is a model for the students, therefore, he should have adequate command of the language. "It is a source of discouragement, for a learner to have a teacher whose command of a language is inadequate, who makes obvious errors in the classroom, who is uncertain about meanings and grammatical patterns, who has no confidence in his own grasp of the language" (1983 : 74).

James J. Kohn is of the opinion that a teacher can motivate the students to learn if he acts upon the following suggestions which are some recent socio-linguistics research findings in ESL classes :

- (a) Try to set the students at ease. If they are relaxed about the idea of learning English, they will be willing to co-operate.
- (b) Provide a meaningful context for the introduction of new items, and engage students interest in this context.
- (c) Bring the focus of the class to the level of the students experiences. Allow them to feel that their experiences are valid, important, and relevant to the learning of English.
- (d) Encourage the students to use English for social reasons.
- (e) Encourage students to take a personal interest in each other, and to bring real life situations into class for discussion.
- (f) If you use drills, be sure the class also has a chance to use English for real communication, with real questions and answers.
- (g) Let your own enthusiasm for learning draw the students into the game of wanting to learn. Whenever possible organise class activities that you enjoy doing, and your pleasure will radiate to the students.
- (h) Encourage your students to take risks in English. Allow them to express whatever they have a need to say, even if they are not yet sure of the words.
- (i) Be adventurous but authoritarian in class. Give the students the feeling that they can depend on you to lead them to greater achievement in English Kohn, J. J. (1983: 50).

The ESL teacher is at liberty to select any one of the above suggestions and use them in his class because he is the best applied socio-linguist. He should use all motivational tactics that he has in his store to arouse the interest of his students. McDonough holds the opinion



that "interest is often regarded as being a major element in the teacher's store of motivational tactics. If the pupil's interest is aroused, perseverance, and so on, may be increased. Rewards, incentives, variety of class-room activity are further tactics available to the teacher, but their effects on success will depend in their quality, and on the pupils own scale of values, which in turn may have been partly formed by the effectiveness of other motivational tactics—in a sense, by the success of the teacher's advertising of the benefits of learning," McDonough (1986: 149).

### ROLE OF THE LEARNING MATERIALS IN MOTIVATION

In order to motivate the learners, the teaching materials/books should have the following qualities :

- (a) The teaching materials/books should be interesting in themselves, and students should enjoy reading them. A course book that satisfies all other criteria but fails this one 'is a reject'.
- (b) The vocabulary level must be appropriate. The grammatical structures to be taught should not be too great.
- (c) The learning material should be based on the background with which the learners are familiar. It may be linguistically suitable, and educationally desirable, but it is likely to demotivate the learners if its background is not within their 'imaginative grasp'.
- (d) The students must be able to see some relevance of the book to their own situation so that they get drawn to it.
- (e) There must be enough meat in it to make a detailed study of certain parts rewarding, and the subject matter must be suitable for classroom teaching (Bright and McGregor: 59—90).

Stevick (1971) thinks that if the learning materials have the following five qualities, they are likely to motivate the learners to learn the concerned language.

- (a) *Relevance* : The context of the learning material should be relevant to the language needs of the learners.
- (b) *Completeness* : It should include all the linguistic exponents which are necessary for the stated aims of the course.
- (c) *Authenticity* : The material should be both linguistically and culturally authentic.
- (d) *Satisfaction* : The students should leave each lesson feeling that they have benefited more than simply progressed.
- (e) *Immediacy* : The learning materials should be of such a nature that they can be used in a lesson straight away.

### ROLE OF PARENTS, TEACHERS AND TEACHING MATERIALS IN MOTIVATING THE LEARNERS OF ESL IN PAKISTAN

The above three factors which should normally have a positive effect on the learning of English as the second language, have a negative and demotivating effect on our students on account of the following reasons:

According to the latest record, literacy rate in Pakistan is 34 per cent. It can be concluded from this information that 34 per cent of the parents are educated and 66 per cent of them are illiterate. As a result of this higher rate of illiteracy, parental encouragement to learn English as the second language is available only to 34 per cent of the total number of the students in the country. 66 per cent of the uneducated parents, who mostly live in villages, are unaware of the social and economic benefits which the learning of English can bring to their children, and they play the least role in motivating them to learn it. However hard our teachers may try to create an interest for learning English in this major section (66 per cent) of the students, their efforts are neutralised when they go back to their homes from schools and colleges.

Consequently, in the circumstances, it should be our common duty as a nation to extend the facilities of modern education to all the citizens,



so *that* our students get supportive atmospheres at home, and the present alarming rate of failures in English is avoided.

The tendency to switch from the teaching of English literature to English language is rapidly gaining ground in Pakistan and the efforts of UGC to bring about this desired change are proving fruitful. However, the majority of our teachers who are at present teaching English at tertiary level, hold master's degrees in literature and cannot teach English language which has now become a scientific subject. They need training in ELT on war footing, so that they can develop to the full, the linguistic and communicative competence of our students. Our teachers have the teaching potential, it only needs to be developed through a planned training programme. The proposed training is a must because the teachers are not born, they are only made.

Moreover, according to the latest education policy, English has been declared as the second language of the country, and this "new role projected for English implies a new strategy in its learning as in its teaching.... English ought in future to be taught as a second language in a scientific way, in accordance with a more or less universally accepted way", Anjum (1983: 9).

The present textbooks of English taught at the tertiary level in the country are demotivating for our students. They are divorced from their immediate background and contain uninteresting teaching materials. They do not promote the four basic language skills which are a demand of our ESL situation. They are only edited and not written or adapted according to the needs of our students. Their dense information and difficult vocabulary hamper the reading comprehension of the students. There is no paucity of good textbook writers in the country. They should be paid a tempting amount of money for writing really good books in the light of the latest research in teaching techniques. Unless we train our ESL teachers, provide our students with need-based textbooks, and supportive home atmosphere, there seems little hope to improve the worsen-

ing standard of English and to popularise it among the majority of our students.

### CONCLUSION

It is one of the basic principles of language teaching in general to take the learner's needs, interests, attitudes, age and individual differences into consideration. The motivation of the learners is related to their needs and the reasons why they learn English. If the language teachers are aware of the motives of their students for learning English, they can reinforce that motivation through their teaching approach and materials.

In ESL situation of Pakistan, the communicative use of language is limited to the domain of classrooms only. It seems to be the important need of our learners. The teacher might create real lifelike situations in the classroom by introducing activities like role play and group work and provide the learners with an opportunity to use the language for social and interactive purposes. According to MacNamara (1973), "the really important part of motivation lies in the act of communication itself" rather than in integrative or instrumental motivation. What motivates SLA, is the pleasure experienced by the learners when they succeed in getting across their meanings. However, the ultimate success in learning L2 depends on the importance attached to it by the learner. Unless it is related to his needs there is little chance of any learning.

"Motivation that is dependent on the learner's learning goal is far less amenable to influence by the teacher than motivation that derives from a sense of academic or communicative success. In the case of the latter, motivation can be developed by careful selection of learning tasks both to achieve the right level of complexity to create opportunities for success and to foster intrinsic interest", Ellis, R. (1986 : 119).



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## DEVELOPMENT OF UNIVERSITY TEACHERS

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The modern universities perform manyfold functions such as teaching, conduct of research, dissemination of knowledge, transmission of culture and services to the community. In the dynamic world of today these functions undergo a continuous change, which obviously requires continuous professional development on the part of university teachers.

Our universities, however, do not demand any sort of professional training, pre-service or in-service, on the part of teachers. However, for the last few years the University Grants Commission has been arranging short-term in-service courses for newly appointed teachers. Similarly, Peshawar University recently developed a training programme for the newly appointed university and college teachers. These programmes are essentially restricted to providing short-term training in the early years of service. But, in view of the continuous growth of knowledge, constant changes taking place in the educational system and the increasingly creative character of educational activities, it does not seem possible to equip the prospective teacher with knowledge and skills which would be sufficient for his whole professional life. Therefore, initial preparation for the profession, if any, should be considered only as a first fundamental stage in the process of continuing teacher education so that they can train people not only how to perform duties, but also how to actively participate in the changing system and contribute to the growth of the system. This objective can only be achieved through actualizing and implementing the development concept of teacher.

## The Concept of Development

The concept of development has its roots in the world of business and industry where it is used for the training of people after they are employed



in the industrial organizations. It is also used by civil service and military organizations. In the commercial world, 'staff development' concerns the means which will improve the efficiency and effectiveness of the individual to achieve the goals of the organization. Thus, the professional development mainly aims at assisting individuals and organizations to relate more effectively to social needs and aspirations, providing conditions which motivate and maintain the interest of individuals to help enhance the organizational goals, and to assist in harmonizing individual and institutional goals.

In the education scene, the concept of development of teachers can be viewed as a chain of activities along a continuum for improving the knowledge and skills in order to avoid any conflict or gap between the institutional requirements and personnel qualifications. It would enable teachers to understand new social demands and the institutional structure and at the same time to contribute toward the growth of the institution.

The emerging concept of development of a teacher is a concept of continuous growth of the teacher which emphasises that he must be a life-long learner engaged in the systematic acquisition, renewal and upgrading of knowledge, skills and attitudes in response to the constantly changing conditions with the ultimate goal of achieving self-fulfilment. For this purpose all available education modes including formal, non-formal and informal are used.

#### Need and Concept of Teachers Development at the Higher Level

The need for the life-long development of teachers at the higher level can be argued with reference to the various roles of a university teacher, such as :

1. The role of teachers in higher education requires them to be life-long learners, since part of their professional responsibilities is to conduct research and contribute innovations to their own subject and its teaching or at least to continuously update the knowledge of their discipline.

2. The modern teacher is not a 4 × 2 traditional teacher, that is, he cannot confine his teaching to four walls of the classroom and two covers of the textbook. He must give a positive response to innovations in content and methodology. He should also know and use innovative approaches regarding delivery system of the content.

3. Onushkin<sup>10</sup> conducted a survey of various universities in fifty countries of the world and concluded that the use of innovations in instructional methods and techniques is not upto the desired level, particularly in the universities of developing countries. This establishes greater need in these countries for implementing the development concept of teacher in order to encourage them towards positive response to change and innovation.

4. In modern times, especially in developing countries, it is becoming desirable to relate learning to productive labour as against elite artificiality. This is possible only when teachers are well aware of the world outside their educational environment. They should go beyond theoretical knowledge and have information about practical details and recent developments in areas in which they are content experts. This suggests an approach to professional development that would involve closer links between universities and the work-place. This may also involve exchange of personnel between universities and business or industry.

5. Teachers have to play roles other than teaching and research, such as policy making and administration, etc. Therefore, a programme of continuous development for teachers would enable them to play an effective role by understanding the institutional structure, context and philosophy.

6. Implementation of the development concept of teachers would enhance the personal satisfaction gained by teachers by making full use of their capabilities throughout their career.

7. Development activities would help to improve communication with students, develop personal relationship with them and encourage them to contribute to the maintenance of an ideal academic community.



8. Generally, it is at university and higher education level that educational changes are initially elaborated before filtering down to other levels of education. The same should be true about the concept of life-long education which has mainly evolved during the last two decades. The idea is still at the development stage but is accepted by most nations of the world, developed and developing. In developed countries it has emerged as a formal and diversified field since the 1970's.

Considering the above mentioned needs Berguist and Phillips<sup>3</sup> recommended that faculty development programmes should include three components: instructional development, personal development and organizational development. Instructional development includes activities such as curriculum development, teaching, diagnosis and training. The second category encompasses activities to promote faculty growth in areas like interpersonal skills, training, and career counseling. The organizational development aims at the improvement of institutional environment for teaching and decision making both for faculty and administrators. Team building and managerial development are also part of organizational development.

#### Strategies and Methods for Development

Teachers require different types of development activities with the progression in their professional life. Since university teachers are employed without any training in teaching methodology and related subjects, pre-service training in these areas becomes somewhat indispensable. Again, some orientation programmes would also be desirable. After putting a service of three to five years, they need refreshment and reorientation. At this stage it is also desirable to make an assessment to reflect their work and in the light of this evaluation determine the direction of their career. Many of the teachers would need to upgrade their qualifications through formal degree programmes. Apart from this, there would seem to be the need for part-time/full-time studies in the form of advanced seminars, post-doctoral work, etc. Generally, after putting a

service of approximately ten years, a number of teachers will need to re-equip themselves for new and substantial duties which will require of them leadership and management in various forms.

A variety of methods and techniques can be employed for carrying out development programmes. These methods can be grouped under two broad models:

1. Development through formal courses: A formal training course is the one where a number of people participate at one time and place for a formally set activities in the light of certain objectives laid down by the training organization and/or participants. Formal courses can be:

- (i) full-time, part-time and sandwich;
- (ii) sequential, modular and one-off;
- (iii) general and specialized;
- (iv) credit and non-credit; and
- (v) voluntary and compulsory

An exception to the above definition of the formal course is the 'distance teaching' course where time and place are not a common factor to the trainees.

For any one of the above courses, a number of methods can be applied alone or in combination. The pivotal point of all these methods should be what Knowles<sup>8</sup> calls, 'andragogy' in contrast to 'pedagogy'. 'Andragogy' means the methods of teaching which are more suitable to adults. These methods can include workshops, conferences, seminars, participant training, practice oriented training, group and individual projects, etc.

2. Development through Self-Instructional or Life-Long Education Model: Formal courses contribute to the professional growth of teachers by improving their efficiency and in many cases by earning higher degrees in their field. But these courses lack the component of continuity and self-activity. The best model for such purpose is a model based on



life-long education concept where emphasis is on the individual teacher who is regarded as being responsible for his own training and development. The model can also be called a self-training model. The model is based on the assumption that teachers are autonomous self-directed individuals. They have the freedom of making their own choices about their development. Moreover, the problems are self-designed and activities are self-directed. A wide variety of activities suited to individual needs are possible. However, individual counseling is provided either through an academic counselor or a senior professor appointed as mentor.

Centra (1978) conducted a study for the identification of the faculty development activities in U.S.A. He surveyed approximately 2,600 degree granting institutions including colleges and universities. The types of development activities identified were :

1. Master teachers and colleague interaction. Senior faculty worked closely with the new teachers and provided them consultation on teaching or course improvement in formal as well as informal settings.
2. Individual Instructional Assistance Practices. Specialists from outside or from within the university assisted individual faculty members in course design, teaching strategies, audio-visual aids, testing and instructional technology. The classroom visitation by instructional resource persons, simulation procedures to help faculty practice new skills in the use of in-class video tapes were also included in this category.
3. Workshops, seminars and similar presentations were used to explore methods or techniques of instruction.
4. Grants and travel funds. Travel funds for conferences, funds for instructional improvement projects, bringing visiting scholars to the campus or visiting other places to review their programmes were some examples of this category.

5. Assessment programmes. Assessment of teachers with formal ratings by colleagues and students were used for professional development.
6. Traditional practices. Faculty exchange, unpaid leave of absences, sabbaticals and lighter teaching loads for new faculty were traditional ways of renewing and developing faculty.
7. Publicity. Annual teaching awards and the circulation of news letters or articles pertaining to teaching particularly informing them about available development activities was used as a tool for development.

#### Teachers Development at the Punjab University

A survey of the country's leading and the oldest university (Punjab University) was conducted in order to identify the current development of university teachers. A questionnaire was given to 130 teachers of the university out of a total population of 315 teachers. Ninety teachers responded. Teachers were divided into four major groups, i.e., natural sciences, professional subjects, social sciences and humanities. The analysis of data indicated that teachers' professional enhancement activities were mostly related to the enrichment of content and curriculum which is only one component of instructional development. The methodological and pedagogical aspects were neglected. The other two areas namely personal and organizational development were totally ignored. The data is presented under three main headings, development activities, development facilities and recommendations of the teachers for development and growth.

#### Development Activities

The development activities of the Punjab University teachers mainly included the earning of higher degrees, writing articles, participation in conferences and workshops, and occasional informal talk with colleagues. The detail of such activities is given below :



1. At the time of employment only about 18 per cent of the respondent teachers had Ph.D. degree. Another 29 per cent earned Ph.D. during their service. The proportion of on-the-job Ph.D. earning teachers was the highest among humanities' teachers and the lowest among the teachers of professional colleges and institutes.
2. Only six per cent of the teachers (excluding IER) have some pedagogical training which they received at University Grants Commission or at universities abroad.
3. Most of the teachers (80 per cent) contributed articles in journals, magazines and newspapers. The proportion of non-contributors was the highest among teachers of professional colleges and institutes followed by humanities and social sciences. The number of contributions per teacher averaged to about six with a very few prolific writers.
4. About 86 per cent of the teachers got a chance to attend or participate in national/international conferences, workshops and seminars.
5. The teachers expressed that they occasionally discuss academic matters informally with their colleagues but no formal meetings or structure existed for the purpose.

#### Development Facilities

According to this survey, university teachers were generally not happy with the development facilities provided by the university. Nature and extent of development facilities at the university are :

1. The teachers who earned on-the-job higher degrees were either granted study leave (43 per cent) or allowed such pursuit as part time (57 per cent),
2. Teachers expressed that it was quite difficult to get their articles published as the number of journals published by the university was insufficient.

TABLE 1  
Development of University Teachers through Earning Higher Degrees

Broad Areas	Total No.	Qual. at joining		Ph. D.	Worked Ph.D. During Job		Working on Ph.D.	Have Short Pedagog. Training
		M.A./M.Sc.			No.	% of M.A./M.Sc.		
Natural Sciences	12	8		4	3	37.5	Zero	1
Humanities	31	25		6	10	40.0	3	2
Social Sciences	26	23		3	9	39.1	2	2
Professions	21	18		3	4	22.2	1	Zero*
Total No.	90	74		16	**26	—	6	5
Per cent		82.2		17.8	—	28.9	6.7	5.6

\*Excluding IER

\*\*Eleven got Study Leave, fifteen worked while on job.



TABLE 2  
Publication and Information Dissemination Activities of the Punjab University Teachers

Broad Areas	Total No.	Published Articles					Journals for Publication					Participation in Conferences, Seminars/Workshops				
		More than 15					At the Univ. Outside Univ.					Zero 1-5 6-10 11-15				
		Zero	1-5	6-10	11-15	%	Yes	%	Yes	%	Zero	1-5	6-10	11-15	More than 15	
Natural Sciences	12	Zero	2	2	3	5	6	50.0	10	83.0	2	7	3	—	—	
Humanities	31	7	4	5	3	12	12	38.7	19	61.3	—	11	8	3	4	
Social Sciences	26	4	9	7	1	5	10	38.5	12	46.1	8	11	6	1	—	
Professions	21	7	6	4	1	3	4	19.0	6	28.6	3	14	1	3	—	
Total No.	90	18	21	18	8	25	32	35.6	47	52.2	13	43	18	7	4	
Per cent	100	20.0	23.3	20.0	8.9	27.8	35.6	47	52.2	14.4	47.8	20.0	7.8	4.4		

3. The development material as required was not available to teachers. Recent books are not purchased on time by the university. Professional journals, particularly international journals are generally not subscribed to. The condition was comparatively better in departments of natural sciences and worst in professional subjects.
4. No facility or organizational structure existed for the training of newly appointed teachers at department or university level.
5. Teachers were generally not happy with the lengthy and labourious procedure for getting permission to participate in workshops and conferences.
6. The comparative analysis of data leads to a conclusion that teachers of the natural sciences have better development opportunities and facilities.

#### Suggested Development Activities

The teachers did not suggest any formal organizational structure or institution for their continuous development. They, however, suggested various activities and facilities which can be helpful in the professional growth of teachers.

1. Approximately sixty per cent of the teachers were of the view that regular faculty meetings be held at department level to discuss academic matters.
2. More refresher courses, seminars, workshops and conferences were suggested by forty per cent of the respondents.
3. Teachers were positively willing to accept senior teachers as mentors and recommended that such an arrangement may be highly valuable to new teachers.
4. Need for new, recent books and journals was expressed by 38.9 per cent of the teachers.



TABLE 3  
Opinion of the University Teachers about the Development Facilities at the University

Broad Areas	Total No.	Suff. new Books available		Suff. Journals available		Faculty Meetings Held		Juniors Training		Contact with Rtd. Teachers	
		Yes	%	Yes	%	Yes	%	Yes	%	Yes	%
Natural Sciences	12	6	50.0	8	75.0	1	8.3	8	66.7	5	41.7
Humanities	31	13	41.9	10	32.2	6	19.4	12	38.7	2	6.5
Social Sciences	26	6	23.1	9	34.6	7	26.9	10	38.5	8	30.8
Professions	21	8	38.1	6	28.6	3	14.3	3	14.3	4	19.0
Total	90	33	36.7	33	36.67	17	18.9	33	36.7	19	21.1

- Other activities recommended by the teachers include visits and exchange programmes with other Pakistani universities, scholarships and exchange programmes with foreign universities, and more incentives for research. About fifteen per cent (excluding IER) teachers recommended that some sort of pedagogical training is essential for effective teaching.

### Recommended Development Model

On the basis of existing development practices in developed countries and the current practices in Pakistan a comprehensive policy is needed not only to establish and actualize the need for pre-service teacher training at the university level but also to ensure that teacher education is recognized as a continuous and coordinating process which begins with pre-service education and continues throughout the teacher's professional career fostering the concept of life-long learning. Following measures may be adopted for the purpose :

- Faculty training institution for in-service training after employment should be established at federal level. University Grants Commission has started a three months programme for newly appointed teachers. This programme while appreciable as a starting point is not sufficient even for the limited objectives formulated by the University Grants Commission. These objectives state that the course will provide vigorous training in teaching methods, learning procedures, assignments and tests, professional ethics, aspects of university and college life dealings with students and colleagues, administrative procedure, use of libraries, etc. The courses designed to meet the objectives include education, academic profession, psychological basis of education, strategies of teaching, and introduction to research methods.<sup>14</sup> Comparing the objectives and courses, it is easy to conclude that the aspects given major emphasis in the objectives (teaching methods, modern instructional technology, assessment procedures, assignments and tests) cover only about one fifth of the training programme. This is, perhaps, because of the short duration of the programme.



TABLE 4  
Development Activities suggested by the Punjab University Teachers

Broad Areas	Total No.	Appoint Seniors as Mentors	Hold Faculty Meetings	Mo. Books and Journal	Conf. Work-shop, Seminars	Refresher Courses	Visits other Countries	Visit other Pak. Univ.	Incentives Scholarships	Facilities	Training in Pedagogy	Res. Facilities.
Natural Sciences	12	3	6	4	4	4	1	3	1	2	2	2
Humanities	31	10	16	10	10	10	3	10	2	2	2	2
Social Sciences	26	11	20	14	11	11	1	8	7	5	3	3
Professions	21	8	11	7	11	11	1	4	2	3	2	2
Total No.	90	32	53	35	36	36	5	25	12	12	12	9
Per cent	100	37.8	58.9	38.9	40.0	40.0	5.6	27.8	13.3	13.3	13.3	10.0

It is suggested that the programme should be extended over a period of one year. Total period should be divided into three major parts—initial six months at the faculty training institution for initial intensive training in teaching methodologies and the related fields, next three months for teaching in their relevant departments under the guidance of a senior teacher with the specific purpose of enriching the content knowledge, and the last three months should be utilized visiting other universities, synthesizing and reflecting upon the various aspects of training.

2. Other than in-service training after employment, a life-long development centre for teachers should be set up at each university. The aims of this centre should be to :

- organize and arrange formal courses for teachers' development ;
- serve as clearing house on new knowledge, methods of teaching and other instructional technology ;
- familiarize teachers with self-directed or self-instructional methods ;
- provide information about resources and facilities that teachers can use for their development ;
- identify and recognize resource persons in various fields and provide the information to concerned quarters ; and
- provide a meeting place for teachers.

3. The life-long instructional development model should be implemented at university and department level. For this purpose, good teachers from amongst the senior teachers should be identified, recognized and appointed as mentors or counselors. Necessary resources and institutional standing should be provided to this programme. Other than senior faculty from the same department, specialists from outside should also be engaged to work individually with teachers.

4. Each university should establish linkage with the world of work



outside the university to give practice-oriented training and experience to teachers as well as to students.

5. System of sabbatical and secondments should be introduced for successful linkage with the world of work outside the university and to help teachers pursue other development activities.

6. The university should establish linkage with the other universities within and outside the country. Every teacher should get an experience of exchange, even if for a small period, after every five years.

7. Inter university seminars, workshops, and conferences should be arranged to explore and familiarize new instructional methods and technology alongwith the introduction of content innovations and enrichment.

8. Travel funds for university teachers should be increased so that they could participate in development activities at other universities.

9. The recommendation for teaching awards made in the Education Policy 1980, should be implemented and the proportion of such awards should be increased.

10. A bulletin or newsletter should be published by the university and also by the University Grants Commission to publicize the available development activities.

11. Display of research and other publications should be made a regular feature.

12. A centre for instructional technology should be established at each university where all new media and technology be made available for use.

13. Speedy procedure for the purchase and supply of latest books should be devised and adopted by the libraries.

14. The university must subscribe to the national and foreign journals according to the essential need of each department.

15. Assessment of teachers with formal confidential ratings by students should be done annually. The data may be analyzed at a central place and necessary feedback may be provided to the concerned teachers.

16. Funds for publication and dissemination of knowledge should be increased. More journals may be published by the university in order to provide better chances for teachers to get their work published.

17. More facilities and grants for research should be provided by the university to departments and individual teachers.



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## CONTENTS

	Page
I. A STUDY OF OCCUPATIONAL VALUES AND ORGANIZATIONAL ATTRACTIVENESS	
	<i>Dr. A. R. Jafari</i> .. 1
II. COLONIALISM AND THE COLD WAR : THE LIMITS OF CONTEMPORARY HISTORY	
	<i>Dr. Sadiq A. Gill</i> .. 45
III. D. H. LAWRENCE'S VISION : INTEGRITY AND WHOLENESS OF AN INDIVIDUAL	
	<i>Dr. Zahir J. Khattak</i> .. 65
IV. CONTRIBUTION OF VARIOUS MOTIVATIONAL FACTORS TO L2 LEARNING AND APPLICABILITY OF SOME OF THEM IN ESL SITUATION OF PAKISTAN	
	<i>Sarfraz Khan Chaudhry</i> .. 73
V. DEVELOPMENT OF UNIVERSITY TEACHERS	
	<i>Dr. Mumawar Mirza</i> .. 87