

STUDY GUIDE

BASIC CONCEPTS IN SOCIAL SCIENCES

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Part I & II

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Part II = Unit 10-18



Department of Mass Communication
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INTRODUCTION

Social Sciences have become central to understanding, life, society, men and matter. mass communication students have to have a working familiarity with social science concepts. Importance of social science concepts for would-be journalist and for mass communication researcher can never be over emphasized. A journalist who is basically in the business of reporting social phenomenon cannot adequately perform his role without recourse to social sciences. A journalist has also to interpret contemporary society through a repertoire of social scientific concepts for to-day's informed readers and users of information. This he can only do if he himself can understand and interpret society.

Similarly, a mass communication researcher is in the business of studying social phenomenon and generating standardized knowledge in issues so that mass communication process is properly understood and the power of mass media is properly utilized for national objectives. In contemporary world, this is done through the use of social scientific theories and methods. The objectives of the present course are geared toward equipping would-be journalist to play the aforementioned roles. The topics are to provide a rudimentary understanding of basic concepts in social sciences disciplines. Students are expected to build on these concepts and further expand the conceptual repertoire through supplementary studying on their own.

This study guide has been produced for a full credit course on "Basic Concepts in Social Sciences" which is a compulsory part of the master's programme in mass communication. In order to provide better insight to the students, special care has been taken to explain all the major areas of the subject in a capsulated way but in easy to understand language. The study guide provides a learning track primarily to orient the students about the key concepts of the subject. Students would be required to do elaborate study from the supplemental reader and suggested readings given at the end of each unit in this study guide.

The study guide has been segmented into four distinct areas of social sciences. The first part containing five units deals with the conceptual definitions of sociology, culture, society, social institutions and socio-cultural change. The second part contains four units that deals with the basic operational economics. This part provides information on monetary systems, balance of payment, foreign exchange and stock market and its operations in Pakistan's economic scene. The third part of this study guide consists of five units. It deals with the area of social psychology. It gives information on the conceptual clarity, self and socialization, social influence and social role, attitude and attitude change and collective behavior. The last part containing four units provides information on the key areas of political science and the process and functions of government.

All the eighteen units in the study guide have been written, reviewed and edited by the prominent experts and reputed teachers of the subject belonging to all parts of the country. In the production of this study guide, I am greatly indebted to Dr. Fazal Rahim Khan, Chairman, Mass Communication Department, AIOU whose constant guidance made this study guide successfully materialized. I owe my special thank to Mr. Bakht Rawan, lecturer, Mass Communication Department AIOU for his thought-provoking discussion in conceptualising core issues of this project. Mr. Abdul Nabi Brohi and Mr. Mohammed Naem Ahmed deserve full appreciation for their helping hands in the office

chores. Last but not the least, my thanks go to all resource persons who were involved in writing, reviewing, editing, composing and designing of this book.

I hope, the students would find the study guide relevant and effective for their studies. I shall be grateful for any kind of feedback to make this study guide more coherent and refined to bring it closer to the academic need of the students.

Wish you all the best.

Syed Abdul Siraj
(Course Coordinator)

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Economics

- Monetary System
- Balance of Payment and Foreign Exchange
- Stock Market and its Operation
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Social Psychology

- Introduction to Social Psychology
- Self and Socialization
- Self Influence and Social Roles
- Attitude and Attitude Change
- Collective Behaviour

Political Science

- The Nature of State
- The forms of Government
- Branches of the Government
- The Process and Function of Government

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UNIT-1

PART ONE

INTRODUCTION TO SOCIOLOGY

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1. OBJECTIVES

After reading this unit along with the suggested readings, you should be able to:

1. Explain the basic concepts of Sociology;
2. Discuss the various characteristics of Sociology;
3. Differentiate applied science from pure sciences;
4. Differentiate the subject matter of Sociology from other social sciences;
5. Identify different fields of Sociology and
6. Highlight the major theoretical perspectives of Sociology.

2. SUMMARY OF THE MAJOR TOPICS

2.1 Historical Perspective of Sociology

Toward understanding the definition of Sociology — All inquiries were once a part of philosophy, that great mother of the sciences, and philosophy embraced them all in an undifferentiated and amorphous fashion. One by one, however, with the growth of Western civilization, the various sciences cut the apron strings, as it were, and began to pursue separate and independent courses. Astronomy and physics were among the first to break away, and were followed thereafter by chemistry, biology, and geology. In the nineteenth century two new sciences appeared: psychology or the science of human behaviour; and sociology, or the science of human behaviour; and sociology, or the science of human society. Thus, what had once been cosmology, a subdivision of philosophy, became astronomy; what had once been natural philosophy became the science of physics; what had once been mental philosophy, became the science of psychology; and what had once been social philosophy, became the science of *sociology*. In the nineteenth century a French philosopher named Auguste Comte worked out, in a series of books, a general approach to the study of society and recommended that the study of society become the science of society.

"Sociology" is composed of two words: *Socius*, (Latin word) meaning companion or associate; and *logos*; (Greek word) meaning word. In the latter half of the century, Herbert Spencer adopted the word "*sociology*" in the title of his work.

2.2 Definition of Sociology

The subject has been looked from various points of view and now it is an opportune time to define the subject properly. According to P.A. Sorokin "sociology is a generalizing science of socio-cultural phenomena viewed in their generic forms, types, and manifold interconnections." (Bierstedt, 1970. 3-28) *Sociology* is the scientific study of human society and social behaviour. The subject matter of sociology is huge and complex, and the knowledge produced by sociological research is still imperfect in many ways. However, it has taught us a great deal about ourselves. (RotarTson, 1977 :3)

No formal definition of sociology is very satisfactory. Short definitions don't really define; long definitions are clumsy. Yet a definition of some sort is needed, and sociology is often defined as the scientific study of human social life. Human beings behave differently from other animals. They have unique forms of group life; they pursue customs, develop institutions, and create values. Sociology applies scientific methods to the study of these phenomena in the research for scientific knowledge.

Sociology concentrates its study upon the group life of human beings and the product of their group living. (HurTon and Chester 1984: 25-27) The sociologist is especially interested in the customs, traditions, and values which emerge from group living, and in the way group living is, in turn, affected by these customs, traditions, and values. *Sociology* is interested in the way groups interact with one another and in the

processes and institutions which they have developed.

2.3 Characteristics of Sociology

Sociology is first of all a *social science* and not a natural science because it deals with the social universe not with the physical universe. In the second place, sociology is a *categorical*, not a normative, discipline because it confines itself to statements about what is, not what should be or ought to be. Sociology is a *pure science*, not an applied science because the immediate goal of sociology is the acquisition of knowledge about human society, not the utilization of that knowledge. The relations between pure and applied sciences can be seen more clearly, if they are described in the following fashion:

Pure sciences	Applied sciences	Pure sciences	Applied sciences
Physics	Engineering	Mathematics	Accounting
Chemistry	Pharmacy	Botany	Agriculture
History	Journalism	Economics	Business
Sociology	Administration		Social work

A fourth characteristic of sociology is that it is a relatively *abstract science* and not a concrete one. It means that sociology is not interested in the concrete manifestations of human events but rather in the form that they take and the patterns they assume. For example, in distinguishing sociology from history, that sociology was concerned, not with particular wars and revolutions but with war and revolution in general as social phenomena.

A fifth characteristic of sociology is that it is a *generalizing* and not a particularizing or individualizing science. It seeks general laws or principles about human interaction and association, about the nature, form, content, and structure of human groups and societies, and not as in the case of history, or particular events. For example, sociology is not interested in the wars between Pakistan and India, but in the sociological principle that external aggression is one way to intensify the internal solidarity of a group.

A sixth characteristic of sociology is that it is both a *rational* and an *empirical sciences*.

Finally, a seventh characteristic of sociology is that it is a *general* and not a special science. In other words, sociology studies those phenomena that are common to all human interaction. This point may be clarified by the following formula:

Economic	a, b, c, d, e, f
Political	a, b, c, g, h, i
Religious	a, b, c, j, k, l
Legal	a, b, c, m, n, o

In all these phenomena, whether economic or political or religious, the same a, b, c occur. For quick reference, these categories or canons are arranged in a series of opposing pairs and *italicize* and underline those logical characteristics that pertain to sociology:*

<i>Social</i>	Natural
<i>Categorical</i>	Normative
<i>Pure</i>	Applied
<i>Abstract</i>	Concrete
<i>Generalizing</i>	Particularizing
<i>Rational</i>	<i>Empirical</i>
<i>General</i>	Special

2.4 Sociology as a Science

A science may be defined in at least two ways:

- (i) A science is a body of organized, verified knowledge which has been secured through scientific investigation
- (ii) A science is a method of study whereby a body of organized, verified knowledge is discovered. Actually, these are the two ways of saying much the same thing.

If the first definition is accepted, then sociology is a science to the extent that it has developed a body of organized, verified knowledge which is based on scientific investigation. To the extent that sociology forsakes myth, folklore, and wishful thinking and has based its conclusions on scientific evidence, it is a science. If science is defined as a method of study, then sociology is a science to the extent that it uses scientific methods of study. All natural phenomena can be studied scientifically, if one is willing to use scientific methods. Any kind of behaviour – is a proper field of scientific study.

During human history, few of our actions have been based on verified knowledge, for people through the ages have been guided mainly by folklore, habit, and guesswork. Until a few centuries ago, very few people accepted the idea that we should find out about the natural world by systematic observation of the natural world itself, rather than by consulting oracles, ancestors, or institution. This new idea created the modern world. A few decades ago we began acting on the assumption that this same approach might also give useful knowledge about human social life. (Horton and Hunt, 1984: 13-14)

An important aspect of the sociological viewpoint is that it is basically scientific in character. Sociologists try to study human social behavior by using objective techniques; it is, this commitment to the scientific method that makes sociology a scientific discipline. Sociologists do not accept insight or intuition or common sense alone in answer to their questions. They seek scientific evidence.

Sociologists gather this evidence on ways similar to those used by natural scientists. They collect and analyze verifiable data; they keep careful records of their observations; they try to control the conditions surrounding the subject under study. Like

natural scientists, sociologists strive to present findings that are not biased by subjective judgement and human emotion. However, human beings are not insensitive objects that can be scientifically manipulated; they have values, consciousness, and feelings. The methods of scientists alone are inadequate to produce a full understanding of the human experience. There remains on much sociological work, therefore, the stamp of the humanist, marked by insight, empathy, and philosophical speculation. It is the interplay between scientific and humanistic approaches that vitalizes much of contemporary sociological thought.

To scientists, truth is not absolute – an unchanging, all-encompassing set of laws-- but it is relative to the special circumstances under which it was discovered, demonstrated, and formulated. This principle is particularly applicable to sociological truths, which are almost always generalizations based on incomplete evidence. Conscientious sociologists, therefore, indicate the limitations of their findings.

Sociologists are very careful in their findings and very selective in using words. They do not say, for example, "All women want to be married "; instead they say, "The majority of American women now living, who are between the ages of twenty and fifty-five, have expressed a favourable attitude toward the possibility of marriage." Although this habit of qualifying and modifying statements sometimes makes sociological writing hard to read and comprehend, it is this very insistence on qualification and careful definition that makes sociology a science, a useful and illuminating field of study (David Popenoe, 1977: 3)

2.5 Different Fields of Sociology

Sociology is subdivided into many specialized fields, of which a partial list includes:

- Applied Sociology
- Collective Behaviour
- Community
- Comparative Sociology
- Crime and Delinquency
- Cultural Sociology
- Demography
- Deviant Behaviour
- Formal Organizations
- Human Ecology
- Industrial Sociology
- Law and Society
- Race and Ethnic Relations
- Rural and Urban Sociology
- Stratification and Mobility

Social: Change, Control, Organization, and Psychology Sociology of: Education, Knowledge and Science, Occupations, Professions, Religion, and Small Groups

These topics are not the exclusive property of sociology and other disciplines share its interest in many topics. For example, its interest in communication and public opinion is shared by psychology and political science, criminology is shared with psychology, political science, law, and so on. Sociology is especially close to psychology and anthropology, and overlaps them so constantly that any firm boundaries would be arbitrary and unrealistic. (Hurton and Chester, 1984: 25-27)

2.6 Major Theoretical Perspectives

A crucial element in sociology is theory. A theory is a statement that organizes a set of concepts in a meaningful way by explaining the relationship between them. A working set of assumptions is called a "perspective," an "approach," or sometimes a "paradigm." If the theory is valid, it will correctly predict that identical relationships will occur in the future if the conditions are identical. In order to study anything, one must begin by making some assumptions about the nature of what is studied. For example, the ancient Greeks believed that the universe was run according to the whims of the gods. By contrast, all scientists assume that the universe is orderly, and operates in certain regular ways which we may be able to discover. Thus, Newton developed the laws of gravity after observing that apples always fall down, never up. Following are some of the theoretical perspectives used in sociology.

2.6.1 *The Evolutionary Perspective*

It is the earliest theoretical perspective in sociology. It is based on the work of August Comte (1798-1857) and Herbert Spencer (1820-1903), and offers a satisfying explanation of how human societies originate and grow.

Sociologists using the evolutionary perspective look for patterns of change and development appearing in different societies, to see whether any general sequences can be found. They might wonder, for example, whether industrialization will have the same effects upon the family in developing countries that it seems to have had in Western nations.

2.6.2 *The Interactionist Perspective*

Symbolic interactionists such as G.H. Mead (1863-1931) and C.H. Cooley (1846-1929) concentrate upon the interaction between individuals and groups. They note that people interact mainly through *symbols*, which include signs, gestures, and most importantly, through written and spoken words. A word has no inherent meaning. It is simply a noise, but it becomes a Word when people reach agreement that this noise carries a special meaning. Thus, "yes," "no," "go," "come," and thousands of other sounds become symbols as a meaning is attached to each.

Modern interactionists such as Erving Goffman (1959) and Herbert Blumer (1962)

emphasize that people do not respond to other people *unconsciously*, whatever they *imagine* other people to be. In human behavior "*reality* is constructed in peoples' minds as they size one another up and guess at the feelings and impulses of one another. Whether a person is a friend, our enemy, or a stranger is not a characteristic of the person; that person is, to me, whatever I perceive him as being, at least until I change my perception. Whether he is good or bad is measured by my perception of him. Thus, I create reality about him in my own mind, and then I react to this reality that I have constructed." This does not mean that all reality is subjective -- that it exists only in the mind. There are objective facts in the universe. The sun, moon, and stars are real, and still would be there even if there were no humans to see them. Meanings are given to facts and to human actions by human beings. The symbolic interactionist perspective concentrates upon what meanings people find in other people's actions, how these meanings are derived, and how others respond to them.

2.6.3 *The Functionalist Perspective*

According to functionalist perspective, the society is working in an organized way and all the groups living in the society observe values and norms existing in the society. Society is seen as a stable system and there is a tendency to establish and maintain a balanced and harmoniously operating system. In this perspective each group or institution fulfills certain functions and persists because it is *functional*. For example, school educates children and provides training in sports. Family as an institution, provides food and financial support to its members. Marriage, organizes sexual behaviour and assures legitimate children.

Social change disrupts the stable equilibrium of the society, but before long a new equilibrium is regained. For example, large families were desired when death rates were high, and large families helped to ensure some survivors. Today, with a lower death rate, large families have become dysfunctional and threaten the welfare of the society. So a new equilibrium i.e. nuclear family is approaching. Thus, a value or practice which is functional at one time or place may become dysfunctional at another time or place. If a particular social change promotes a harmonious equilibrium, it is seen as functional; if it disrupts the equilibrium, it is dysfunctional; if it has no effects, it is nonfunctional.

2.6.4 *The Conflict Perspective*

Although it stems from the work of many scholars, the conflict perspective is most directly based upon the work of Karl Marx (1818-1883), who saw class conflict and class exploitation as the prime moving forces in history. Largely ignored by sociologists for many years, the conflict perspective has recently been revived by C. Wright Mills (1959), Collins (1975) and many others. Where functionalist see the normal state of society as one of stable equilibrium, conflict theorists see society in a continuous state of conflict between groups and classes. Although Marx concentrated upon conflict between classes for ownership of productive wealth, modern conflict theorists take a less narrow

view. They see the struggle for power and income as a continuous process but one in which many categories of people appear as opponents -- classes, races, nationalities, and even the sexes. They claim that the "shared values" which functionalist see as the glue holding society together do to really form a true consensus; instead this is an artificial consensus in which the dominant groups or classes impose their values and rules upon the rest of the people. According to them functionalist fail to ask the question, "functionally useful to *whom*? They accuse functionalist of a conservative bias, in that functionalist assume that this "harmonious equilibrium" is beneficial to everyone, whereas it benefits some and penalizes others. Conflict theorists ask such questions as, "how have the present patterns emerged from the contest between conflicting groups, each seeking its own advantage?" "How do the dominant groups and classes achieve and maintain their position of privilege?" "How do they manipulate the institutions of society schools, churches, mass media, to protect their privileges" "Who benefits and who suffers from the present social arrangements?" "How can society be made more just and humane?"

2.7 Comparison of the Perspectives

Keeping in view the above discussion about different theoretical perspectives of sociology, it looks very difficult to answer the question, "which is the best perspective?" Each is a different way of looking at society. Each perspective views society from a different vantage point, asks different questions, and reaches different conclusions. Evolutionists focus upon the similarities in changing societies; interactionists focus upon the similarities in changing societies; interactionists focus upon the actual social behaviour of persons and groups; functionalist focus more heavily upon value consensus, order, and stability; conflict theorists focus more heavily upon inequality, tension and change. For most topics of study, there are some aspects for which each of the perspectives can be useful. For example, consider the development of the modern university. The evolutionary perspective might focus upon the procession of scholarly needs and arrangements, extending over several thousand years, which eventually led to the development of the modern university. The interactionist perspective would not the ways in which scholarly needs have been defined at different times and the ways in which persons and groups dealt with one another in creating the university. The functionalist perspective would concentrate upon what changes made universities seem to be necessary, what purposes they fulfilled for the society, and what effects universities have upon their students and upon societies. The conflict perspective would concentrate upon as to which groups and classes benefit from the university and how access to higher education operates to preserve the position of the privileged groups. For some problems, one perspective may be more useful than other. (Horton and Chester I Hunt, 1984: 15-20)

3 KEY TERMS

Agricultural Society: A society whose primary subsistence strategy is the cultivation of crops through the use of ploughs and draft animals.

Anthropology: A social science that focuses primarily on the cultures of small-scale, pre-industrial societies and on the physical evolution of the human species.

Association: A large secondary group, usually taking the form of a formal organization.

Behaviorism: A theory of learning that focuses on actual behaviour, which is believed to be the result of conditioning through rewards and punishments.

Conflict perspective: The view that society is in a continuous state of conflict between groups and classes, and tends towards dissent, tension, and change.

Culture: All the shared products of human society, comprising its total way of life. Culture includes material products (houses, cities, etc.) and nonmaterial products (religious, languages etc.)

Death rate: A statistical measure, usually expressed as the number of deaths per year per thousand members of a given population.

Dysfunction: A consequence of some elements on a social system that disrupts the equilibrium of the system or the functioning of another element within the system.

Equilibrium: A functionalist theory, the overall balance that exists among the various elements in a social system.

Evolution: In biology and physical anthropology, the process by which organisms adapt their physical forms and behavioral patterns to the demands and opportunities of the environment. In sociology and cultural anthropology, the process by which societies become more complex, usually as a result of more efficient technologies for exploiting the environment.

Evolutionary perspective: The view that different societies show many similarities in their development.

Function: Any consequence that a given component in a social system has either for the system as a whole or for some other component within it. A function is usually assumed contribute to the over all stability of the system.

Functionalist perspective: The view that society is an organized network of cooperating groups tending toward consensus and stability.

Generalization: A statement about the recurrent relationships between particular variables.

Group: A collection of people interacting together in an orderly way on the basis of

shared expectations about each other's behavior.

Interactionist perspective: The view of society that concentrates upon interaction between persons and groups.

Latent function: Function that is unrecognized and unintended.

Manifest function: Function that is obvious and intended.

Norm: An accepted standard of behaviour or guideline that prescribes the appropriate behaviour for people in a given situation.

Nuclear family: A family consisting of husband, wife, and their dependent children.

Objectivity: The quality of observing and accepting facts as they are, not as one might wish them to be.

Paradigm: A set of concepts, methods, and assumptions shared by a community of scientists and guiding research on their discipline.

Science: A body of organized, verified knowledge; a set of methods whereby a body of verified knowledge is obtained.

Sociology: The scientific study of human society and social behaviour.

Values: Socially shared ideas about what is good, right, and desirable.

4. SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. Discuss in detail the nature of sociology.
2. Define sociology as fully as you can.
3. Define the term "Science." Is the discipline of sociology a science? Discuss.
4. Write a comprehensive note on the major perspectives of sociology.
5. Compare the Conflict perspective with the Functionalist perspective.
6. Explain similarities and differences of Sociology with other social sciences.

5. SUGGESTED READINGS

The Social Order, 1970, (3rd ed.), Robert Bierstedt, McGraw-Hill Kogakusha, Ltd. London.

Sociology, 1984, (6th ed.), Paul B. Horton and Chester L. Hunt McGraw-Hill International Book Company, Tokyo.

Sociology, 1977, Ian Robertson, Worth Publishers, Inc.

Sociology, 1977, (3rd ed.), David Popenoe, Prentice-Hill, Inc., Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey.

Sociology, 1985, (4th ed.), Donald Light, jr./ Suzanne Keller, Alfred A. Knopf / New York.

UNIT-2

CULTURE AND SOCIETY

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1. OBJECTIVES

After studying this unit along with the suggested readings, you should be able to:

1. Explain the term "Culture" in its nature;
2. Analyze culture base and values;
3. Elaborate interwoven and interrelated system of Sociology and
4. Narrate the process of socialization and its importance in personality development.

2. SUMMARY OF THE MAJOR TOPICS

2.1 I. Definition

In a general sense, the word culture is often used to refer to refined tastes in art, literature, or music etc. The sociological use of the term is much wider, and includes the entire way of life of a society. In this sense everyone who participates in society is "cultured." To the sociologists, *culture consists of all the shared products of human society*. These products are of two basic kinds, viz material and non-material. *Material culture* consists of all the artifacts or physical objects human beings create--such as wheel, clothing, schools, factories, cities, books, computer etc. *Non-material culture* consists of more abstract creations -- like language, ideas, beliefs, rules, customs, myths, skills, family patterns, political systems.

Sociology, 1977, Ian Robertson, P.51.

According to Sir Edward Tylor (1871), "Culture .. is that complex whole which includes knowledge, beliefs, art, morals, law, customs and any other capabilities and habits acquired by man as a member of society." Horton and Hunt say, "*Culture is everything which is socially learned and shared by the members of a society.*" The individual receives culture a part of a social heritage, reshapes it and introduces changes which become part of the heritage of succeeding generations.

Sociology, 1984, (6th Ed.), P.B. Horton and C.L. Hunt, P.52

Two anthropologists defined culture as: "*By 'culture' we mean those historically created selective processes which channel men's reactions both to internal and to external stimuli.*" Robert Bierstedt says "*Culture is the complex whole that consists of all the ways we think and do and everything we have as members of society.*"

The Social Order 1970 (3rd Ed.) Robert Bierstedt, P.123.

"*Culture*" must be distinguished from 'society.' Culture consists of the shared products of society while *society as a relatively independent, self-perpetuating human group, occupies a territory, shares a culture, and has its associations within this group.*

Sociology, 1984, (6th Ed.), P.B. Horton and C.L. Hunt, P.52.

2.2 The Significance of Culture

Only culture accounts for the success of human beings. We create culture, but culture in turn creates us. We are no longer the helpless victims of the natural environment. We make our own social environment, inventing and sharing the rules and patterns of behaviour that shape our lives. We use our knowledge to modify the natural environment as well. Without a culture transmitted from the past, each new generation would have to solve the most elementary problems of human existence over again. It would be obliged to devise a family system, to invent a language, to discover fire, to create the wheel, and so on. Cultural inventions enable us to be insulated from the cold of the Arctic, to travel in outer space, and to live in submarines - all without any recourse to physical evolution. Unlike other animals, we can self-consciously adapt to our environments and can adapt the environment to meet our needs. We have the biological

capacity to speak, but which language we use and how we use it depends on our cultural environment. We have the biological capacity to laugh, to cry, to blush, to become angry, but the circumstances under which we might do any of these things are learnt in society.

Culture enables us to invent and learn ways of adapting to our environments and changing situations. All other animals must rely on the slow and accidental process of biological evolution to adapt them to the environment, but human beings can adapt quickly to radically different environments. Human nature is what we make of it, and what we make of it depends on the culture in which we happen to live. One of the aspects of the sociological perspective is that it exposes myths about our social behaviour, and shows that what seems natural or instinctive, is a cultural product of human society. In short, culture is the secret of our success.

Sociology, 1977, Ian Robertson, P.54,55.

2.3 The Cultural Base

By the *culture base*, we mean the accumulation of knowledge and technique available to the inventor in a society. As the culture base grows, an increasing number of inventions and discoveries become possible. The invention of the geared wheel provided a component which has been used in countless inventions. The discovery of electromagnetism and the invention of the vacuum tube, the transistor, and the microchip provided necessary components for hundreds of more recent inventions. Unless the Cultural base provides enough earlier inventions and discoveries, fresh inventions cannot be completed. The recent "knowledge explosion" is often cited as the source of modern innovation. This is another way of saying that the cultural base is rapidly growing and is accessible to a growing number of our people. When all the supporting knowledge has been developed, the appearance of an invention or discovery becomes almost a certainty. In fact, it is quite common for an invention or discovery to be made independently by several persons at about the same time. When the cultural base provides all the supporting items of knowledge, it is very probable that one or more imaginative persons will put these items together for a new invention or discovery.

2.4 The Exponential Principle

This theory states that, as the cultural base grows, its possible uses tend to grow in a geometric ratio. To illustrate: if we have only two chemicals in a laboratory, only one combination (A-B) is possible (A-B-C, A-B, A-C, and B-C.), with four chemicals, ten combinations; with five chemicals, twenty-five/ and so on. As the size of the culture base grows by addition, the possible combinations of these elements grow by multiplication. This helps to explain today's high rate of discoveries and invention. A vast accumulation of scientific technical knowledge is shared by all the civilized societies, and from this base new inventions and discoveries flow in a rising tide.

Sociology, 1984, (6th Ed.), P.B. Horton and C.L. Hunt, P. 523,524

2.5 Values

To understand the term "value" in its true sociological sense, it is absolutely necessary to discuss the elements of culture.

2.6 Norms

Norms are shared rules or guidelines that prescribe the behaviour that is appropriate in a given situation. Norms define how people "ought" to behave under particular circumstances in a particular society. We conform to the norms so readily that we are hardly conscious of their existence. In fact, we notice departures from norms tried to shake hands when you were introduced, but you might be a little startled if he or she kissed you on both cheeks. Yet this form of greeting is appropriate in other societies. When we visit another society whose norms are different, we quickly become aware that we do things his fashion, and they do them that fashion.

2.7 Folkways And Mores

Norms ensure that social life proceeds smoothly, for they give us guidelines for our own behaviour and reliable expectations for the behaviour of others. This social function of norms is so important that there is always strong social pressure on people to conform. But although most of us conform to most norms most of the time, all of us tend to violate some norms occasionally. In the case of certain norms, the folkways, a fair amount of non-conformity may be tolerated, but in the case of certain other norms, the mores, very little range is permitted.

2.8 Folkways

The folkways are the ordinary usages and conventions of everyday life. Conformity to them is expected but is not absolutely insisted upon. We expect people to refrain from blowing their noses in public, to turn up on time for appointments, and to wear a matching pair of shoes. Those who do not conform to these and similar folkways are considered peculiar and unconventional, particularly if they consistently violate a number of folkways. But they are not considered immoral or corrupt, nor are they treated as criminal. People are not deeply outraged by violations of folkways and on the whole are tolerant of a certain amount of nonconformity to them.

2.9 Mores

The mores are much stronger norms. People attach a moral significance to them and treat violations of them very seriously. A man who walks down a street wearing nothing on the upper half of his body is violating a folkway; a man who walks down the street wearing nothing on the lower half of his body is violating one of our most important mores. Theft, drug abuse, murder, rape, desecration of the Pakistani flag, or contemptuous use of religious symbols all excite a strong social reaction. People believe that their mores are crucial for the maintenance of decent and orderly society, and the

offender may be strongly criticized, punched, imprisoned, committed to a mental asylum, hanged, or even lynched. Violations of some mores are made almost unthinkable by *taboos* -powerful social beliefs that the acts concerned are utterly hateful. For example, there is a very strong taboo against eating human flesh, a taboo so effective that most countries do not even bother to have laws prohibiting the practice. Some norms, particularly mores, are encoded in laws. *Law* is simply a rule that has been formally enacted by a political authority and is backed by the power of the state.

2.10 Values

The norms of a society are ultimately an expression of its values. Values are the general ideas that individuals share about what is wrong or right, good or bad, desirable and undesirable. Unlike norms – the rules that govern behaviour in actual situations with other people – values are broad and abstract.

The values of a society are important because they influence the content of its norms. If a society values education highly, its norms will make provision for mass schooling. If it values a large population, its norms will make provision for big families. If it values monogamy, its norms will not permit people to marry more than one partner at a time. The norms that prescribe the routines of office work and assembly-line production, for example, reflect the high value we place on efficiency. The norms that require a student to be more polite and formal to a professor than to fellow students express the value our society places on respect for authority and learning. The norms that insist on short hair for men reflect the very high value placed on men's masculinity in a culture.

Although all norms express social values, many norms persist long after the conditions that gave rise to them have been forgotten. The folkways that require us to shake hands, especially when greeting a stranger, seems to have originated long ago in the desire to show that no weapon was concealed in the right hand. Our folkway of showering a new bride and groom with nuts and sweets as they emerge from the wedding ceremony may seem rather meaningless, but it actually reflects the high value that is placed on fertility.

Sociology, 1977, Ian Robertson, P.57-59

2.11 Group

In its sociological sense, a group is a collection of people interacting together in an orderly way on the basis of shared expectations about each other's behaviour. As a result of this interaction the members of a group feel a common sense of "belonging." They distinguish members from nonmembers and expect certain kinds of behaviour from one another that they would not necessarily expect from non-members. The essence of a group is that its members interact with one another. As a result of this interaction, a group develops an internal structure. People form groups for the purpose that cannot be achieved through individual efforts. The fact that groups share common goals means that

the members tend to be generally similar to one another in those respects that are relevant to the group's purpose. For example, if the goals of the group are political, the members tend to share similar political opinion. The more the members interact within the group, the more they are influenced by its norms and values and the more similar they are likely to become.

2.11.1 *Primary and Secondary Groups*

Groups are divided into two major types, viz primary & secondary groups. A *primary group* consists of a small number of people who interact in direct, intimate, and personal ways. The relationships between the members have emotional depth and the group tends to endure over time. Primary groups are always small because large numbers of people cannot interact in a highly personal, face-to-face manner. For this reason large groups tend to break down into smaller, more intimate cliques. Typical primary groups include the family, the gang, or a school, college, university peer group.

A *secondary group* consists of a number of people who have few if any emotional ties with one another. The members come together for some specific, practical purpose, such as making a committee decision or attending a convention. There is limited face-to-face contact among the members. They relate to one another not as full persons but only in terms of specific roles, such as chairperson, doctor, and supervisor etc. Secondary groups can be either small or large. Any newly formed small group is a secondary group initially, although it may become a primary group if its members come to know one another well and begin to interact on a more intimate basis. Colleagues of a newly established department, and students after getting admission in the school, college and university, for example, may start out as a secondary group, but after a while it may become a primary group, or a small primary group may develop within it. All large groups are Secondary groups. The groups, which are often called *associations*, include organizations such as business corporations, large factories, govt. departments, political parties, and religious movements. Large secondary groups always contain smaller primary groups within them. Colleges and army camps, for example, are secondary groups, but they may contain hundreds of smaller primary groups when friendships are established among specific individuals.

2.11.2 *Small Groups*

A *small group* is one which contains only a few members for the participants to relate to one another as individuals. Whether a small group is primary or secondary depends on the nature of the relationships among the members. A gathering of old friends is a primary group; a number of previously unacquainted people trapped in the hands of the kidnapers for a few hours is a small Secondary group.

Sociology, 1977, IAn Robertson, P.57-59.

2.12 Society -- Social Structure

Without society we could not survive. But what exactly is a society? Several conditions must be met before people can be said to be living in one society. First, they must occupy a common territory. Second, they must not only share that territory but must also interact with one another. Third, they must, to some extent, have a common culture and a shared sense of membership in and commitment to the same group. We may say, then, that a *society is a group of interacting individuals sharing the same territory and participating in a common culture*. A society is not necessarily the same as a nation-state, although in the modern world the two are often identical. The survival of non-human societies depends primarily on unlearned "instinctive" pattern of behaviour. But human societies are totally different. The organization and characteristics of each human society are not based on the rigid dictates of its members' "instinct." They are created by human beings themselves and are learnt and modified by each new generation. Consequently, although all human beings are members of the same biological species, every human society is so different that an individual suddenly transplanted from, say, the United States to a jungle of Brazil or vice versa, would have very little idea of how to behave appropriately. Societies are not simply a collection of randomly interacting individuals who happen to occupy the same area. Each society has its own distinctive character, the product of its history and environment, but all societies have an underlying pattern of relationships, a *social structure* that makes social life relatively smooth and predictable.

2.12.1 Social Structure

Social life is not a haphazard affair. It is generally stable, patterned and predictable. We know more or less what kind of behaviour people expect from us and on the whole we conform to these social expectations. There is an underlying regularity in the behaviour of both individuals and groups, that makes society orderly and workable. This patterned nature of society is based on social structure.

Social structure refers to the organized relationships between the basic components in a social system. These basic components are found in all human societies, although their precise character and the relationships between them vary from one society to another. The most important of the components of social structure are statuses, roles, groups, and institutions.

a) Statuses

Each individual has one or more socially defined positions in the society -- woman, teacher, carpenter, son, and so on. Such a position is termed as *status*. A person's status determines where that individual "fits" in society and how he/she should relate to other people. The status of daughter, for example, determines the occupant's relationships with other members of the family; the status of teacher determines the occupant's relationships with students. naturally, a person can occupy several statuses simultaneously but one of them,

usually an occupational status, tends to be the most important, and sociologists sometimes refer to it as the person's "master status."

We have little control over some of statuses. If you are young, female, white, or black, for example, there is nothing you can do about it. Such a status is said to be *ascribed*, or arbitrarily given to us by society. But we have a certain amount of control over other statuses. At least partly through your own efforts you can get married, become a master or graduate, a convict, or a member of a religion. Such a status is said to be earned or *achieved*. We achieved statuses partly or wholly as a result of our own efforts, and society recognizes our changed status.

b) Roles

Every status has one or more *roles* attached to it. The distinction between status and role is a simple one: you occupy a status, but play a role. Every position or status in society carries with it a set of expected behaviour patterns, obligations, and privileges. Status and role are thus two sides of the same coin.

We play many different roles during the course of each day. The content of our role behaviour is determined primarily by role expectations, the generally accepted social norms that define how a role ought to be played. The fact that people may have several different statuses, each with several different roles attached, can obviously cause problems when role expectations conflict. Sometimes conflicting expectations are built into a single role. A factory public relations officer, for example, is expected to maintain good relations with the workers, but he is also expected to enforce regulations that the workers may resent. This situation is called *role strain*. Another problem arises when a person plays two or more roles whose requirements are difficult to reconcile. For example, police officers sometimes are required to arrest their children. This situation is called *role conflict*.

c) Groups

In its sociological sense, a *group* is a collection of people interacting together in an orderly way on the basis of shared expectations about each other's behaviour. As a result of this interaction the members of a group feel a common sense of "belonging." They distinguish members from nonmembers and expect certain kinds of behaviour from one another that they would not necessarily expect from non-members. The essence of a group is that its members interact with one another. As a result of this interaction, a group develops an internal structure. People form groups for the purpose that cannot be achieved through individual efforts. The fact that groups share common goals means that the members tend to be generally similar to one another in those respects that are relevant to the group's purpose. For example, if the goals of the group are political, the members tend to share similar political

opinion. The more the members interact within the group, the more they are influenced by its norms and values and the more similar they are influenced by its norms and values and the more similar they are likely to become.

Institutions

Institutions are the stable clusters of values, norms, statuses, roles, and expectations that developed around the basic needs of a society. For example, the family institution takes care of the replacement of members and the training of the young. The political and military institutions take care of the protection of the society against outside enemies and assume some of the responsibility for social control within the society. The economic institution organizes the production and distribution of goods and services, the religious institution provided a set of shared values. The educational institution passes on cultural values from one generation to the next and trains the young in the more refined knowledge and skills that they will need in later life.

Sociology, 1977, Ian Robertson, P.77-81

2.13 Socialization

Socialization is the process of social interaction through which people acquire personality and learn the way of life of their society. It enables the individual to learn the norms, values, language, skills, beliefs, and other patterns of thought and action that are essential for living. Nobody is born a great mathematician, professor, or a skillful carpenter. People may be born with the potential to become any of these professionals but what they actually become is primarily the product of their unique socialization experiences.

Social interaction takes place according to the norms and values of the culture in question. The content of socialization therefore differs greatly from one society to another, so that the personality types vary among cultures. Within every society each person is different, and these differences are also the product of socialization. Each one of us has a unique personal history. We are born and live not only in a society but also in a specific part of it, and we are therefore influenced by the particular sub-cultures of our family, friends, class, race, religion, or region. the socialization process thus helps to explain both the general similarities in personality and social behaviour within a society and the many differences that exist between one person and another. It is a lifelong process, because we continually encounter new or changing conditions and must learn how to adjust to them. The important socialization, however, occurs in the early years of infancy and childhood when the basic foundations of later behaviour and personality are laid.

Sociology, 1977, Ian Robertson, P.95-96

4. KEY TERMS

Conformity: Adherence to social norms.

Counterculture: A subculture not merely different from but in opposition to the conventional and approved culture of the society; e.g., the drug subculture.

Cultural integrating: A situation in which various elements in a culture complement one another, or "fit together."

Cultural relativism: The recognition that one culture or subculture cannot be arbitrarily judged by the standards of another culture.

Culture: All the shared products of human society, comprising its total way of life. Culture includes material products (house, cities, etc.) and nonmaterial products (religion, languages, etc.).

Cultural lag: The time discrepancy between the introduction of a change in material culture and the adaptation of nonmaterial culture to the change.

Folkways: The ordinary usages and conventions of everyday life; conformity to such norms is expected but violations are not regarded as immoral.

Group: A collection of people interacting together in an orderly way on the basis of shared expectations about each other's behaviour.

Ideal culture: Culture as it is expressed in the values and norms that people claim to believe in, rather than as expressed in their actual practices.

Instinct: A complex pattern of behaviour that is genetically determined as appears in all normal members of a species under identical conditions.

Institution: A stable cluster of values, norms, statuses, roles, and expectations that develop around a basic need of a society.

Law: A rule that is formally enacted by a political authority and is backed by the power of the state.

Master status: The most socially significant of an individual's various statuses (usually an occupational status).

Material culture: The artifacts or physical objects created by human beings.

Mores: Powerful norms that are regarded as morally significant; violations are considered a serious matter.

Nonmaterial culture: Refers to social products that do not have a physical existence, such as languages, customs, or religions.

Norms: A shared rule or guideline that prescribes the appropriate behaviour for people in a given situation.

Outgroup: A group to which an individual does not belong, as opposed to the ingroup to which the individual belongs and feels loyalty.

Peer group: Companions and associates of equivalent social status and usually of similar age.

Personality: The fairly stable patterns of thought, feeling, and action that are typical of an individual.

Primary group: A group consisting of a small number of people who interact in direct, intimate, and personal ways.

Primary socialization: The basic socialization that takes place in the early years of life.

Real culture: Culture as it is expressed in people's actual practices rather than in what they claim to believe in.

Role: The part a person occupying a particular status plays in society.

Role conflict: A situation in which a person plays two or more roles whose requirements are difficult to reconcile.

Role strain: A situation in which conflicting demands are built into the same role, or in which a person for some other reason cannot meet role expectations.

Secondary group: A group consisting of a number of people who have few if any emotional ties with one another and who come together for a specific practical purpose.

Small group: A group that contains only a few members for the participants to relate to one another as individuals.

Socialization: The process of social interaction through which people acquire personality and learn the way of life of their society.

Social structure: The organized relationships between the basic components of a social system.

Society: A group of interacting individuals sharing the same territory and participating in a common culture

Status: A socially defined position in society.

Subculture: A group that shared in the overall culture of a society but also has its own distinctive values, norms, and life-style

Taboo: A powerful social belief that a particular act is utterly loathsome and disgusting.

Values: Socially shared ideas about what is good, right, and desirable.

4. SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. Define the term "culture" and also write a note on the significance of culture.
2. Cultural base is must for the fast inventions in the society -- discuss.
3. Discuss the elements of culture in detail.
4. What major types of groups you find in your society? Discuss.
5. Write a comprehensive note on the four components of social structure.
6. Define fully the term "socialization."
7. Within every society each person is different, and these differences are also the product of socialization. Discuss

5. SUGGESTD READINGS

The Social Order, 1970, (3rd ed.), Robert Bierstedt, McGraw-Hill Kogakusha, Ltd., London.

Sociology 1984, (5th ed), Paul B. Horton and Chester L. Hunt McGraw-Hill International Book Company ... Tokyo.

Sociology 1977, IAN Robertson, Worth Publishers, Inc.

Sociology 1977, (3rd ed.), David Popenoe, Prentice-Hall, Inc., Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey.

Sociology 1985, (4th ed.), Donald Light, jr./Suzanne Keller, Alfred A. Knop f /New York.

UNIT-3

SOCIAL INSTITUTION-I

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1. OBJECTIVES

After reading this unit along with the suggested reading, the student should be able to:

1. Explain the concept of social institution;
2. Discuss the process of institutionalization;
3. Differentiate social institution from association and organization;
4. Identify the characteristics and universality of the family; and
5. Elaborate the functions and importance of educational institution in social order.

2. SUMMARY OF THE MAJOR TOPICS

2.1 The Concept of Social Institution

In every society there are certain basic social needs. It is a must for the society to meet these needs for the survival and satisfaction of its members. In each society, therefore, people create social institutions to meet these needs. What is an institution? The sociological concept of the term is different from its common usage. An institution is not a building; it is not a group of people; it is not an organization; *An institution is a system of norms to achieve some goal or activity that people feel is important, or more formally, an organized cluster of folkways and mores centered around a major human activity.* Institutions are structured processes through which people carry on their activities. Institutions do not have members; they have followers. This is a subtle but important distinction. Let illustrate: a religion is not a group of people; a religion is a system of ideas, beliefs, practices, and relationships. A mosque is an association of people who accept the beliefs and follow the practice of Islam. The clear cut distinction between an institution and an association is that *the institution is always the organized systems of ideas and behaviour ; the association is the organized group of people engaging in the behaviour.*

Sociology, (6th ed.), 1984. P.B. Horton and C.L. Hunt, P.211.

This distinction can best be illustrate by studying the following list, in which associations and institutions are contrasted.

Associations	Institutions
A corporation	Business
A railroad	Transportation
An army	War
A college	Education
A newspaper	Journalism
A television network	Television
A family	The Family
A government	Government
A hospital	Medicine
A theatrical company	The drama

The Social Order, (3rd ed.), Rober Bierstedt, P.323

According to Horton and Hunt, *An institution is an organized system of social relationships which embodies certain common values and procedures and meets certain basic need of the society.* In this definition, "common values" refers to shared ideas and goals, the "common procedures" are the standardized behaviour patterns followed, and the "system of relationships" is the network of roles and statues through which people carry this behaviour. Thus, the family includes a set of common values about love, children, family life), a set of common procedures (child care, family routines) and

network of role and statuses (husband, wife, grandparents, baby, teenaged child) which form the system of social relationships through which family life is carried out. Five important basic institutions in complex societies are the family, religion, political order, economic, and education.

2.2 The Family

The family is the most basic of all social institutions. It existed among our ancestors long before the human species evolved to its present physical form, and it remains the basic social unit in every society. Though, family is an important social institution and it remained important in the past too but what is the future of this important institution. Several modern sociologists believe that the functions the family performs in the society are very important. With such functions the existence of the family cannot be vanished. There seem little variations in the functions but are sure about the need of the family to the society. But, on the other hand, Tofler, in his book, "The Future Shock", writes that keeping in view the changing trends in the values and norms of the society, some institutions will be no more required. Particularly, about marriage as an institution, he perceives "Perhaps we are the last married generation."

What exactly is a family? Our idea of the family tends to be a very ethnocentric one, because it is often based on that middle-class ideal family so faithfully portrayed on TV commercials. We usually think of a family as consisting of a husband, a wife, and their dependent children. This particular family pattern, however, is far from typical. It is, in fact, a relatively recent development in human history.

2.3 Definition and Characteristics of the Family

First, family consists of a group of people who are in some way related to one another. Second, its members live together for long periods. Third, the adults in the group assume responsibility for any offspring. Fourth, the members of the family form an economic unit -- often for the production of goods and services (when the members share agricultural tasks) and always for the consumption of goods and services. We say that *the family is a relatively permanent group of people related by ancestry, marriage, or adoption, who live together and form an economic unit and whose adult members assume responsibility for the young.*

We lead our lives in two kinds of families. One is the family of *orientation*, into which we are born and the other is the family of *procreation*, which we later create ourselves. In every society marriage is the foundation of the family. *Marriage is a socially approved sexual union of some permanence between two or more people.* This union is usually inaugurated through some socially approved procedures. The offspring from such a union is considered *legitimate*, because their parents -- both mother and father -- are known and they both take the responsibility of the care and protection of the infant. Children born into a family that has not been formed through marriage may be considered *illegitimate*, because although their mother is known, there may be nobody

to assume the social role of father.

The family is a unit within a social network of relatives, or kin. *Kinship refers to a network of people created by common ancestry, adoption, or marriage.* In traditional societies, kinship provides important basis for social organization. In modern societies kinship loses its importance. A kinship network is a highly complicated affair, as you will know if you have ever tried to construct your own family tree. Your primary relatives - mother, father, brother, sister, spouse, daughter, and son -- give a total of seven possible types. Your secondary relatives -- the primary relatives of your primary relatives, excluding your own primary relatives - provide 33 additional types, ranging from mothers-in-law to nephews. If you further include tertiary relatives -- the primary relatives of your secondary relatives, excluding your own primary and secondary relatives -- you have 151 more types, giving a grand total of 191.

2.4 Why is the Family Universal?

The institution of family exists in every society. It exists whether the society is traditional or modern. But why? The answer is simple. There are two main reasons, one is the biological nature of the human beings, and the other is the social function of the family.

2.4.1 *The Biological Basis*

1. The female of the other species are only seasonally accessible for sexual activity and the access is restricted to a brief breeding season. But the human female is sexually accessible throughout virtually the entire year and not restricted to a particular breeding season. This peculiarity of the human female encourages the formation of stable, long-lasting bonds between mates.
2. The offsprings of other species are generally able to fend themselves quite soon after being born or hatched. But the human infant is helpless and needs a thorough care and protection for several years after birth.
3. This dependency of the human infant on parents, particularly on mother, leads to another factor; the dependence of the female on the male for economic support and protection. In the past, every society had found it convenient to assign responsibility for child rearing to women as well, while the men concentrated on such activities as hunting, heavy agriculture, or fighting. The result has been a universal pattern in which men and women establish permanent bonds which maximize the efficiency of their child rearing and economic activity through a sex-based division of labour.

2.5 The Functions of the Family

The family performs several basic social functions which are imperative for the maintenance of the entire social order.

Regulation of Sexual Behaviour: No society allows people to mate at random, and no

society regards sexual behaviour purely as a matter of private choice. The marriage and family system provides a means of regulating sexual behaviour by specifying who may mate with whom under what circumstances they may do so.

Replacement of Members: A society cannot survive unless it has a system for replacing its members from generation to generation. The family provides a stable, institutionalized means through which this replacement can take place, with specific individuals occupying the social roles of mother and father and assuming defined responsibilities.

Socialization: Newborn infants do not become fully human until they are socialized, and the primary context for this socialization is the family. Because the child is theirs, the parents normally take particular care to monitor its behaviour and to transmit to it the language, values, norms, and beliefs of the culture. Although many of these socialization functions have been taken over by other institutions in modern society -- such as education, religion, or entertainment -- the family remains the earliest and the most significant agency of socialization.

Care and Protection: The family is able to offer the care, protection, security and love that are vital to its members. Infants need warmth, food, shelter, and affection. The family provides an intimate atmosphere and an economic unit in which these needs can be provided. The adult family members, too, provide one another with material and emotional support that cannot be readily obtained outside the family context. The productive members take care of those who, owing to reasons of age or other incapacity, cannot care for themselves.

Social Placement: Legitimate birth into a family gives the individual a stable place in society. We inherit from our family of orientation not only material goods but also our social status. We belong to the same racial or ethnic group and usually to the same religion and social class as our parents belong to. Our family background is the most significant single determinant of our status in society.

Sociology, 1977, Ian Robertson, Worth Publishers, Inc. P.315-318

2.6 Education as a Social Institution

2.6.1 Definition

In pre-industrial society, most of people acquired all the knowledge and skills they needed in the world through an informal socialization process. People acquired this socialization through ordinary, everyday contacts with parents and other kin. As industry was established and developed, the need of mass schooling was felt. As a result knowledge expanded rapidly, the pace of social change increased, and many new economic roles were created. Members of a modern industrial society need specialized knowledge and skills if they are to fill their adult roles competently. All modern societies recognize that the learning of this knowledge and these skills cannot be left to chance.

It requires lengthy attendance at specialized formal organization such as elementary schools, high schools, colleges and universities. In all industrial societies, education is a central social institution. In its broadest sense, "education" is almost synonymous with "socialization," since both processes involve the transmission of culture from one person or group to another. The distinguishing feature of education in modern industrial societies, however, is that it has become an institutionalized, formal activity. Modern societies deliberately organize the educational experience, make it compulsory for people in certain age groups, train specialists to act as educators, and provide locations and equipment for the teaching and learning process. For our present purpose, *education is the systematic, formalized transmission of knowledge, skills and values.*

2.6.2 *Education -- the Functionalist Perspective*

Functionalist perspective explains the importance of education in maintaining social order. Several important functions of education are as under:

a) *Cultural Transmission*

Culture must be transmitted to the young generation for the survival of society. For this function a formal institution is a must. So, schools (formal educational institution) are used to provide the young with the knowledge, skills and values that the society considers especially important. Thus we learn about our history, geography, and language. We learn how to read, write and manipulate numbers. We learn about our political and economic system, social values and norms. In traditional societies, this function is not so important because culture changes very slowly. But in rapidly changing modern societies the function of transmission of culture is very important. This transmission of culture is a must for the bright future of the young generation and educational institutions play a very important role in this connection.

b) *Social Integration*

Modern industrial societies contain many different ethnic, racial, religious, or other subcultures. Education serves to integrate the young members of these sub-cultures into a common culture to create a homogeneous society with shared values. This *social integration* function is particularly important in many of the developing nations of the Third World. The borders of these countries were often established by European colonial powers without any reference to tribal, linguistic, or ethnic barriers, and some of the new nations contain literally hundreds of different language groups that have no common cultural tradition and often have a history of mutual hostility. Such states use the schools to generate a common sense of national loyalty among the young.

c) *Personal Development*

The schools provide opportunities for the students to acquire knowledge, skills,

and perspectives that are not available elsewhere. In both the formal curriculum and in informal interaction with peers and teachers, students learn a great deal about themselves and about the world that surrounds them. Some of this learning is relevant to their future occupation roles, but much of it is more valuable for personal, emotional, and intellectual development. The level of education has a strong impact on attitudes, behaviour and opinions.

d) *Screening and Selection*

By screening the academic performance of students, the schools effectively select particular types of students for particular types of occupations. From the elementary years onward, the schools constantly test students and evaluate their achievements, channeling some of them toward technical vocations, some toward academic subjects, and failing some while passing others. The qualifications, training and skills that people possess at the end of their education have a strong influence on their prospects in life.

e) *Innovations*

Educational institutions add to the cultural heritage by developing new knowledge and skills. This function arises partly because the experience of education stimulates intellectual curiosity and critical thought, and partly because college and university teachers are usually expected to conduct research that will increase scientific knowledge. A good deal of research now takes place outside the schools - in government, industry, and specialized research institutions - but the college professor has a double role both as a teacher and a researcher. College and universities remain primarily responsible for basic research, which is concerned with established new knowledge. Applied research, which is concerned with finding practical uses for knowledge, is increasingly pursued outside the college context.

f) *Latent Functions*

The functions discussed above are of the types that sociologists call *manifest*, because they are recognized and intended. But education also has functions of a *latent* type, functions that are not generally recognized and were never intended. For example, schools serve as baby setting agencies. They free mothers from their child-rearing tasks and permit them to work outside the home. Schools, particularly colleges and universities, also serve as a marriage market, by giving young people of fairly similar background and opposite sex a chance to interact with one another in a way that would not be possible if their social orbits were restricted to the home and work place. By isolating young people from the rest of society in segregated institutions, the schools also have the latent function of permitting distinctive youth cultures to form. In addition to their formal curricula, the schools also teach habits of punctuality, and obedience to authority, a latent function that has a useful reward when

young people enter offices and factories.

Sociology, 1977, IAn Robertson, Worth Publishers, Inc. 341-353.

3. KEY TERMS

Applied research: Research aimed at finding technological applications for scientific knowledge.

Basic research: Research aimed at increasing the sum of knowledge (in contrast to applied research, which is aimed at finding technological applications for knowledge).

Cultural integration: A situation in which the various elements in a culture complement one another, or "fit together."

Culture: All the shared products of human society, comprising its total way of life. Culture includes material products (houses, cities etc.) and non-material products (religion, language, etc.).

Ethnic group: A large number of people who, as a result of their shared cultural traits and high level of mutual interaction, come out regard themselves and to be regarded as a cultural unity.

Extended family: A family in which two or more generations of the same kinship line live together.

Family: A relatively permanent group of people related by ancestry, marriage, or adoption, who live together and form an economic unit, and whose adult members assume responsibility for the young.

Family of orientation: The family into which one is born.

Family of procreation: The family that we create for ourselves as opposed to the family of orientation into which we are born.

Formal organization: A large social group that is deliberately and rationally designed to achieve specific objectives.

Function: Any consequence that a given component in a social system has, either for the system as a whole or for some other component within it. A function is usually assumed to contribute to the overall stability of the system.

Functionalist perspective: A theoretical perspective emphasizes the functional interrelations of the various elements in a social system, and the contributions that these elements make toward social order.

Illegitimate birth: Birth to unmarried parents.

Industrial society: A society relying for its subsistence primarily on mechanized production.

Innovation: In the science of sociology is the discovery of new scientific knowledge.

Kinship: A network of people related by common ancestry, adoption, or marriage.

Latent function: The unrecognized and unintended consequences of some element on a social system.

Legitimate birth: Birth to parents who are married.

Manifest function: The obvious and intended consequences of some element in a social system.

Marriage: A socially approved and intended sexual union of some permanence between two or more individuals.

preindustrial society: A society that does not rely for its subsistence on mechanized production but concentrates instead on hunting and gathering, pastoralism, horticulture, or agriculture.

Subculture: A group that shares in the overall culture of a society but also has its own distinctive values, norms, and life style.

4. SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. What do you understand by the term "institution?" Discuss.
2. Define the term "family" and discuss its characteristics.
3. Discuss the multidimensional functions of family in our society.
4. Write a detailed note on the manifest and latent functions an educational institution performs in the society.
5. What do you understand by "cultural transmission?" Discuss the role of family and educational institutions in performing this function.

5. SUGGESTED READINGS

The Social Order, 1970, (3rd ed.), Robert Bierstedt, McGraw-Hill Kogakusha, Ltd., London.

Sociology, 1984, (6th ed.), Paul B. Horton and Chester L. Hunt McGraw-Hill International Book Company .. Tokyo.

Sociology, 1977, Ian Robertson, Worth Publishers, Inc.

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UNIT-4

SOCIAL INSTITUTION-II

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1. OBJECTIVES

The reading of this unit along with the suggested readings will enable the students to:

1. Explain how the religion is perceived by the sociologists?
2. Highlight the importance and functions of the religion in a society;
3. Elaborate the economic activity and concepts of capitalism, socialism, democratic socialism and communism;
4. Explain how modernization has affected our social order; and
5. Narrate the deliberate and sensitive concepts of authority and state.

2. SUMMARY OF THE MAJOR TOPICS

2.1 Definition of Religion

Religion exists in every society, but in different forms and shapes. There are thousands of religions in the modern world. Believers may worship God, ancestors and other objects which they consider as sacred. There is a great variety of religious beliefs. Therefore, it is very difficult to define it. Sociologists have offered hundreds of definitions, but their attempts have been biased by their own ethnocentric ideas about religion. Islam, Christianity and many other religions contain a number of central beliefs. They believe that there exists one Supreme Being or God, who created the universe and all life. They believe in the concept of hereafter, and that one's moral behaviour in this life determines one's fate in the next world i.e. the concept of reward and punishment. But many religions do not believe in the existence of God and origin of the universe and life. They deal these problems by non-religious myth. Emile Durkheim pointed out that one feature is found in all religions, viz a distinction between the sacred and the profane. The *sacred* is anything that inspires admiration, reverence, and deep respect. Anything can be sacred: a god, a rock, the moon, the sun, a king, a tree. The *profane* is anything that is regarded as part of the ordinary rather than the supernatural world. Something becomes sacred or profane only when it is socially defined as such by community of believers. Keeping in view this feature, religion may be defined as a *system of communally held beliefs and practices that are oriented toward some sacred, supernatural realm.*

2.1.1 Religion — the Sociological Approach

To the sociologists, religion, like any other aspect of culture, is a social product, created by human beings and not by supernatural forces. It is easy for a believer in any particular faith to apply this perspective to other faiths. The sociologist refers all religions as social products and sees religious faith as arising from socialization or resocialization into a particular set of beliefs. One may be a devout Christian or Jew, but if one had been raised as a Pakistani, one's religious beliefs might be different. Sociologists focus on the complex inter-relationship between society and religion. According to them, religions reflect the cultural concerns of the societies in which they emerge. For instance, warlike societies tend to have gods of war; agricultural societies, gods of fertility. Stronger patriarchal societies tend to have masculine gods, matriarchal societies have feminine gods. Westerners and Europeans, being white, tend to think of both God and Jesus as white. But in many African churches, statues and portraits of Jesus show him with dark, Negroid features. Religion is closely integrated into the culture in which it is found, and an important task of the sociology of religion has been to identify the roles it plays in society.

2.1.2 Religion — the Functionalist Perspective

Emile Durkheim was one of the earliest functionalist theorists who applied this

perspective to religion in a systematic way. He was impressed by the fact that religion is universal in human society, and has a vital function in maintaining the social system as a whole. The social function of shared religious beliefs and the rituals that go with them is so important, Durkheim argued, that every society needs a religion or at least some belief system that swerves the same functions. He argued that much of the social disorder in modern societies stems from the fact that the people no longer believe deeply in religion, and they have found no satisfactory substitutes.

2.2 The Functions of Religion

1. It unites the community of believers by bringing them together -in mosque, hajj, fast, church, Christmas, temple, (mander), dewali etc. - periodically to perform various rituals and by providing them with shared values and beliefs that bind them together.
2. The second most important function of the religion is to remove anxiety of the followers. Religion provides individuals with emotional support in the uncertainty of the world. It offers explanations of common human problems and predicaments and gives people a sense of meaning and purpose in a world that might otherwise seem meaningless.
3. Religion reinforces the most important norms of a society, and they become part of religious doctrine and are therefore regarded as sacred. According to functionalist perspective theorists, the teachings found in the Quran, the Bible and other sacred books would have no less power if they were regarded as the work of ordinary men and not as sacred scriptures. They further argue that the most important norms of any society, for example, those relating to murder or incest tend to be incorporated not only in law but also in religious doctrine.
4. Religion helps people during such major events of the life cycle as puberty, marriage, and death. In most traditional societies each of these occasions in the life cycle is surrounded by religious rituals.

2.2.1 Religion – Conflict Analysis

This approach is derived mainly from the writings of Karl Marx. He saw religion as a form of false consciousness and as a tool of the powerful in the struggles between competing social classes. According to him, belief in religion was the deepest form of human alienation. By alienation he meant the process through which people lose their sense of control over the social world that they have created, so that they find themselves "alien" in a hostile social environment. He claimed that the dominant religion in any society is always the religion of its economically and politically dominant class, and it provides a justification for existing inequalities and injustice. Marx writes:

"Man makes religion, religion does not make man – religious suffering is at the same time an expression of real suffering and a protest against real suffering. Religion is the sigh of the oppressed creature, the sentiment of a heartless world, and the should of soulless conditions. It is the opium to the people."

Marx argued that in simple societies, which have no class divisions, religion was simply a matter of superstitions. In all other societies, the dominant religion supports the status quo and diverts the attention of the oppressed from their real problems. Another conflict theorist, Kenneth Stampp (1956) notes:

Through religious instructions the (slaves) learned that slavery had a divine sanction; that insolence was a such an offense against God as against the temporal master. They received the bible command that servants should obey the masters, and they heard of the punishments awaiting the disobedient slave in the hereafter.

2.3 The Economic Order

2.3.1 Definition

The economic order is the institutionalized system for producing and distributing goods and services. Economic activity is very important to sustain life. The principal means of production that a society uses such as hunting and gathering, horticulture, agriculture, or industrialism, strongly influences its culture and social institutions. Changes in the mode of economic production bring changes in all social institutions. Goods and services are rarely equally distributed in a society, because the more powerful groups are able to secure a disproportionate supply for themselves and to control the political process by which inequalities are maintained. In this unit we do not discuss the basis and consequences of economic activity. The most important concept in the economic activity is the ownership of property.

2.3.2 The Concept of Property

Property exists because resources are scarce. If they were all as unlimited and inexhaustible as the air, nobody would want to claim ownership. It may take one of the three forms:

1. Communal ownership exists when property belongs to the community as a whole and may be used but not owned by any member of the community. communal ownership of land is frequently found in pre-industrial societies.
2. Private ownership exists when property belongs to specific individuals. Private property is recognized in all societies. In some it may be restricted to a few household possessions and in others it may include assets worth millions of rupees.
3. Public ownership exists when property belongs to the state. A good deal of property in industrial societies (such as highways, hospitals, schools etc.) is in publicly ownership. The debate between the advocates of capitalism and socialism centers on the question of whether the means of production and distribution should be privately or publicly owned. Advocates of capitalism contend that the interests of all are served best if there is a minimum of public ownership of means of production and distribution. Advocates of socialism

argue that private ownership leads to exploitation and inequality, which can be avoided if the means of production and distribution are in public ownership.

2.3.3 Capitalism

There are two essential ingredients of capitalism: (a) the deliberate pursuit of personal profit as the goal of economic activity, and (b) free competition among buyers and sellers of goods and services. Adam Smith argued (1776) that under these conditions the forces of supply and demand will ensure the production of the best possible products at the lowest possible price. If there is a public demand for some good or service, the profit motive will provide an incentive for capitalists to produce what the public wants. Competition among capitalists will give the public the opportunity to compare the quality and prices of goods, so that producers who are inefficient or who charge excessive prices, will be put out of business. There is minimum governmental interference in this system. The government should therefore adopt a policy of *laissez-faire*, meaning "leave it alone." But the growth of monopolies and oligopolies sometimes eliminated competition and made it possible for these firms to fix arbitrary prices. Therefore, the government has the authority to prevent the concentration of economic power.

2.3.4 Socialism

In a socialist economy, all means of production are in public ownership. Production is not for private profit, and competition among different firms producing similar products is a waste of resources. Similarly, the means of distribution of wealth are in public ownership to ensure that goods and services flow to those who need them rather than only to those who can afford them. The economy is closely regulated in accordance with the national economic plans that are designed to meet specified goals. People are permitted private ownership of personal goods, such as household furniture and automobiles etc. but may not own property that produces wealth.

2.3.5 Democratic Socialism

This economic system is practiced by nearly all the countries of Asia and Western Europe. Under this system, the state takes only strategic industries and services into public ownership, such as railways, airlines, mines, banks, electronic media, medical services, Education, weapon manufacturing, and chemicals. In other fields, private ownership is permitted, but the economy is closely regulated in accordance with national priorities.

2.3.6 Communism

Communism is the advanced stage of socialism, but no communist society has ever existed. However, in general, it would have some of the characteristics implied in the communal ownership pattern. In this economic activity, as Karl Marx envisaged, the role of the state would disappear, there would be an abundance of goods and services, people

would no longer regard property as "private," and wealth and power would be shared in harmony by the community as a whole. Under socialism, people are paid according to their work, but under socialism, people are paid according to their work, but under communism individuals would contribute according to their abilities and receive according to their needs.

Sociology, 1977, IA Robertson, Worth Publishers, Inc, P.420-424.

2.4 Industrialism and Modernization

Modernization is the process of economic and social change that is brought about by the introduction of the industrial mode of production into a society.

2.4.1 The Process of Modernization

Only a few centuries ago, population consisted of a large number of localized and isolated societies whose members lived on hunting, gathering, horticulture, or agriculture. The industrial revolution introduced an entirely new types of society, one that produced tremendous wealth. But, it also destroyed traditional forms of social organizations and created new ones in their place. This process of change in the early industrial societies of Europe was spread over several generations, and culture and social organizations were able to adapt to these changing conditions. but, in the less developed part of the world, change has come more rapidly and with more dislocating effects. These societies are hoping to achieve in the space of a few years the material advantages that the older industrial societies had taken nearly two centuries to gain. The result has often been a tug-of-war-between the forces of modernization and the sentiment of tradition.

2.4.2 The Social Effects of Modernization

The modernization process affects every area of society. It has the following characteristic effects.

a) Family

The extended family system, found nearly in all traditional societies, is shattered. The modern industrial society requires geographic and social mobility among its members. The nuclear family takes its place in which traditional kinship ties are loosened.

b) Education

Educational organizations take over many of the family's earlier socialization functions. Education is extended to the masses because an industrial work force must be skilled and literate.

c) Religion

Traditional religious ties have been loosened and now the people interpret the world through secular belief systems instead of religious principles.

d) *Science*

Technical efficiency becomes a value and people look to technology for the solutions to their problems, including the problems that the technology creates.

e) *Politics*

A strong, centralized state emerges and it regulates more areas of social and economic life.

f) *Urbanization*

Cities grow rapidly because industry, educational institutes, hospitals and other facilities are concentrated in urban areas and people are attracted by job opportunities.

e) *Demography*

Modern medical facilities are extended to the population which has reduced death rate sharply. The adoption of family planning practices is low, therefore, demography have been changed and children ratio in the population is increasing day by day. They are dependent on their parents because they are only consumers, not the producers.

f) *Social Stratification*

As industrialization proceeds, the growing wealth of the society tends to be more equally shared. Stratification based on ascribed characteristics tends to dissolve.

g) *Personal Values*

People become more change-oriented and they look to the future rather than to the past.

h) *Culture*

Culture is no longer maintained and enacted in the small rural community. It becomes a widely shared mass culture, spread from society to society by the mass media and through travel.

i) *Personal Values*

People become more change-oriented and they look to the future rather than to the past.

j) *Culture*

Culture is no longer maintained and enacted in the small rural community. It becomes a widely shared mass culture, spread from society to society by the mass media and through travel.

Sociology, 1977, IA Robertson, Worth Publishers, Inc. P.429-431

2.5 The political Order

The character of political institutions varies from society to society but the process

itself is universal. the political order *is the institutionalized system through which some individuals and groups acquire and exercise power over others.*

2.6 Power

Max Weber defined power as the ability to control the behaviour of others, even without their consent. It may be derived from many sources, such as wealth, status, prestige, or organizational efficiency. Its ultimate basis is the ability to compel obedience, if necessary through the threat or use of force. The use of power may be either legitimate or illegitimate. Power is considered legitimate only if people generally recognize that those who apply it have the right to do so; perhaps because they are acting illegally, perhaps because they have no public office. Weber called illegitimate power 'coercion'.

2.7 Types of Authority

According to Max Weber, there are three types of authority: traditional authority, legal-rational authority, and charismatic authority. Each type of authority is legitimate because it rests on the consent of the governed.

2.7.1 Traditional Authority

In this political system power is legitimated by ancient customs. The rulers exercise unwritten laws. Chieftainships and monarchies have always been based on this type of authority and the right of the king to rule is not open to question. Claim to this authority is usually based on birthright. In this system of authority, power of the rulers seems unlimited but in practice there are social norms which set the boundaries of the power. If a ruler exceeds these limits, people may regard such use of power as illegitimate and coercive. Under these circumstances attempts may be made to depose the ruler.

2.7.2 Legal-Rational Authority

In a system based on legal-rational authority, power is legitimated by written rules and procedures that define the rights and obligations of the rulers. In this system ruler's authority and its boundaries are written in the constitution and set of laws that have been socially agreed upon. Almost all modern societies are based on this type of authority. It is the rule of law, not of the people and the power of the person is derived from the person's office and not from personal characteristics such as birthright. Officials can exercise power only within legally defined limits that have been formally set in advance.

2.7.3 Charismatic Authority

In a system based on charismatic authority, power is legitimated by the unusual, exceptional, or even super natural qualities that people attribute to particular political, religious, or military leaders. Typical charismatic leaders are Hitler, Gandhi, Muhammad

Ali Jinnah, Castro, Alexander the Great, Churchill, Imam Komenie. The charisma of these leaders is itself sufficient to make their authority seem legitimate to their followers. Whether they can also lay claim to traditional or legal-rational authority is of little relevance. It is usually a spontaneous development and often poses a threat to system based on traditional or legal-rational authority.

2.8 The State

The state is a distinct social institution that claims a monopoly of the legitimate use of force within a given territory. The emergence of the state as a separate institution is closely linked to the level of cultural evaluation of a society, and in particular to its means of subsistence. Political institutions are absent in hunting and gathering societies. Each group is autonomous and independent, and decisions are made by group consensus. In pastoral and horticulture societies, where populations are larger and there may be a food surplus, some individuals become more powerful and wealthy than others. They pass their status on to their descendants, and patterns of chieftainship emerge. In agricultural societies a very large food surplus is possible, and this can be stored and converted into wealth and power. In industrial societies the nature of the state changes radically. The unprecedented wealth produced by industrialism permits the emergence of a large middle class and made education produces politically more sophisticated population. Arbitrary rule is no longer acceptable, and traditional authority is replaced by legal-rational authority as the basis of the state's legitimacy. The state assumes the responsibility of social welfare, education, medicine, public transport, scientific research, and economic planning. The state thus becomes one of the most powerful and central institutions in a modern society.

2.8.1 *The Functionalist Approach*

The state performs the following four major functions in a modern society to maintain the social system a whole:-

a) *Enforcement of Norms*

In small and traditional communities norms are enforced by social pressure and spontaneous community action. In a complex modern society such a system would be unworkable. Therefore, the state takes the responsibility for codifying important norms in the form of laws. It also assumes responsibility for ensuring that these norms are obeyed by applying formal negative sanctions to offenders.

b) *Arbitration of Conflict*

The state provides an institutionalized process for determining "who gets what, when, and how." The state acts as arbitrator, or umpire, between conflicting interests, establishing means for resolving disputes and determining policies.

c) *Planning and Direction*

A complex modern society requires coordinated and systematic planning and

direction. The state takes the responsibility of the economic activities, provides trained workers to the industry and commerce, prevents environmental pollution, constructs highways and so on. The state performs these functions on the basis of knowledge derived from reliable data.

d) *Relations with Other Societies*

The state is responsible for political, economic, and military relations with other societies. It forms alliances with friendly states and participates in international organizations. It enters into trading agreements and engages in acts of diplomacy and, if necessary, defense or aggression against other states.

2.8.2 *The Conflict Approach*

Jean Jacques Rousseau (1712–1778), a French philosopher, presented this alternative view. According to this approach, the state emerged and exists to safeguard the interests of the privileged. Once private property had been established, the people of the "state of nature" took to fighting among themselves, and eventually agreed on a "social contract" to form the state so that order could be achieved once more. But the state put new fetters to the poor and gave new powers to the rich.

Karl Marx (1848) forwarded this analysis in a more sophisticated manner. He argued that in every society those who control the means of production are the ruling class. He further claimed that all except the most primitive societies, are divided into two or more classes, one of which dominates and exploits the others. The ruling class always uses social institutions, particularly the state, to maintain its privileged position. Therefore, social institutions always serve to maintain the status quo, not to change it.

Sociology, 1977, IAN Robertson, Worth Publishers, Inc., P.435–445.

3. KEY TERMS

Alienation: The sense that one has no control over the social world and so feels like an "alien" within it.

Authority: Power that is regarded as legitimate by those over capitalism, a class-based political and economic system in which most wealth is privately owned and may be reinvested to produce profit for those who own it.

Charismatic authority: Authority that is legitimized by the unusual, exceptional, or even supernatural qualities that people attribute to those who exercise it.

Class conflict: The struggle between social classes, primarily between the class that owns the means of economic production and the class or classes that do not.

Coercion: Power that is perceived as illegitimate by those over whom it is exercised (in contrast to authority).

Economic order: The institutionalized system for producing and distributing goods and services.

Education: The systematic, formalized transmission of knowledge, skills, and values.

Ethnocentrism: The tendency to judge other cultures or subcultures by the standards of one's own.

Horticultural society: A society relying for its subsistence primarily on the hoe cultivation domesticated plants.

Hunting and gathering society: A society relying for its subsistence on such food as its members are able to hunt and gather; there is no domestication of plants and animals.

Industrial society: A society relying for its subsistence primarily on mechanized production.

Law: A rule that is formally enacted by a political authority and is backed by the power of the state.

Legal - rational authority: Authority that is legitimized by explicit rules and procedures that define the rights and obligations of those who exercise it.

Matrilineal system: A family system in which descent and inheritance are reckoned through the female side of the family.

Modernization: The process of economic and social transformation brought about by the introduction of industrialism into a society.

Monopoly: In economic sociology, a single firm that dominates an industry.

Nuclear family: A family consisting of husband, wife, and their dependent children.

Pastoral society: A society relying for its subsistence primarily on domesticated herd animals.

Patrilineal system: A family system in which descent and inheritance are reckoned through the male line of the family.

Political order: The institutionalized system through which some individuals and groups acquire and exercise power over others.

Power: The ability to control the behaviour of others, even in the absence of their consent.

Pre-industrial society: A society that does not rely for its subsistence on mechanized production but concentrates instead on hunting and gathering, pastoralism, horticulture, or agriculture.

Profane: In the sociology of religion, anything that is not sacred.

Property: The right that the owner of an object has in relation to others who are not owners of the object.

Religion: A system of communally held beliefs and practices that are oriented toward some sacred, supernatural realm.

Sacred: That which inspires reverence and deep respect.

Socialism: A political and economic system in which, ideally, classes are eliminated and production is for social benefit rather than private efforts; the means of economic production are publicly owned but private ownership of consumer items is permitted.

State: The institution that successfully claims a monopoly of the legitimate use of force within a given territory.

4. SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. How sociologists perceive the religion? Discuss.
2. Discuss the major functions the religion performs in a society.
3. Religion defends the privileged position of the ruling class. In the light of the above statement, discuss the conflict perspective of the religion.
4. Write a detailed note on the salient features of capitalism and socialism.
5. Discuss in detail social effects of modernization.
6. Define political order. Also discuss three basic types of legitimate authority.
7. What do you understand by the term "state"? Also discuss its functionalist and conflict approaches.

5. SUGGESTED READINGS

The Social order, 1970, (3rd ed.), Robert Bierstedt, McGraw-Hill Kogakusha, Ltd., London.

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Sociology, 1977, Ian Robertson, Worth Publishers, Inc., Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey.

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UNIT-5

SOCIO-CULTURAL CHANGE

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1. OBJECTIVES

After reading this unit alongwith the suggested readings, you should be able to:

1. Discuss socio-cultural changes in a society;
2. Differentiate socio-cultural change from the term "Progress";
3. Differentiate social change from cultural change;
4. Measure how socio-cultural changes are perceived by evolutionary, cyclical, functionalist, and conflict theorists; and
5. Identify the sources of socio-cultural change in Pakistani society.

2. SUMMARY OF THE MAJOR TOPICS

2.1 What is Social Change?

Heraclitus said that it is impossible for a man to step into the same river twice. It is impossible for two reasons: the second time it is not the same river and the second time it is not the same man. In the interval of time between the first and the second stepping, no matter how short, both the river and the man have changed. Neither remains the same. This is the central theme of the Heraclitean philosophy – the reality of change, the impermanence of being, the inconsistency of everything but change itself.

The Social Order, 1970 (3rd ed.), Robert Bierstedt, P.509

Social change is the alternation in pattern of social structure, social institutions, and social behaviour over time.

Sociology, 1977, IAn Robertson, Worth Publishers, Inc. P.539

There is distinction between *social change*—changes in the social structure and social relationships of a society – and *cultural change* – changes in to the culture of a society. Some social changes might include changes in the age distribution, average educational level, or birth rate of a population; or the decline of informality and personal neighborliness as people shift from village to city; or the change on the relationship between workers and employers when unions become organized; or the change of the husband from the boss to a partner in today's democratic family. Cultural changes might include such things as the invention and popularization of the automobile; the addition of new words to the language; changing concepts of morality; new forms of music, or art. Yet the concepts overlap. The trend toward sex equality involves both a changing set of cultural norms concerning male and female roles and some changing social relationships as well. Nearly all important changes involve both social and cultural aspects. In practice, therefore, the distinctions not important, and the two terms are often used interchangeably. In the literature of sociology, usually the term *socio-cultural change* is used to include changes of both kinds. Sociology, 1984, (6th ed.), P.B. Horton and C.L. Hunt, 510, 511. The early theorists (evolutionary) believe that there is no distinction between "change" and "progress" and believe that social "change" means "progress" toward something better. In the nineteenth century, it was generally accepted that "change" meant "progress," and that progress was inevitable.

Sociology, 177, IAn Robertson, Worth Publishers, Inc. P.541.

But on the other hand, Horton and Hunt (Sociology, 6th ed., 1984) argue that there is an important distinction between social change and progress. The term "progress" carries a value judgement. Progress means change in a desirable direction. Desirable as measured by whose values? Are dish antenna, pop music, atomic bomb, court marriage, the abolishment of death sentence for women desirable? Not all Pakistanis are agreed. Since progress is an evaluative term, social scientists prefer the neutrally descriptive term "change".

Sociology, 1984, (5th ed.), P.B. Horton and C.L. Hunt, 511

Changes in human societies are not so easily investigated. Each society is unique, and any changes that take place are likely to result from a whole complex of interacting factors -- environmental, technological, personal, cultural, political, religious, economic, and so on. To discover the causes of change is therefore very difficult indeed -- especially as we cannot "rerun" history or conduct laboratory experiments in large-scale social change to test our theories. And because each society is unique, we must be hesitant about using the experiences of one society as the basis for confident predictions about change in another. But these problems are not impossible to overcome; they are merely difficult. In principle, we should be able to understand social change. It is a basic assumption of science that all events have causes. If this were not so, the social and physical world would be unintelligible to us. Sociology is still an infant science, dealing with a very complicated subject, but we already have a good understanding of the process of social change.

Sociology, 1977, Ian Robertson, Worth Publishers, Inc. P. 540

2.2 Theories of Social Change

Social change is not the topic of sociology alone. The disciplines of history and anthropology are also interested in this topic. All these three disciplines have proposed a number of general theories about social change. They can be grouped into four main categories: evolutionary, cyclical, functional, and conflict theories.

2.3 Evolutionary Theories

Evolutionary theories are based on the assumption that societies gradually change from simple beginnings into ever more complex forms. This assumption rests on both cross-cultural and historical evidence. We know from the cross-cultural evidence that there have been and still are many small-scale and simple societies, such as those of hunters and gatherers, horticulturalists, and pastoralists. We know from the historical evidence that many small and simple societies have grown steadily larger, and some of them have been transformed into the huge industrial societies of the modern world.

2.3.1 The Early Theorists: Unilinear Evolution

The early theorists believed that human societies evolve in a *Unilinear* way--that is, in "one line" of development that continues in every society. They believed that social change meant progress toward something better. They saw change as positive and beneficial, because the evolutionary process implied that societies would necessarily reach new and higher levels of civilization. This evolutionary view of social change drew much of its impetus from Charles Darwin's book "On the Origin of the Species," (1859). Darwin had shown that all life forms had evolved from distant origins and that the general direction of biological evolution was toward greater complexity. Other sociologists immediately applied this theory to human society. If human beings had evolved from some primitive states, it followed that at some time in the past they must

have been entirely within culture. The cultures of different societies around the world offered glimpses of what culture must have been like at different stages of the evolutionary process.

Herbert Spencer, a sociologist, carried this Darwinian resemblance to its utmost limits. He argued that society itself constituted an organism, with its different parts playing roles similar to those of the different organs and limbs of an animal. He even applied Darwin's principle of "the survival of the fittest" to human societies. This view, known as "social Darwinism", won wide acceptance in the late nineteenth century.

2.3.2 *Modern View: Multilinear evolution*

The modern anthropologists see the process of social change as a *tendency*, not a universal law. They point out, however, that societies generally tend to move from small-scale and simple forms of social organization to large-scale and complex forms. Modern anthropologists agree that this evolutionary process is multilinear. In other words, it can take place in many different ways and change does not necessarily follow exactly the same direction in every society. They no longer believe that "change" necessarily means "progress."

2.4 Cyclical Theories

The cyclical theorists also see a series of stages through which societies must pass. But, instead of ending in a "final" stage of perfection, they see a return to the starting point for another round. According to Oswald Spengler (1880-1936), a German philosopher, each great civilization passing through successive stages of birth, growth, and decline, with the completed cycle covering about a thousand years.

Pitirim Sorokin (1889-1968), claimed that all great civilizations are in an endless cycle of three cultural systems:

- i) the ideational culture, guided by supernatural beliefs and values;
- ii) the idealistic culture, in which a blend of supernatural beliefs and evidence-based rationality created the ideal society; and
- iii) the sensate culture, in which sensations are the test of reality and the goal of life.

Arnold Toynbee (1889-1975), an English historian, also viewed the fate of great civilization as birth, growth, decay, and death. All these theories are interesting, and all are supported by mountain of supporting detail. But these theories do not explain "why" civilizations change as they do, or why different societies respond so differently to a challenge; the theories are entertaining but not entirely convincing.

Sociology, 1984, (6th ed.), P.B. Horton and C.L. Hunt, P.512,513

2.5 Functionalist Theories

Functionalist theories of social change start with the advantage that they deal with social statics before dealing with social dynamics. In the opinion of some critics,

however, their very emphasis on social order and stability has prevented them from giving an adequate theory of social change. The functionalist perspective was introduced into modern sociology by Emile Durkheim, who examined several aspects of society by asking what function they played in maintaining the social order as a whole. Religion, he argued, had the function of providing a common set of values that enhanced the social solidarity of the believers; the education had the function of passing culture from one generation to the next; economic institution regulated the production and distribution of wealth; and family raises and socialized the children. Talcott Parson, an American sociologist, developed a general theory of social order based on the Functionalist perspective. He sees change not as something that disturbs the social equilibrium but as something that alters the state of the equilibrium so that a qualitatively new equilibrium results. He acknowledges that changes may arise from two sources. They may come either from outside the society, through contact with other societies, or they may come from inside the society, through adjustments that must be made to resolve strain within the system. According to him, in simple societies, institutions are undifferentiated: that is, a single institution serves many different functions. The family, for example, is responsible for reproduction, education, economic production, and socialization. As a society becomes more complex, a process of differentiation takes place. Different institutions, such as schools and corporations, emerge and take over the functions that were previously undifferentiated within a single institution. But the new institutions must be linked together once more, this time by the process of integration. New norms, for example, must evolve to govern the relationship between the school and the home, and bridging institutions, such as law courts must resolve conflicts between other components in the system.

2.6 Conflict Theories

Karl Marx is the prominent exponent of conflict theory. He believed that the character of social and cultural forms is influenced by the economic base of society – specifically, by the mode of production that is used and by the relationships that exist between those who own and those who do not own the means of production. History is the story of conflict between the exploiting and the exploited class. This conflict repeats itself again and again until capitalism is overthrown by the workers and a socialist state is created. Socialism is the forerunner to the ultimate social form, communism. The essential point is that Marx and other conflict theorists after him see society as fundamentally dynamic, not static. They regard conflict as a normal, not an abnormal process, and they believe that the existing conditions on any society contain the seeds of future social changes.

Sociology, 1977, Ian Robertson, Worth Publishers, Inc., 545–547

2.7 Agents/Sources of Social Change

There are a number of specific factors that, in their interaction with other factors,

may generate changes in all societies. The precise nature and direction of the change, however, depend very much on the unique conditions of the place and time in which they occur.

2.7.1 *Physical Environment*

Major changes in the physical environment are quite rare but very compelling when they happen. Climates change, soil erodes, and lakes gradually turn into swamps and finally plains. A culture is greatly affected by such changes, although sometimes they come about so slowly that they are largely unnoticed. Human misuse can bring very rapid changes in physical environment which, in turn, change the social and culture life of a people. Deforestation brings land erosion and reduces rainfall; overgrazing destroys the vegetation cover and promotes erosion. Environmental destruction has been at least a contributing factor in the fall of most great civilizations.

Many human groups throughout history have changed their physical environments through migrating. Especially in ancient societies, whose members are very directly dependent upon their physical environment. Migration to a different environment brings major changes in culture. Civilization makes it easy to transport a culture and practice it in new and different environments.

Sociology, 1984, (6th ed.), P.B. Horton and C.L. Hunt, P. 518

Ideas

Karl Marx, who first raised the question that what role do ideas play in social change, argued that social conditions shape people's ideologies, not the other way round. In his view, it is not the ideology of socialism that makes workers resent the oppression of capitalism; it is the oppression of capitalism that makes workers embrace the ideology of socialism. Similarly, Marx saw the ideology of capitalism as nothing more than an attempt to justify the capitalist system. Capitalism itself had been created not by an ideology but by the social forces that had overthrown feudalism and generated a new mode of production.

There can be no question that ideologies are derived from social conditions and that people generally tend to accept belief systems that they believe, rightly or wrongly, conform to their own interests. In this sense Marx was correct. But it seems that Weber and Durkheim were equally correct in their view that ideas can also have a casual influence: that they can become *detached*, as it were, from the social conditions in which they originally arose and can then have an independent effect on social action. For example, Hinduism, a religious ideology, arose in a caste-based society and served to justify social inequality. This ideology is still influential in India, although it is inappropriate for a society that is attempting to modernize. Ideas, often expressed in slogans have been an important ingredient in many social changes. The cry for liberty, equality, women emancipation, fraternity have influenced the political events in many countries. Ideas are particularly of importance of social change in countries that are

oriented to change as a way of life. The reason is that we try to shape the future in terms of our ideologies and our concepts of what the future should be like. Our ideas determine what we regard as needs, and we take social action to bring about the changes necessary to meet those needs. This is precisely what is happening in the less developed countries, which are attempting to modernize along the lines of the advanced industrial societies.

Sociology, 1977, IAn Robertson, Worth Publishers, Inc., 548

2.7.2 Technology

Professor Ogburn first divides culture into two large categories -- material culture and non-material culture. He then suggests that changes may occur first in either material or nonmaterial culture. They usually occur first in the material culture, and the non-material culture accordingly has to adjust to them. Changes in the material culture are thus causes of changes in the non-material culture, and the latter, though it lags behind, is always in process of adjustment of the former. In this way technological invention becomes the primary factor in explaining cultural change. He suggests, for example, that the invention of the self-starter of automobile had something to do with the emancipation of women. Without the self-start, women would have been unable to use the automobile on equal terms with men and thus would have had to remain in the home. The self-starter gave them freedom of a new kind, and it was only a matter of time before they demanded freedom of other kinds as well. Of course, this invention was not the only factor but it was one of the important factors to bring social change.

The Social Order, 1970 (3rd ed.), Robert Bierstedt, P.522.

2.7.3 Population

Any significant increase or decrease in population size or population growth rate may disrupt social life. A population that grows too large puts impossible demands on resources. The result may be mass migrating, usually resulting in cultural diffusion and sometimes in wars as the migrants invade other territories. Or the result may be social disorganization and conflict over scarce resources within the society itself. A population that grows too slowly or that declines in numbers faces the danger of extinction. The latter problem is not one that most societies have to face, but the former -- overpopulation -- is probably the most pressing social problem in the contemporary world. If global population continues to increase at anything like its current rate, demands for food and other natural resources will become insupportable. Far-reaching social changes will follow, including an abrupt population decline as the death rate from starvation soars.

Sociology, 1977, IAn Robertson, Worth Publishers, Inc. 550.

Many other demographic phenomena also influence a society and its institutions. Along with gross size and differential fertility we should include the general age distribution, regional distribution, ethnic composition, sex ratio, rural-urban ratios, immi-

gration and emigration, and many others. Taking them altogether, it is evident that they cannot be discounted in any attempt to solve the problem of social change

The Social Order, 1970 (3rd ed.), Robert Bierstedt, P.518.

2.7.4 Cultural Innovation

Three distinct processes are involved: discovery, invention, and diffusion.

a) *Discovery*

A discovery is the perception of an aspect of reality that already exists: the principle of the lever, a new continent, the composition of the atmosphere, or the circulation of the blood. A new discovery, if shared within the society becomes an addition to the society's culture and store of knowledge. It becomes a source of social change, however, only when it is put to use.

b) *Invention*

An invention is the combination or new use of existing knowledge to produce something that did not exist before. Invention may be either material (car, cigarettes) or social (corporation, democratic institutions). All inventions are based on previous knowledge, discoveries, and inventions. For this reason, the nature and rate of inventions in a particular society depends on its existing store of knowledge -- cultural base.

For detailed discussion, see Unit No.2, Culture and Society. Inventions occur exponentially: The more inventions that exist in a culture, the more rapid further inventions can be made. To illustrate: if we have only two chemicals in a laboratory, only one combination (A-B-C, A-B, A-C, B-C); with four chemicals ten combinations; with five chemicals, twenty-five combinations; and so on. This fact helps to explain why the modernization process took so much longer in those societies that had to make the necessary discoveries and inventions than it did in those societies that merely had to adopt them from others.

Diffusion

The process of *diffusion* involves the spread of cultural elements -- both material artifacts and ideas -- from one culture to another. George Murdock (1934) has estimated that about 90 percent of the contents of every culture have been acquired from other societies, and some social scientists see diffusion as the main source of culture and social change. The most outstanding contemporary social change-- the spread of the modernization process around the world -- represents the diffusion of industrialism from the advanced to the less developed societies. Each culture, however, accepts elements from other

cultures selectively. Material artifacts that prove useful are more readily accepted than new norms, values, or beliefs. Innovations must also be compatible with the culture of the society into which they diffuse.

d) *Human action*

The precise influence of individuals on the course of history and social change is very difficult to judge. Historians and biographers have often taken what is sometimes called the "great man" theory of history and social change. Sociologists have generally rejected the approach, taking the view that history makes individuals rather than that individuals make history. They see the personality and ambitions of leaders, like those of anyone else, as being strongly influenced by the culture in which they were born and socialized. From the sociological perspective the social changes that individuals appear to have created are interpreted as the product of deeper social force. For example, World War II cannot be attributed simply to the personality and ambitions of Hitler. He certainly influence the course of events, but if there had not been severe social, ethnic, and economic strains in Germany at the time, he might never have come to power or have had the opportunity to put his policies into effect.

The role of collective action in social change poses less difficulty. Collective behaviour, from fads and fashions to riots, social movements, and revolutions, is an attempt by people to change their social environment. Large-scale movements -- for women emancipation, civil rights, national independence, and so on -- are a vital source of social change. So, too, are the actions of other social agencies and institutions, particularly governments that determine policies in the deliberate attempt to change society.

Sociology, 1977, Ian Robertson, Worth Publishers, Inc., P.552-553

3. KEY TERMS

Birth rate: A statistical measure, usually expressed as the number of births per year per thousand members of a given population.

Collective behaviour: Relatively spontaneous and unstructured ways of thinking, feeling and acting on the part of a large number of people.

Conformity: Adherence to social norms.

Culture: All the shared products of human society, comprising its total way of life. Culture includes material products (house, cities) and non-material products (religion,

language).

Cultural base: The accumulation of knowledge and techniques, available to the inventor in a society.

Cultural change: Changes in the culture of a people, often used interchangeably with social change.

Cyclical theories: Theories holding that social change tends to recur in cycles over time.

Demography: The scientific study of the size, composition, distribution, and changes in human populations.

Diffusion: The spread of cultural elements from one culture to another.

Discovery: The perception of an aspect of reality that already exists.

Exponential principle: The idea that as the cultural base grows, its possible uses tend to grow in geometric ratio.

Fad: A temporary form of Conduct that is followed enthusiastically by large number of people.

Innovation: In the sociology of science, the discovery of new scientific knowledge.

Invention: The combination or new use of existing knowledge to produce something that did not exist before.

Integration: In social theory, the tendency for the various elements in culture and society to be interlined and interdependent.

Population: In demography, the total collectively of individuals in a designated social unit, usually a society.

Social change: The alternation in patterns of social structure, social institutions, and social behaviour over time.

Social movement: A large number of people who have joined together to bring about or resist some social or cultural change.

Social-cultural evolution: The tendency of societies to evolve from simple to complex forms as their subsistence strategies become more efficient.

Technology: The practical application of knowledge about nature.

Unilinear: Refers to a theory that socio-cultural evolution follows the same course in all societies.

Values judgement: A personal, subjective opinion based on the value of the observer.

4. SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. What do you understand by the term socio-cultural change? Explain.
2. Differentiate "socio-cultural change" from "progress".
3. Differentiate functionalist theory from conflict theory of socio-cultural change.
4. Cultural innovation is the important source of socio-cultural change. Discuss.
5. Ideas and demography play a very important role in the process of social change. Discuss.
6. Human action is the major agent/source of socio-cultural change. Do you agree? Discuss.

5. SUGGESTED READINGS

The Social order, 1970, (3rd ed.), Robert Bierstedt, McGraw-Hill Kogakusha, Ltd., London

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UNIT-6

PART TWO

MONETARY SYSTEM

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1. OBJECTIVES

After studying this unit, the student should be able to:

1. Explain monetary system, its origin and merits and demerits of different monetary systems;
2. Comments on inflation and value of money;
3. Count the causes of inflation and
4. Discuss the banking system and its functions.

2. SUMMARY OF THE MAJOR TOPICS

2.1 Monetary Policy

Unlike other private institutions, commercial banks create money through extending loans and making investments. To do so, banks need reserves which are provided primarily by the central bank, the banker's bank. The essence of monetary policy is to control the release of reserves in a manner which stimulates bank lending and investing in support of consumer and business spending in order to foster economic growth without impact on the level of employment, the volume of output and the rate of inflation and serves as a major policy tool for influencing economic activity.

2.2 Monetary System

Money: Anything which is generally accepted as a medium of exchange, and also performs the function of a standard of value and a store of value is called money.

Following are the characteristics of a good money;

1. **General Acceptability:** The basic characteristic of a good money is its general acceptability as a medium of exchange. These days people accept metallic coins, paper notes and cheque as a medium of exchange without any hesitation. The reason is that metallic coins are issued by the Federal Government and paper notes are accepted because they are backed by the central bank of a country. People do not refuse to accept credit money as a medium of exchange because they trust the commercial banks of their country.
2. **Transferability:** A good money is the one which can easily be transferred from one place to another for payments. Paper notes and cheques of commercial banks are considered as good money because they can easily be transferred to far off places to make payments.
3. **Durability:** A good money is the one which is made of a durable thing so that it could be stored for sometime for use in future. Perishable goods, therefore, have proved to be bad money.
4. **Recognizability:** A good money can easily be recognized. Its various units are different from each other in design, weight, size and value. Even an illiterate person can distinguish between genuine and forged units of money.
5. **Homogeneity:** A good money is one whose all units of the same value are homogeneous in form, weight and size, particularly when money is in the form of gold and silver coins.

There have been various monetary systems or standards in the past, practiced by the different communities and remained in practice from time to time. Some of these systems include; (a) Bimetallism (b) Monometallism, and (c) Paper Standard.

The system of bimetallism means monetariness of the coins of gold and silver in

practice in the country. This has now become things of the past and is not more in practice. Monometallism is the system which determines functioning of the gold standard or silver standard in the economy, whereas paper standard is the known paper currency or currency note system. The gold standard being the orthodox type is not more functional, but gold standard such as gold currency standard, gold exchange standard, gold bullion standard, and gold parity standard the known ones:

The gold currency standard or full gold standard is the system under which in a country as coins. Under the gold bullion standard, the value of the currency is fixed in terms of gold by making such currency convertible into gold.

In modern times, the metallic money is supplemented or totally replaced by paper money. Paper money has been very useful. It economises the use of precious metals. It is convenient to carry and easy to store. Its value can be kept stable by properly controlling its issue. It is of great fiscal advantage to the governments.

Paper money can be convertible or inconvertible. If the issuing authority promises of convert notes into standard money on demand it is called 'convertible paper money'. But sometimes after an over-issue of paper money in an emergency like war, the authority feels unable to convert its notes into coins. Then it breaks its promise of converting notes into standard money and thereby makes the money standard money and thus renders the money 'inconvertible' or fiat money (money by order). When the link with metal is broken, there is a tendency to over-issue paper money. Its value then depreciates. Prices shoot up, which results in suffering for the people with fixed incomes. There are merits and demerits of the paper money which are narrated as follows:

Paper money is the cheapest media of exchange. If a country uses paper money, it need not spend anything on the purchase of gold or silver for mounting coins. The loss which a country suffers from the wear and tear of metallic money is also avoided.

Paper money is the most convenient form of money, and large amount can be carried conveniently in the pocket purse.

The paper money is homogeneous. Even among the coins there are good and bad coins. But currency notes are all exactly similar. It is, therefore, a very suitable medium of exchange. The value of paper money can be kept stable by properly regulating its issue. Paper money is absolutely elastic. Its quantity can be increased or decreased at the will of the currency authority. Thus, paper money can better meet the requirements of trade and industry. Money in the form of currency notes can be cheaply remitted from one place to another in an insured cover.

The paper money have some demerits which are:

Paper money is of no value outside the country of issue. This is true about the soft currency, as, our Rupee is not being used as media of excheque in USA or England, but their currency can work as currency. Gold and silver coins are accepted even by foreigners, as they have got some intrinsic value.

Paper currency may result in instability of foreign exchange rates when the domestic prices and external prices do not move in harmony.

There is a possibility of damage to paper. Fire may burn it; if the place is flooded, it's gone; it may also be eaten up by white ants.

A serious drawback in paper currency is the ease with which it can be issued. There is always a danger of its over-issue when the Government is in financial difficulties. The temptation is too great to be resisted. Once this course is adopted, however, it gathers momentum and leads to further note-printing, and this goes on till the paper currency loses all value.

2.3 Value of Money

Number of goods and services which a unit of money can command in exchange for it is the value of money. For example, if we can buy two pencils for one rupee it will be the value of one rupee. This means that purchasing power of a unit of money, say one rupee, is the value of money.

The value of money in a country changes with the passage of time. When the prices of goods and services in general go up the value of money falls because a unit of money purchases fewer goods. Conversely, whenever the general price level falls the value of money goes up because a unit of money can now buy more goods and services.

From the above explanation we can extract that there is inverse correlation between the general price level in a country and the value of money i.e. when the general price level goes up, value of money goes down and vice-versa. It is evident from the fall of the value of money in Pakistan since independence. In 1950's one rupee note commanded quite a few things in exchange for it, but now it is unable to buy even a good quality pencil. Hence, we can say that value of money in Pakistan has fallen sharply during the last two or three decades.

Prof. Taussig explains this theory in the following way:

"Other things remaining constant, if the quantity of money in a country is doubled, price level will be doubled and value of money will be one-half. Conversely, if the quantity of money is halved price level will be one-halved and the value of money will be doubled".

According to the above statement of the theory, changes in the general price level, other things being constant, are directly proportional to changes of money supply. This means that if money supply in a country is doubled over-night, the general price level, other things being equal, will immediately be doubled due to which the value of money or the purchasing power of money will be cut down to exactly one-half and vice versa.

2.4 Inflation

Inflation means generally rising money prices of goods and services. To understand what inflation is and is not, consider the above definition in detail:

Goods and services: This refers not to stocks or bonds or other financial assets, but to the tangible and intangible commodities economic agents produce and sell to one another. These are commodities to be consumed or held for future use; e.g. food, haircuts, shelter, houses, health care, schooling, cars, tractors, machine tools.

Money prices: This refers to amounts of money, dollars and cents in the United States, per commodity unit, e.g., per pound of butter, gallon of gasoline, haircut, bus trip, kilowatthours, or diesel engine. In contrast, imagine the barter prices at which one commodity trades for another; e.g., 3 gallons of a gas for 1 hour of labour, two bus fares for 1 pound of butter, one haircut for 100 kilowatthours. From the money prices for any two commodities can be calculated their implicit barter price, their relative price in economists' absolute prices, i.e., money prices.

Rising: This does not mean "high". By some measures, money prices in the Pakistan were twice as high at the end of 1990 as in 1980.

Generally: Inflation refers to pervasive, widespread increases of money prices. A rising price for a single commodity, even beef or oil, is not per se inflation, any more than declining prices of pocket calculators or digital time pieces represent deflation.

2.5 Money And Inflation

To understand inflation and deflation, it is necessary to review the role of money in economic life. An economy where goods and services are always bartered directly for each other would be spared inflation or deflation. It would also be terribly inefficient. Perhaps the village cobbler can trade shoes for the farmer's eggs, and even promise shoes tomorrow for eggs today, but imagine the difficulties if steel plants had to pay their workers in steel ingots, or else trade the ingots for eggs and shoes and other goods more to their employees' taste. Without money, much time and effort would be spent seeking and executing mutually advantageous trades, and much capital would be tied up in inventories. To escape these inefficiencies the people of even private societies have agreed among themselves on a common trading commodity, viz money.

The money of a society serves as a commonly accepted medium of exchange and as a unit of account and calculation. goods and services can be traded for money rather than directly for other goods and services. The cobbler can sell shoes for money and use the money later to buy eggs, as well as leather, nails, and the services of an apprentice. The steel plant can sell ingots for money and pay its employees in money, and the workers can find and buy what they individually want. Prices can be quoted and values calculated in units of money. Imagine the difficulty of keeping track of barter prices for all possible pairs of commodities.

2.6 Causes of Inflation

The major causes of inflation may be grouped under two headings:

1. Increase in Demand which may be due to:

- (a) increase in money supply;
- (b) increase in disposable incomes;
- (c) increase in community's aggregate spending on consumption and investment goods;
- (d) excessive speculation and tendency to hoarding and profiteering on the part of producers and traders;
- (e) increase in foreign demand and hence exports;
- (f) increase in salaries, wages or dearness allowance; and
- (g) increase in population.

Generally the most important cause of inflation is excessive public expenditure financed by deficit financing during war or on the implementation of plans for economic development. The newly created money increases government demand for goods and services and also the purchasing power of the people through increase in disposable income.

2. *No corresponding increase in the output of goods and services which may be due to;*

- (a) deficiency of capital equipment;
- (b) scarcity of other complementary factors of production, e.g., skilled labour or technicians, essential raw materials or lack of dynamic entrepreneurs;
- (c) increase in exports for earning the required foreign exchange;
- (d) decrease in imports owing to war or restrictions on imports necessitated by an adverse balance of payments and efforts to rectify it;
- (e) speculative hoarding by the producers, traders and middlemen in anticipation of a further rise in prices;
- (f) drought, famine or any other natural calamity adversely affecting agricultural production; and
- (g) prolonged industrial unrest resulting in reduction of industrial production.

The demand-pull inflation is caused primarily by factors operation on the demand side resulting in excess of aggregate demand over the available supply of goods and services. The cost-push inflation, on the other hand, is caused by increase in salaries, wages, the rising cost of machinery and capital equipment and of essential raw materials. Actually, all the above factors operate simultaneously to exert inflationary pressure and, if continued sufficiently long, to create hyper-inflation.

2.7 Banking System

2.7.1 System of Note-Issue

A sound system of note-issue, however, must have both elasticity and safety. Hence, all countries have evolved systems each of which represents a compromise between these two principles. Under this system, a given quantity of notes can be issued by the central bank without keeping any metallic reserves. This portion could be covered

only by Government securities, which is called the fiduciary limit.

2.7.2 *The Central Bank and its Functions*

The central bank is an institution, often but not always owned by the state, which has the overriding duty of conducting the monetary policy of the government. It is, in terms of our model, the duty of the central bank to control the money supply (and thus the rate of interest) in a manner which has an effect on aggregate demand which the government deems to be appropriate. The general and overriding function of the central bank is thus discretionary monetary control. Its particular functions, from which its capacity to perform its main function derive, are the following:

1. It is the sole source of legal tender money (notes) which are central bank liabilities.
2. It acts as bankers' bank in that commercial banks keep accounts with the central bank just as individuals and enterprises keep accounts with commercial banks.
3. It is the government's banker and keeps the main government accounts and provides the government with economic and financial advice.
4. It holds the gold and foreign exchange reserves of the country.
5. It acts, if the need arises, as lender of last resort.
6. It manages the government debt (usually known as the National Debt).

A banking system is an integrated network of commercial banks legally empowered to hold demand and time deposits and to do a general business in all lending areas, such as commercial and industrial lending, real estate lending, consumer installment lending, lending in foreign countries, financing of exports and imports, and other activities. A banking system, as opposed to a system of financing of exports and imports, and other activities. A banking system, as opposed of a system of financial institutions, consists of commercial banks chartered by the state in which they are located, or by the Comptroller of Currency as national banks, and possessing powers discussed above. Not all institutions bearing the name "bank" are, in fact, banks as the term is used here. In the eastern part of the United States there are many mutual savings banks, which are much more akin to savings and loan associations than to commercial banks.

2.7.3 *Functions of Banks*

Broadly speaking, there are three principal functions that banks (other than central banks) perform: (a) receiving deposits; (b) advancing loans; and (c) discounting bills

- a) *Receiving Deposits*: This function is important, because banks mainly depend on the funds deposited with them by the public. Deposits are of three kinds: (i) current or demand deposits, (ii) fixed or time deposits, and (iii) savings deposits.
- b) *Advancing Loans*: In this respect, the banker has to shoulder a heavy responsibility. The bank makes profit by advancing loans.
- c) *Discounting Bills*: Discounting of bills is, practically speaking, lending for short

periods. A trader, for instance, who does not wish to lock up large funds in trade credits, may draw a bill of exchange on his debtor, and, after it has been accepted by, or on behalf of, the debtor, he may get it discounted by his banker.

2.7.4 *Creation of Credit*

Creation of credit is one of the most important functions of a modern bank:

2.7.5 *How Banks create Credit*

Banks create credit in two ways:

- i. By advancing loans
- ii. by purchasing securities.

2.7.6 *International Banks (IBs)*

The International Banks play an important role of transfer the foreign exchange, technology, and know how, and also work as training institutions for the local Banks. The huge and gigantic projects, their finances, technical and economic formalities are performed by the International Banks. these Banks also arrange foreign exchange, and help to determine the foreign exchange rates. The IBs have supporting role in the international trade, (Exports and Imports). the guarantee and line of credit (LC) for loan governments to procure equipments and machinery are facilitated by these Banks.

3. SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. How would you define Money? What are the characteristics of good money?
Points for consideration;
 - i. Money as medium of exchange.
 - ii) A standard of value.
 - iii) A store of value
 - iv) A base for government payments.
 - v) A base for economic development.

2. Describe briefly the paper money as a good medium of exchange. Important points to note.
 - i. What is convertible paper money?
 - ii. The difficulties faced in conversion of Excess money in coins, particularly after war.
 - iii. Paper money is of no value outside the country of issue.
 - iv. Possibility of damages to the paper money.
 - v. Homogeneity of the paper money.

3. What is inflation? Explain major causes of inflation.

Points to note;

- i. Rising money prices of goods and services.
- ii. Good and Services can be traded for money rather than directly for other goods and services.
- iii. Increase in money supply, and disposable income, salaries, wages, and population cause inflation.
- iv. No corresponding increase in the out-put of goods and services which may be due to lack of capital, scarcity of other factors of production, imbalance in trade, and reduction in industrial production cause inflation.

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UNIT-7

BALANCE OF PAYMENT AND FOREIGN EXCHANGE

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1. OBJECTIVES

After studying this unit, the students should be able to:

1. Discuss concepts of balance of payments, and distinguish between balance of payments and balance of trade;
2. Comment on the trade policy of Pakistan;
3. Explain the exchange rate policy; and;
4. Highlight objectives of International Monetary Fund.

2. SUMMARY OF THE MAJOR TOPICS

2.1 Balance of Payment and Foreign Exchange

Balance of payments is a systematic record of all economic transactions of visible and invisible goods. The export receipts and import payments on visible goods is the balance of the trade account and is a part of the balance of payments. However, there is more to it i.e. The export receipts and import payments of all the services rendered is also a part of the balance of payments. Thus, to add up this we may say that the balance of payments shows all the record of all the payments and receipts of a country in terms of foreign exchange.

According to the original concept, the balance of international payments of a country (the home country) equalled the net receipts or payments, or changes in the holdings of such internationally accepted media of exchange by its residents resulting from their transactions with residents of foreign countries. These transactions include current as well as capital transactions. Current transactions consist of international trade in tangible goods as well as services (such as pensions and government grants). Capital transactions consist of purchases or sales by domestic residents of assets held abroad and by foreign residents of assets held in the home country. Such assets include direct investments, i.e. equity interests in foreign enterprises and other property located in foreign countries providing a significant influence over their management and loans between the investors and such foreign affiliates; other securities; loans by government; loans by banks and others to unaffiliated foreign residents including trade credits; and bank deposits. Capital transactions under this concept do not include, however, changes in the holdings by domestic residents of internationally accepted media of exchange, since these changes are the counterpart, and the measure of the balance on the other transactions.

Thus from the account of the balance of trade and the account of the various invisible mentioned above, we will obtain the statement showing the balance of payments of a country. Supposing that total receipts is equal to total payments, the balance of payments is said to be neither favourable nor unfavourable for the particular country. The balance of payments will be favourable for that country when its total receipts is greater than is total payments, otherwise the balance of payments is said to be unfavourable.

When the balance of payments is favourable for a country that particular country would most probably use its excess receipts on making investment in other countries, buy gold from the international market or even give loans to countries in great need.

On the other hand, when the balance of payments is unfavourable for a country the most objective measure to overcome the undesired situation is to create incentive for foreigners or multi-national to invest in the country or otherwise the government must find a way to make up for the excess payment so that the balance of payments account is levelled. However, even after such measures have been taken the account of the

balance of payments may still not be balanced and the measure to be taken now is to sell the government's gold reserves in the international market to balance the account of payments.

For the purpose of classifying a country's economic transactions and balancing its payments the government must keep three separate recorded i.e. current account of the balance of payments, capital account (loans) and the account of gold and foreign exchange reserves.

An example of the Balance of Payments is given in the following Table:

	<i>July-March (P)</i>	
	<i>1994-95</i>	<i>1995-96</i>
Trade Balance	-1673	-2539
Exports (fob)	5616	6137
Imports (fob)	-7289	-8676
Services (net)	-1950	-2561
Private Transfer	1768	1792
Workers Remittances	1415	1148
Current Account Balance	-1855	-3308
Long Term Capital (net)	2536	1247
Changes in Reserves	-170	895
(+ = Increase)		

Source: State Bank of Pakistan

The balance of payments position in Pakistan during the first half of the current year 1995-96 came under pressure due to decline in exports coupled with higher imports. The corrective measures were taken in October 1995 which include devaluation of Pak-rupee by 7 percent against US dollar and imposition of a regulatory duty of 10 percent on imports. As a result trade balance started to improve and by July-March 1995-96, exports witnessed an increase of 9.3 percent (fob). During July-March 1995-96, the private unrequited transfers (net) rose by \$ 24 million and totalled at \$ 1792 million over the level of \$ 1768 million recorded in the same period last year. Thus, the current account balance was in deficit by \$ 3308 million. The position of foreign exchange reserves remained comfortable in this period.

2.2 Balance of Trade

The balance of international trade of a country is the difference between its exports and imports. A narrow definition of exports and imports includes only tangible goods. A broader definition would cover products of factors of production in all forms, such as services related to international transportation and travel, insurance, the planning and supervision of construction projects, management assistance, the work performed by migratory workers, and incomes from royalties and from international investments.

Balance of Trade can be seen from the record of receipts for visible exports and payments on visible imports. The balance of trade record may show the accounts of exports and imports which are merchandised in nature e.g. wheat, rice, cotton, jute, machinery etc. by comparing in export receipts and import payments of such goods we will be in a situation to consider whether the balance of trade for a country is favourable or unfavourable. Supposing that the receipts are equal to the payments, this means that trade is neither favourable nor unfavourable for the country. Trade is considered to be favourable for a country when its export receipts are greater than import payments and will be considered unfavourable when the situation is reversed.

The balance of trade does not show the true receipts and payments of a country since it does not include the payments and receipts of invisible goods i.e. services, and it may very well be true that a country enjoying a favourable balance of trade may be facing a huge deficit on the account of invisible transactions and as a result of this the balance of trade may eventually become unfavourable.

The real economic situation prevailing in a country in terms of foreign trade can only be known clearly through the balance of payments and not through the balance of trade because the former includes the latter as well as the balance of invisible goods i.e. services.

2.2.1 Balance of Payments in Pakistan

As already mentioned the Balance of payments is a systematic record of all economic transactions of visible and invisible goods. The export receipts and import payments on visible goods is the balance of the trade account and is part of the balance of payments. However, there is more i.e. the export receipts and import payments of all the services rendered is also a part of the balance of payments. Thus, to add up this we may say that the balance of payments shows all the record of all the payments and receipts of a country in terms of foreign exchange.

2.2.2 Trade Policy

Pakistan is acting on a liberal and outward looking trade strategy. Its aim is to integrate the economy globally. Therefore, most of the trade barriers have either been abolished or substantially reduced. Now reliance is made on tariff rather than on quota or other quantitative restrictions in regulating trade. The principal measures announced under the trade policy during 1995-96 in the areas of exports and imports are given below:

2.2.3 Export Measures

- The existing zero rated import and export policy regarding cotton and cotton yarn will continue for the next three financial years.
- The time bound and un-bound tariff concessions with drawn from the export oriented industries will now be governed by statutory tariff ranging from 10-45 percent.

- The import of machinery, intermediate goods and raw materials, required by the export oriented industries, has been allowed on a concessionary tariff framework.
- Facility of borrowing money from abroad has been allowed against the letters of credit received by exporters.
- A subsidy of 25 percent of freight for the year 1995-96 has been provided to the new exporting firms of jersey sheet.
- The following items have been included in the list of eligible items for export:
 - Synthetic yarn and blended yarn.
 - Packed basmati rice with brand names.
 - Animal casings.
 - Mushrooms.
- The issuance of export authorization of vehicles for the purpose of carrying pilgrims "zairin" to holy places has been entrusted to the Export Promotion Bureau.
- It has been decided to do away with requirement of the NOC from different agencies regarding duty free/sales tax free import of gold, uncut precious and semi-precious stones.
- The ceiling of Rs. 75,000 and condition of obtaining NOC from State Bank of Pakistan for the export of carpets by foreign nationals or Pakistanis employed abroad has been removed. Instead encashment certificate of foreign exchange would suffice.
- The Pakistani insurance companies whose total assets over their total liabilities are in excess have been allowed to establish their branch offices abroad provided they meet their requirement of initial capital abroad through Foreign Exchange Bearers Certificates or their own foreign exchange.

2.3 Equilibrium, Disequilibrium in Balance of Payments

"Equilibrium is that state of the balance of payments over the relevant time period which makes it possible to sustain an open economy without severe unemployment on a continuing basis." The essentials in this definition are: (a) relevant time period (b) openness of economy (i.e. no undue restrictions on imports), (c) absence of unemployment, and (d) continuing basis of the equilibrium (i.e. it is capable of being sustained). The period is generally on year. Thus, seasonal inequality between exports and imports is not a sign of disequilibrium.

2.3.1 *Static Equilibrium*

A distinction is also made between static Equilibrium and dynamic equilibrium. The distinction between static and dynamic equilibrium depends upon the time period. In static equilibrium, Exports equal imports including exports and imports of services as

well as goods and the other items on the balance of payments - short terms capital, long-term capital and monetary gold, are on balance, zero. Not only should the balance of payments be in equilibrium, but also national money incomes should be in an equilibrium vis-a-vis money incomes abroad. The foreign exchange rate must also be in equilibrium.

2.3.2 *Dynamic Equilibrium*

The condition of dynamic equilibrium for short periods of time is that exports and imports differ by the amount of short-term capital movements and gold (net) and there are no large de-stabilising short-term capital movements.

The condition for dynamic equilibrium in the long run is that exports and imports differ by the amount of long-term autonomous capital movements made in a normal direction, i.e. "from the low interest rate country to those with high rates".

When the balance of payments of a country is in equilibrium, the demand for domestic currency is equal to its supply.

2.3.3 *Types and Causes of Disequilibrium*

There are several variables which join together to constitute equilibrium in the international economic position of a country, viz, national incomes at home and abroad, the prices of goods and factors, the supply of money, the rate of interest, etc. At the back of these variables lie the supply of factors, production functions, the state of technology, tastes, the distribution of income, the state of anticipations, etc. If there is a change in any of these variables and there are no appropriate changes in other variables, disequilibrium will be the result.

It is said that the under-developed countries suffer in times of the balance of payments both from low prices in depression which hurt exports and from high incomes in prosperity which give rise to heavy imports. The developed countries are hurt consistently by high import prices during periods of world prosperity, and by low incomes abroad during periods of depression.

2.4 **Foreign Exchange Management**

Foreign exchange management is that branch of company financial management that arises when businesses carry out transactions and calculate profits and losses in foreign as well as domestic currencies. Foreign exchange management has become of critical significance to most major companies as international trade and investment have become vastly more important over the past 25 years.

It is the supply of, and the demand for foreign currency that would determine at any time the rate of exchange of a country's currency just as the market price of commodities is determined by the forces of demand and supply. When the supply is equal to demand, the rate of exchange is said to be at par. If supply of foreign currency is greater than demand, the value of the foreign currency falls below (or of the home currency rises above) the par. And conversely, if the demand for foreign currency is

greater than supply thereof, the value of foreign currency rises above (or of the home currency falls below) the par.

When the two countries concerned are on gold standard (none now) as already explained, their currency units are either gold coins or are convertible into gold at fixed rates. Moreover, gold freely moves between the countries. The par of exchange between such countries is called the "mint par of exchange".

2.4.1 Exchange Rate Policy

The exchange rate means the units of local currency or currency of a country which are required for the exchange with each unit of foreign exchange i.e. U.S. dollar e.g. L.50 = \$1, Rs.38 = \$1 etc.

There are three methods of systems for determining the exchange rate.

- i. Floating exchange rate system
- ii. Managed floating exchange rate system.
- iii. Fixed exchange rate system.

2.4.2 Floating exchange Rate System

Through this system the exchange rate is determined by the conjunction of the unfettered forces of demand for and supply of foreign exchange. The equilibrium between the two forces determines the exchange rate. Thus, when demand/ supply of foreign exchange rises or falls the exchange rate moves accordingly.

We will now see as to how these forces come about accordingly. For our purpose we shall assume that we are dealing with the exchange rate of Rs. in terms of US \$.

2.4.3 Demand for Foreign Exchange

Basically the demand for foreign exchange (or supply of local currency) depends upon the demand for imports by that particular country and here we shall assume it to be Pakistan. If Pakistan's demand for imports is high as is the case of inelastic demand for goods, this also means that there is a great demand for US \$ and for this matter supply of local currency or here it is Rs., will also rise and vice versa.

2.4.4 Supply of Foreign Exchange

On the other hand, the supply of foreign exchange or US \$ will depend upon the exports of that country, here Pakistan, to the rest of the world. Thus, for this matter, if the demand for goods produced by Pakistan is inelastic, supply of the US \$ in the international market will go up so that other countries may purchase Pakistani goods and vice versa.

2.4.5 Merits of the System

Through the fixed exchange rate system, receipts and payments are guaranteed/ascertained unlike the floating exchange rate system where receipts and

payments remain uncertain (receipts and payments of exports and imports).

Since under this system the exchange rate is fixed, export and import prices do not change rapidly and thus terms of trade remain stable.

Generally speaking, economic fluctuations taking place in the international market do not adversely affect a country which adopts this system of exchange rate.

2.4.6 Demerits of the System

There is no automatic mechanism by which the disequilibrium (deficit/surplus) in the balance of payments may automatically be corrected as it is in the floating exchange rate system i.e. if the demand for imports > supply of exports (under floating exchange rate), demand for \$ will go up and thus devaluation has got to take place, thereby inducing foreign investors since home market is now cheaper. Hence, deficit is corrected.

If an LDC were to adopt this system of exchange rate, it is more likely than not to suffer from deficit in its payments rather than being able to overcome it.

2.5 International Monetary Fund

The purpose of the International Monetary Fund (IMF) is to promote international monetary cooperation through a permanent institution which provides the machinery for consultation and collaboration on international monetary problems. Specifically, the function of the IMF is to promote orderly and stable foreign currency exchange markets, to facilitate international trade, and to contribute to balance of payments adjustment. To further these objectives, the IMF makes financial resources available to its member countries in times of balance of payments difficulties.

2.5.1 Purposes and Objectives

The main purpose of the Fund are:-

- i. To promote international monetary co-operation through a permanent institution.
- ii. To facilitate the expansion and balanced growth of international trade, and to contribute thereby to the promotion and maintenance of high levels of employment of the member-countries.
- iii. To promote exchange stability, to maintain orderly exchange arrangements among members, and to avoid competitive exchange depreciation.
- iv. To assist in the establishment of a multilateral system of payments in respect of current transaction between members and in the elimination of foreign exchange restrictions.
- v. To give confidence to members by making the Fund's resources available to them under adequate safeguards, thus providing them with opportunity to correct maladjustments in their balance of payments.

3. SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

Distinguish between Balance of Trade and Balance of Payments.

Points to note:

- i. Exports and imports of the country and its difference - Balance of trade being part of the Balance of Payments.
 - ii. The balance of payments position in Pakistan.
2. Explain equilibrium and Disequilibrium in the Balance of Payments.
 3. Highlight the Exchange Rate Policy with its merits and demerits.
 - i. The country will devalue its currency, when there is deficit in payments.
 - ii. A fixed exchange rate is maintained in the country under the exchange rate policy
 4. What are the objectives of IMF. Is it working as controller to the economies of the less developed countries?

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UNIT-8

STOCK MARKET AND ITS OPERATION

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1. OBJECTIVES

After studying this unit along with the **suggested readings**, you should be able to:

1. Explain the concept and role of stock market;
2. Narrate the functions of stock market; and
3. Evaluate the role of stock market in Pakistan.

2. SUMMARY OF THE MAJOR TOPICS

2.1 Historical Perspectives

The origin of stock exchange dates back to 1817 A.D. when the New York Stock and Exchange Board was created which finally paved the way for the establishment of the New York Stock Exchange. The Congress, after the crash of 1929, inaugurated comprehensive federal legislation to regularize the exchanges by establishing the Securities and Exchange Commission. The exchange has since then experienced monumental expansion and has become a centre of attraction for investors all over the world. The size of the NYSE can be gauged from the fact that the aggregate market value of the stocks traded is about 50% of the U.S. gross national product. Some of the major stock exchanges functioning in the world as well as Pakistan's trading among the selected emerging markets are as follows:

Selected Stock Markets: Indicative Parameters 1993

Developed Stock Markets	Market Capitalization US \$ in million	Companies No.
USA	5,223,768	7,607
Germany	463,476	426
UK	1,151,646	1,646
Japan	2,999,756	2,155
Emerging Stock Markets		
Mexico	200,671	190
Malaysia	220,328	410
South Africa	217,110	647
Taiwan	195,198	285
Korea	139,420	693
Thailand	130,510	347
Brazil	99,430	550
India	97,976	6,800
Pakistan	11,602	653

Source: Emerging Markets, IFC (1994)

The development of a stock market is essential for economic growth and development of a country. It complements and supports the productive activities of the

economy by performing the vital functions of mobilizing and allocating savings for the long term funding requirements of business and industry. It also enables the commercial and industrial base to expand, to create job opportunities and increase per capita income and GNP. Stock Market is also known as equity market or capital market. Equity markets are therefore often referred to as foundations of the national economy.

2.2 Definitions

A stock exchange is an organized market place in which securities such as bonds and common and preferred stocks are bought and sold. The origins of today's stock exchanges unusually were informal gatherings of merchants and others who traded securities. The Stock Exchange for Stock Market is the market place of joint stock companies, where stock certificates of big business enterprises, debentures, government bonds and bills of exchange are bought and sold. Those who have surplus cash with them and are interested to earn interest or profit without doing business by themselves purchase shares or bonds etc. at the stock exchange. In case they fall in need of money they sell these financial assets at the stock exchange.

2.3 Role and Performance of Stock Exchange

Money invested in stock exchange plays the double role for investment. On one hand, it earns interest or profit for the investors and, on the other hand, it is used by companies or government in business enterprises. Thus, money supply increases to the extent by which investment is made by the people in the stock exchange. In this way, stock Exchange is a source of money supply in a country.

A company may issue different types of shares, namely preferred shares, participating preferred shares, common or ordinary shares. The preferred shares enjoy priority with respect to dividends, and if the company is liquidated to division of assets. Dividends on preferred shares are generally paid at a fixed rate. The preferred shares are sometimes divided into Class A or prior and Class B or rights. The participating preferred shares enjoy the added benefits of earning extra dividends based on dividends paid to common shareholders.

The common stock, held by the majority of shareholders, represent a residual interest in the company. Dividends paid on common stock fluctuate with the earnings of a company. However, low dividends do not necessarily suggest low profitability. When a company is expanding it may decide to forgo dividends in order to plough back profits and finance growth from retained earnings. Shareholders in such case would be willing to forgo lower dividends now in anticipation of even higher profits and dividends in the future.

Following documents or financial assets are traded in the stock exchange:

2.3.1 Shares

In order to run a joint stock company, the amount of investment is collected by

selling shares of the company. The shareholders elect the board of directors which makes investment in a project to earn profit. The profit is then distributed among share holders as dividend. A "Share" therefore, is a part of total investment of a joint stock company and a certificate issued to that effect is called share certificate.

2.3.2 *Stock Certificate*

It is a financial document like share certificate. It is also issued by a joint stock company. The main difference between a stock certificate and a share certificate is that in the case of former any number of shares out of shares given on a stock certificate can be sold while in case of latter all shares given on a share certificate will have to be sold at a time.

2.3.3 *Debenture*

In order to expand their business joint stock companies sell debentures to get loans from the people at a certain rate of interest. Debenture is therefore a loan document. The debenture holder does not share the profit/loss of the company like a shareholder.

2.3.4 *Bond*

It is also a loan document on which joint stock companies or government gets loan from the people at a certain rate of interest. Who-so-ever holds bond is its owner e.g. prize bonds in Pakistan; but debenture can only be held by a person in whose name it is issued.

2.4 **Membership of Stock Exchange**

Brokers are members of the stock exchanges but an outsider can also use the exchange by employing a member as an agent. The broker can reject this relationship and this occasionally happens when a broker considers an account too small to be acceptable and establishes minimum acceptable limits or is willing to accept only certain kinds of business, for example institutional accounts or active trading accounts. Once the order is placed and accepted, the relationship becomes one of principal-agent, as an agent the broker has a fiduciary duty to act in good faith with respect to his customer. Arguably, the most significant task a broker is expected to perform is obtaining the best available price in the execution of customer orders.

The price of membership varies with the performance of the stock market and the amount of income from brokerage business. It increased from a mere Rs.0.3 million 1985 to Rs.12.5 million during the boom in 1994. There is generally a difference in the unofficial and official price of seats as there is a 12.5% tax on the sale of a seat.

The required qualification for a member is as follow:

- Age should not be less than 21 years.
- Citizenship should be Pakistani.

- Should not be of unsound mind.
- Should not have been convicted of any offense involving fraud or breach of trust.
- Should not have been adjudicated as insolvent or suspended payment or compounded with creditors.
- Should be experienced in the brokerage business for a period of not less than two years (this condition can be waived when such a person is in respect of means, integrity and background considered by the Governing Body to be otherwise qualified for membership).
- A specified net capital balance has to be maintained in the capital account at all times.

2.5 Role of Broker

The role of brokers can be termed as one of dual capacity where brokers act as jobbers for their own portfolios and as brokers for their clients. It is important that these functions when performed by the same brokerage house are kept separately apart. It is not uncommon for brokers to quote the highest price when a stock has to be purchased and quote the lowest price for a sale to clients. In addition, brokers are allowed to raise corporate finance for their clients prompting the stockpiling or dumping of stocks on the basis of privileged information.

2.6 Status of the Stock Market in Pakistan

The market's growth since 1990, however, is truly phenomenal and unprecedented in the history of the exchange. The table presented below illustrates both the increase in breadth as well as depth of the market since 1989. The number of companies listed on the KSE increased rapidly from 487 in 1990 to 683 in June 1994. At the same time listed capital rose from Rs.28 billion to Rs.77 billion, an increase of 175%, while market capitalization increased from Rs.53 billion to Rs.416 billion, an increase of 685%. The average daily turnover of shares grew tenfold from 1 million shares to over 10 million shares during the same period. Share ownership broadened with the number of shareholders rising from 300,000 in 1990 to 1.5 million in 1994. While prior to 1990, 95% of all shareholders were based in Karachi the percentage has declined to 60%, reflecting growing geographical dispersion in share ownership.

By the end of 1991, Pakistan's equity market had been ranked second among the five leading emerging capital markets in the world; by the International Finance Corporation in terms of the return obtained by investors. The surge of activity in the equity market was the result of a concerted programme of liberalization and deregulation of the financial sector initiated by the GOP in 1989.

In order to promote foreign investors, the policy environment has been greatly improved and a large number of restrictions on foreign investors have been abolished. Pakistan has been ranked among one of the six leading markets namely Argentina, Brazil,

Malaysia, Peru and Turkey, where government policy environment is most hospitable to foreign investors and allows them virtually unrestricted access to the local stock market, as well as free repatriation of income and capital. (The Economist, September 25, 1993). It is now estimated that approximately US\$ 1,00 million has been invested in the stock market by foreign investors (Lakhani, 1994).

The number of Pakistan country funds floated abroad included: The Pakistan Fund (US\$ 22.6 million) lead managed by Citicorp, listed on the Hong Kong Stock Exchange, Pakistan Growth Fund (open end fund of US\$ 25 million) lead managed by Credit Lyonnaise International Asset Management Ltd., also listed on the Hong Kong Stock Exchange, Pakistan Fund (US\$ 60 million) oversubscribed threefold and lead managed by Morgan Stanley, listed on the New York Stock Exchange, and the Pakistan Special Situation Fund. In addition, a variety of funds such as the Moghul Regent Fund (US\$ 50 million and managed by W.I. Car), listed on the Irish Stock Exchange, Fidelity Investment, Baring Investment, Schroeder Investment, G.T. Asset management, Genesis Management, Saudi Aggad Investment Ltd., Commonwealth Equity Fund and Morgan Stanley have invested a percentage of their portfolio in the market.

Transactions are recorded on the ready board. In terms of listed capital the textile sector, the financial sector and fuel and energy have the largest share. The details of sectors are given as under:

Rs. in Millions

<i>Name of Sector</i>	<i>Nox. of listed</i>	<i>Listed capital</i>	<i>% Share</i>	<i>Market Capitalization</i>	<i>% Share</i>
Mutual Funds	28	1368.32	1.73	5601.62	1.36
Modarabas	47	7362.52	9.32	1190.58	2.72
Leasing Companies	22	2057.82	2.58	10734.27	2.61
Investment Companies/ Securities Banks	31	8968.46	11.36	51060.65	12.42
Insurance	31	910.02	1.15	9777.68	2.38
Textile Spinning	150	10554.05	13.36	23673.78	5.76
Textile Weaving	25	2151.55	2.72	1915.13	0.47
Textile Composite	43	4994.05	6.32	14885.21	3.62

Woolen	9	218.47	0.28	835.01	0.20
Synthetic & Rayon	22	4068.36	5.15	30985.64	7.54
Jute	9	427.58	0.54	443.23	0.11
Sugar & Allied	37	4007.53	5.08	9245.52	2.25
Cement	14	3455.28	4.38	30569.50	7.43
Tobacco	7	519.62	0.66	3848.55	0.94
Fuel & Energy	17	8179.53	10.36	63149.39	15.36
Engineering	16	923.51	1.17	34828.12	0.83
Auto & Allied Engineering	23	2584.17	3.27	11649.94	2.83
Cable & Electrical Goods	16	700.87	0.89	6768.61	1.65
Transport and Communication	4	4773.03	6.04	7.664.45	1.86
Chem & Pharmaceutical	36	5817.06	7.37	77305.05	18.80
Paper & Board	15	820.78	1.13	7982.74	1.94
Vanaspati & Allied	19	381.94	0.94	617.93	0.15
Construction	4	116.42	0.15	83.01	0.02
Leather & Tanneries	7	305.98	0.39	2245.00	0.55
Food and Allied	22	1511.83	1.91	20727.52	5.04
Glass & Ceramics	10	639.79	0.81	1642.44	0.40
Miscellaneous	25	1103.92	1.4	3174.51	0.77
Total	689	78972.55	100	411204.06	100

Note: Figures represent status on 15 August, 1994

Source: Karachi Stock Exchange

The capital market (Stock Market) has witnessed rapid growth and modernization during the last two years due to the reforms introduced by the Government. Government has met many requirements of the stock exchange including provision of various tax concessions to help it play a more vibrant role in the economy. Extensive reforms have been carried out to strengthen the system and bring the stock market at par with the leading exchanges of Asia. With these reforms number of companies listed on the stock exchanges have increased the country. The Karachi Stock Exchange (KSE), the premier exchange of the country having 775 listed companies, the Lahore Stock Exchange (LSE) with 635 and the Islamabad Stock Exchange (ISE) with 269 listed companies.

Status of the companies, funds mobilizations, and total turnover in various Stock Exchanges in Pakistan are given in the following Table:

	1993-94	1994-95
	<i>Karachi Stock Exchange</i>	
A	New Companies Listed	
	i. No. of Companies	44
	ii. Fund Mobilized (Rs. Billion)	9.75
B	Turnover of Shares (in million)	
		1831.96
	<i>Lahore Stock exchange</i>	
A	New Companies Listed	
	i. No. of Companies	22
	ii. Fund Mobilized (Rs. Billion)	1.06
B	Turnover of Shares (in million)	
		369.65
	<i>Islamabad Stock Exchange</i>	
A	New Companies Listed	
	i. No. of Companies	46
	ii. Fund Mobilized (Rs. Billion)	2.67
B	Turnover of Shares (in million)	
		37.96
		81.79

Government has initiated a number of liberalization measures to create a free market environment in Pakistan. As a result the stock market has attracted international institutional investors and fund managers. A number of foreign funds are now operating to cope with the increased capital accumulation activities.

The behaviour of the different stock exchanges in the country is given in the following paragraph:

Karachi Stock Exchange (KSE)

The daily turnover of shares at the KSE which was recorded at 1.12 million in 1990 and 13.18 million in 1995 increased to 42.17 million in 1996. During July-March 1995-96 the number of listed companies increased by 33 as compared to 56 in the same period last year. As on 30th March 1996, total number of listed companies stood at 775. The total turnover of shares recorded unprecedented growth of 148 percent over the same period last year from 1421 million shares during the first nine months of 1994-95 to 3524 million shares in the first nine months of the current year. The amount of fund mobilized during the current year amounted to Rs. 15.17 billion compared to Rs. 35.62 billion in the same period last year. The market capitalization and the KSE 100-companies Index have however, showed a declining trend compared to last year's.

Lahore Stock Exchange (LSE)

The Lahore Stock Exchange has constantly strived to improve its infrastructure facility and rules and regulations. There was marked increase in the share turnover at the LSE. Total turnover of shares recorded an increase of 219 percent from 632 million shares in the first nine months of 1994-95 to 2013 million in the first nine months of the current year. During July-March 1995-96, 17 new companies were listed as compared to 43 companies in the same period last year. Total listed companies stood at 635 as on 31.3.1996. The fund mobilized during the first nine months of the current year amounted to Rs. 2.15 billion as against Rs.6.12 billion in the same period last year.

Islamabad Stock Exchange (ISE)

The Islamabad Stock Exchange (ISE) was opened in August 1992. Investment and industrialization activities in the northern area of the country are being promoted by the ISE. The performance of ISE during the period under review was encouraging. The analysis of the available data indicates that the total turnover of shares and total paid-up-capital increased by 173 percent and 30 percent respectively during July-March 1995-96 compared to the same period last year. A total of 25 new companies have been listed during this period as against 23 companies listed during the comparable previous period. Total trading in this period was 114.453 million shares.

Government has taken various measures for strengthening capital market. Some important measures relating to the capital market are as Under:

- Foreigners and overseas Pakistanis are now allowed to make new investments without any prior approval.
- Foreign investors can now own upto 100% of equity in a venture.
- Remittances of dividends and disinvestment proceeds no longer require the State Bank's permission.
- Access to borrowings by foreign companies has been greatly liberalized.
- Extension of the capital gains tax exemption has been made upto June 1998.

- Simplified tax collection system has been introduced by extending withholding tax regime.
- Uniformity in tax treatment on dividends and interest income has been achieved.
- Permission to private sector has been given to set up open ended and closed ended mutual funds.

2.6.1 *Specialized Financial Institutions*

Development Finance Institutions (DFIs), Investment Banks and Specialized Banks improved their sanctioning, disbursement and recovery activities during 1995-96.

During 1994-95 term-loans sanctioned by the development Finance Institutions (DFIs) were higher as compared to the preceding year. Total sanctions of loans amounted to Rs.32.31 billion in 1994-95 as compared to Rs.23.03 billion in 1993-94 indicating a growth of 40.3 percent. Total disbursement of loans in 1994-95 increased by 8.7 percent from Rs. 19.10 billion 1993-94 to Rs.20.77 billion in 1994-95. Recoveries of outstanding amount by DFIs were Rs.26.42 billion during 1994-95 as against Rs. 24.55 billion during the previous year.

Total sanction of loans by various Development Finance Institutions (DFIs) for industrial investment amounted to Rs.10.72 billion during the first nine months of 1995-96 as compared to Rs.11.02 billion in the corresponding period last year recording a decline of 2.7 percent. Disbursement of loans during July-March of the current year increased by Rs.7.23 billion as compared to disbursements of Rs.6.84 billion during the same period last year.

2.6.2 *Modaraba, Leading Companies and Investment Banks*

There were 52 modarabas, 29 leasing companies and 12 investment banks on 31.3.96. During July-March 1995-96 loans sanctioned by these financial institutions amounted to Rs.38.16 billion compared to Rs.35.53 billion in the same period last year indicating a growth of 7.4 percent. During the same period, Rs.36.04 billion was disbursed by modarabas, leasing companies and investment banks representing a growth of 8.8 percent, compared to disbursements of Rs.33.13 billion in the same period last year. There are four housing companies. Their sanctions and disbursements during July-March 1995-96 amounted to Rs.1.96 billion and Rs.1.01 billion respectively

2.6.3 *Auction of Government Securities*

The main objective of the auction of government securities is to raise funds for the federal government on market related rate of return. On each auction State Bank publish tender notice in the leading newspapers inviting bids from approved dealers. These approved dealers can submit bids for themselves and on behalf of their clients. Bids for Six Months treasury Bills are offered by the bidders on discount on which rates of return are determined. As the rate of return of FIBs for all maturities are fixed, bids

for this security may be offered at discount, at par or at premium. On each auction pre-auction targets are fixed to cover the maturities of Treasury Bills and FIBs.

3. SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. How would you define Stock Market?

Points to note:

1.1 There are sufficient numbers of buyers and sellers of shares, bonds and securities.

2. What are the major functions of the Stock Market?

How many companies are listed with Karachi, Lahore and Islamabad Stock Exchanges? Which one has the highest turnover of shares during 1994-95? Can you explain the reason of the high turn over of shares in the respective stock exchange?

3. Please narrate the various measures to strengthen the capital market in Pakistan.

Points to note:

3.1 There is no need for any prior approval for investment by overseas Pakistanis.

3.2 State Bank does not interfere in remittances of dividends.

3.3 Liberal borrowing for the foreign firms to invest in the country.

3.4 Special exemption of Taxes for investors.

4. SUGGESTED READINGS

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UNIT-9

ECONOMIC SCENE OF PAKISTAN

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1. OBJECTIVES

After studying this unit alongwith the suggested readings, you should be able to:

1. Differentiate economic terms e.g. economic growth, its difficulties and utility in the development of an economy;
2. Identify the measurement of economic growth, its difficulties, and utility in the development of an economy ;
3. Explain the main features of a developing country;
4. Point out various obstacles to economic development in Pakistan; and
5. Narrate the current status of Pakistan's economy.

2. SUMMARY OF THE MAJOR TOPICS

2.1 Economic Development and Economic Progress

The terms "economic development", "economic growth", "economic progress" and "Secular change" are used interchangeably in the literature of economics. However, it is possible to distinguish between them. For instance, the term economic development is used for a change in national income over time. Economic growth is used for a rise in per capita income. Economic progress may contain a value-judgement on the progress of economic change, and secular change may be used to describe the very long period trends in the relevant economic variables.

Economic growth means more output while economic development means more output and changes in the technical and institutional arrangement by which it is produced. The significance of economic development for the people is reflected in the increase in per capita income, the pattern of income distribution being given. Economic development must ultimately provide increasing amounts of necessities, comforts and luxuries of life to the people. It must, in other words, raise their living standards. If the increase in the national income is counterbalanced by corresponding increase in the population of the country, per capita income would remain uncharged and the living standards stagnant. For general purposes, however, it is preferable to define economic development in terms of the growth of national income in the aggregate rather than in the per capita sense.

Thus, a better definition of economic development will be to base it on per capita income. According to this definition, economic growth means the increase in per capita income of the country at constant prices. A higher per capita income would mean that people are better off and enjoy a higher standard of living, and to raise the level of living of the people is the main objective of economic development.

The best definition of economic development would be to say what a developed country would be like. "Viewed in this manner, economic progress is the advancement of a community along the line of evolving new and better methods of production, and raising of the levels of output through development of human skill and energy, better organization and the acquisition of capital resources" Economic development also brings in its wake important social, institutional and organizational changes. A rise in national and per capita income is implicit in economic growth. This improvement in income helps and in turn is facilitated by larger savings, increased capital formation and technological development. Rise in the per capita availability of capital resources, improvement in the skill, efficiency and earning power of labour, better organization of production, development of means of transport and communication, growth of financial institutions, urbanization, rise in standards of health and education and expectation of life, greater leisure and increased recreation facilities and widening of the mental horizon of the people, all these characterize economic growth.

The essence of economic development consists in the growth of output or real income per head of the population. Economic growth means the transformation of an

economy form the state of under-development to a state of development, from an agrarian to a highly industrialized society, from a low saver to high saver and from a predominantly rural to a predominantly urbanized society. This transformation is mainly reflected in a sustained and steady rise in national income and per capita income.

2.2 The Measurement of Economic Development

Various measures have been used to assess the level of economic development reached by a country at a particular time and also to see at what rate development has been taking place. Various types of indicators could be used for this purpose. Among these are: national income, per capita income, the rate of investment, productivity per worker, literacy rate, mortality rates and so on. Most of these measures indicate similar trends and would normally support each other. The most commonly used measure of economic development is the level of and change in the national income rather than the Gross National Product. The other measures are even more difficult to apply and are not always satisfactory for comparative purposes. When it is desired to know the level and the rate of change in the living standards of the people, per capita income would be the best indicator. If the object is to assess labour efficiency, income per hour of labour input would be the best measure. For general purposes the measure adopted is the rate of growth of Gross National Product, usually calculated at the compound rate.

2.3 Limitations of the National Income Measure

The various difficulties and limitations of using national income as a measure of economic growth may be classified into three categories.

- a. Difficulties in the way of computing national income in the local currency.
- b. Limitations regarding comparison over time in the same country.
- c. Difficulties of international comparison.

2.3.1 Computation in Local Currency

The first step is to estimate the national income of the country in its own currency for a particular year. This can be done in three ways or all of them can be combined to check or supplement each other:

- i. National income at value of the final product.
- ii. National income at factor price or factor cost.
- iii. National income as aggregate expenditure on final goods and services.

2.3.2 Comparison Over Time in the Same Country

The rate of growth of an economy is represented by the rate of growth of the national income overtime. Even if the statistics are available for the relevant years and we have overcome the difficulty of what to include and what not to include in the final product, what is called "the index number problem" presents a further difficulty

particularly if the period over which the comparison is being made is long. The relative scarcities of various commodities do not remain uncharged with the lapse of time. Some new commodities or substitutes may emerge and others may disappear. The same commodity may improve or deteriorate in quality. Hence relative prices or weights assigned to different commodities may change markedly. As a result the rate of change in the national income as reflected in the index number will be deferent in accordance with the different base period adopted.

2.3.3 *International Comparison*

Problems multiply when per capita income level is compared internationally. For example, i. full convertability of currency does not exist and in most countries exchange controls prevail; ii. if the equilibrium exchange rate is available, conversion of income data at the rate would be biased, because the goods traded internationally do not fully represent the relationship between the total goods and services produced in the countries; iii, in socialist countries, a wide range of services, like administration, distribution, transport, are excluded from the concept of national income that has important consequence.

2.4 *Difficulties of Measurement in Pakistan*

To keep the less developed countries like Pakistan on the road of development, it is must to get a clear idea of the position of the existing economy. It involves the measurement of the relevant characteristics in quantitative term. Many of these can be put in the forms of statistical statements. Thus among the statistical statements reflection of poverty would be: low income per head, low yield from crops, small size of holdings, fragmentation, low capital per head, low savings per head, high percentage of food and raw material in exports, etc. These basic statistics can be used for the development of the country. The main difficulties in measuring such characteristics are as under:

1. Lack of statistical data on land and other natural resources, population, techniques used, types of economic organizations and their relative importance, crop yield, labour productivity, extent of unemployment and under-employment, literacy rates, transport facilities, power resources, etc.
2. Lack of trained personnel to collect and interpret the data and the organization for the collection of statistics.
3. Technical difficulties relating to the use of the statistical method already mentioned by us while considering the measurement of national income.
4. Lack of appreciation of the need for giving correct information on the part of agriculturists, industrialists, traders, and respondents of all kinds. this may be due to illiteracy or ignorance or sheer indifference or fear of injuring self interest.

5. Absence of records of certain basic data, e.g. records of land and its ownership, occupations, yields, family expenditure, business account, etc.
6. Lack of financial resources to pay for the services required for such data collection.

In any case a complete census of all relevant facts and activities in the economy is time-consuming and expensive, nor it is necessary. Sectional and sample surveys can help for creating the necessary basis for framing policies. Even such a limited approach to data collection is in many cases beyond the under-developed countries.

2.5 What Factors Determine Economic Growth?

No unified body of principles provides what might be called a general theory of economic growth. However, certain factors will undoubtedly play a significant role in the development of such a theory. Our purpose at this times is to see what they are. Let us assume that aggregate demand is sufficient to maintain full employment and that government will take the necessary monetary and fiscal measures to assure this. The growth of real GNP will then be determined by improvements in the nation's resources and the "environment" in which they are used. These major growth-determining factors include:

1. *Human resources*: It means the quantity as well as quality of country's human resources influence its economic growth. It includes time spent at work; education, health, and skills of workers; quantity and quality of the tools and capital equipment used by workers.
2. *Natural resources*: Natural resources of a nation are not necessarily fixed. By diverting some of its existing labour and capital into research, a society may be able to discover or develop new natural resources within its own borders which will enhance its future rate of economic growth.
3. *Accumulation of Capital*: The Cost of economic growth to a society is the consumption that it must sacrifice in order to save for the purpose of accumulating capital.
4. *Specialization and Scale of Production*: Economic growth will be determined in part by the potential it has for increasing the specialization of its resources and the scale of its production.
5. *Rate of Technological Progress*: It embraces an effort on the part of society as a whole to get the most out of existing resources and to discover new and better resources through continuous improvements in education, engineering, management and marketing.
6. *Environmental Factors*: It means that political, social, cultural and economic environment must be favourable if significant growth is to occur.

In nutshell, the improved form of human and natural resources, a fast rate of capital formation, specialization and scale of production, technological progress and favourable social, political and economic environment are required and desired for a rapid economic growth.

2.6 State of the Pakistan Economy

There have been significant developments in respect of a number of macro economic indicators during fiscal 1995-96. The GDP growth rate increased from 4.4 percent in 1994-95 to 6.1 percent in 1995-96 slightly improving upon the average growth rate of the last four decades. The agriculture sector grows by 6.7 percent with record production figures for rice and wheat. Cotton output recorded an increase of 21.8 percent. The budget deficit is now estimated around 5.0 percent of GDP. Fiscal checks were introduced to contain growth in expenditure and measures were taken to bring about greater elasticity in government's revenues. Tight monetary policy during the year kept monetary expansion down to 8.4 percent during July-March 1995-96 against 9.8 percent in the corresponding period last year. This was within the annual expansion target of 12.1 percent.

With a view to addressing the concern of low income groups government have pursued policies in the social sectors to improve the standard of living of the common man by improving literacy rate, improving the status of women, curtailing population growth and providing primary health care to the poor.

2.7 Growth Parameters and Investment Trends

The agriculture sector had a growth of 6.7 percent. Rice, wheat and gram production increased by 15.1, 3.3 and 14.3 percent respectively. The cotton crop after suffering losses due to the curl virus and other natural vagaries in the past surpassed the target of 9.5 million bales with a production of 10.6 million bales in 1995-96, a 21.8 percent increase over the last year. Growth of minor crops has more than doubled from 2.3 percent last year to 4.9 percent this year. The production of pulses, vegetables, onion, garlic, fruits and oilseeds has also increased. Red chillies' production increased by 16 percent in 1995-96 though in summer the crop in Sindh was severely affected by rains in 1995. The sub-sectors of livestock and fishing showed growth of 5.6 percent and 8.3 percent respectively while forestry recorded a steep decline of 23.9 percent in 1995-96 as against a growth of 21.8 percent last year.

The mining and quarrying sector experienced a reversal from the negative growth of 4.3 percent in 1994-95 to a positive growth of 8.3 percent in 1995-96.

The growth of value added in the manufacturing sector increased by 4.8 percent in 1995-96 from 2.9 percent last year.

The improved growth in manufacturing sector is attributed to a number of factors which include an increase in cotton production, a 37.6 percent increase in industrial investment, adequate credit provision, reduction in import tariffs and the liberalization

of imports of raw materials and capital goods. Besides, package of incentives was introduced to boost the textile industry.

The investment environment improved during the year. In response to government's policies gross national investment went up by 21.8 percent in current prices and 11.7 percent in constant prices. As percent of GNP, total investment improved from 18.6 percent to 19.4 percent. Private Investment has recorded a phenomenal increase of 29.4 percent in current prices and 20.2 percent in constant prices. Total foreign investment excluding PTC vouchers of \$ 862.2 million has gone up by 30 percent while direct foreign investment by 94.1 percent during July-March 1995-96.

2.8 Monetary Policy Developments

Monetary policy during 1995-96 was geared to achieving macro-economic stability, containing inflation and accelerating the growth process. Efforts were made during the year under review to deepen the process of market orientation of monetary policy. Tight monetary policy has been pursued during the year under review. Against actual monetary expansion of 16.6 percent in 1994-95, monetary expansion has been projected at 12.1 percent for the current year.

During July-March 1995-96 total money supply (M2) increased by 8.4 percent (Rs.94.80 billion) compared with the revised target of 12.1 percent (Rs.93.50 billion) and an expansion of 9.8 percent (Rs.55.07 billion) in the same period last year. Domestic credit increased by 14.4 percent (Rs.109.35 billion) compared to the revised target of 14.3 percent (Rs.108.70 billion) and an expansion of 5.9 percent (Rs.39.85 billion) in the same period last year. Government borrowing for budgetary support increased by Rs.28.42 billion as against Rs.32.28 billion in the corresponding period of last year. Credit to the private sector increased by Rs.54.57 billion against the target of Rs.64 billion for 1995-96 and an expansion of Rs.49.05 billion in the corresponding period of last year.

To ensure that financial institutions are monitored closely prudential regulations were prescribed by the SBP. Under these regulations banks and financial institutions are required to follow prescribed limits such as exposure and debt/equity ratios.

2.9 Fiscal Policy and Budget

An aim of fiscal policy pursued during the year was to continue with the reduction in budget deficits. It was planned to bring down the fiscal deficit from 5.5 percent in 1994-95 to around 5.0 percent in 1995-96 and it is now estimated that the deficit level will be around 5 percent for this year. The budget for 1995-96 contained a comprehensive package to measures to implement fiscal reforms aimed at achieving the twin objectives of containing growth in expenditure and expanding the resource base. The taxation measures announced in the budget aimed at bringing about efficiency and elasticity in government receipts. The coverage of domestic indirect taxes was expanded.

In the consolidated budget of 1995-96 the total revenues were estimated at

Rs.386.5 billion indicating a 19.0 percent increase over last year. The total expenditure was projected at Rs.494.9 billion showing 15.6 percent increase. The overall deficit was estimated at Rs.109.5 billion or around 5.0 percent of GDP which was to be financed through external borrowing (16.3 percent), from domestic non-bank (56.3 percent) and banking system (27.4 percent). Federal tax collections were estimated at Rs.264.84 billion which was revised to Rs.275.06 billion. Federal tax collection from major heads of income and wealth tax, central excise, sales tax and custom duties during 10 months of current fiscal year were Rs.202.26 billion showing 17.9 percent increase over the corresponding period last year.

2.10 Price Situation

The inflationary trends in the economy were subdued during the year 1995-96. The Consumer Price Index (CPI) registered a rise of 9.77 percent, Sensitive Price Indicator (SPI) 6.98 percent and Wholesale Price Index (WPI) 9.01 percent, compared with their increase of 10.82 percent, 12.32 percent and 9.65 percent respectively during the corresponding period last year. The annualized inflation rate measured in terms of Consumer Price Index was estimated at around 10.5 percent for the whole year 1995-96 as against 13 percent recorded in 1994-95.

2.11 Developments in the External Sector

The balance of payments position in the first half of current year came under pressure due to a decline in exports coupled with higher growth in imports. However, the trend was subsequently reversed as a result of corrective measures taken and the devaluation of the rupee by 7 percent as well as an imposition of 10 percent regulatory duty on imports. Consequently, exports witnessed an increase of 5.9 percent and imports had a 16.5 percent growth between July and April 1995-96.

The government continued its trade liberalization policy and in the budget for 1995-96 the maximum tariff was brought down from 70 percent to 65 percent. The emphasis was on enlarging the base of value added and diversified-export-oriented industrial production in the country.

2.12 Energy and Physical Infrastructure

The government has initiated various policy measures to reduce the gap between the supply and demand of energy. The quantum of energy supplies from different sources during the first three quarters of the year 1995-96 stood at 92.3 million barrels of oil, 496704 MMCF of gas, 57200 GWH of electricity and 1.6 million tones of coal. Against the total commercial energy supplied in the country, oil accounted for 44.3 percent, gas 34.10 percent, coal 5.81 percent, liquified petroleum gas (LPG) 0.46 percent, nuclear 0.33 percent, and hydro 14.67 percent during July 1995 - March 1996. The total power generation capacity is estimated at 15444 MW (11246 MW of WAPDA, 1738 MW of KESC, 137 MW nuclear and 323 MW of Hub Power Company)

In the field of oil and gas exploration, 3 new gas discoveries were made during the period July-March 1995-1996. Thirty wells were drilled both by the public and private sectors. As many as 2974 villages have been supplied with electricity by WAPDA from July 1995 to January, 1996.

2.13 Transport and Communications

Recognizing the key role of the transport and the communications sector in development, the government is making efforts not only to expand the present facilities but also to modernize them in order to keep up with the growing needs of the economy. The transport and communication consists of air, land and sea facilities on the transport side and a whole range of services on the communications side. The total length of all types of roads is estimated at 205,304 km including high roads of 104,735 km and low type roads of 100,659 km as in March 1996. The National Highway Authority (NHA) has undertaken a number of new projects for improvements, upgradation and expansion in the existing road network. The railways carried 51.5 million passenger during July - March 1995-96 while PIA's network covered 49 international and 34 domestic stations. Private air transport companies are entering to play a role in the development, improvement and functioning of air transport services. Cargo handled at the Karachi Port increased to 17.741 million tones from 16727 million tones during the corresponding period of last year.

The total number of telephones during the period under review increased from 2,126,054 to 2,255,335. Similarly the number of Public Call Offices (PCO) during 1995-96 increased from 7600 to 8172.

2.14 Human Resource Development

2.14.1 Population

The total population is estimates at 131.63 million as on 1st January, 1996 with an estimated growth rate of 2.82 percent. The demographic survey 1993 has placed the crude birth rate at 38.9 per thousand, crude death rate at 10.00 per thousand and infant mortality at 191.8 per thousand, the total labour force has been estimated at 36.70 million as on 1st January, 1996. The estimated employed labour force is 34.92 million with 10.0 million in urban and 24.92 million in rural areas. The un-employment rate is consequently estimated at 4.84 percent. To overcome un-employment a multi-dimensional strategy is being pursued. This includes rapid economic growth, lowering of rate of population growth and implementation of specific employment generating schemes. Efforts are also being made to upgrade educational level and skills of the labour force so that it can be gainfully absorbed in the growing economy. Government has introduced various employment generating schemes such as National Employment Schemes and those promoted under the Youth Investment Promotion Society and Small Business Finance Corporation.

2.14.2 *Health*

The existing nation-wide network of medical services consists of 823 hospitals, 4,205 dispensaries, 4925 basic health units (BHUs), 856 maternity and child health centers (MCHs), 260 tuberculosis (T.B) centers, and 498 rural health centers (RHCs). The health manpower sector has expanded to 69,694 registered doctors, 22,531 registered nurses, 2,753 registered dentists and 4,227 registered lady health visitors. The number of beds increased to 85,552 in hospitals and dispensaries. There is one doctor for 1837 persons, one dentist for 46,498 persons and one nurse for 5,681 persons.

The total outlay on health is budgeted at Rs.16.35 billion. The achievement of physical targets for 1995-96 has varied from a minimum of 62 percent (construction of UHCs) to the maximum of 100 percent (distribution of ORS). The average success rate has been 80 percent due to the increasing development efforts, activities like construction of 119 new facilities (90 BHUs, 21 RHCs and 8 UHCs), upgradation of 290 existing facilities (90 BHUs and 200 RHCs) and the addition of 1,700 hospital beds. Under the child survival programme about 7.5 million children have been fully immunized from six killer diseases (polio, measles, whooping cough, tetanus, diphtheria and tuberculosis). A total of 19.0 million ORS packets administered to children below 5 years of age to protect them against diarrhoeal diseases and 7,500 TBAs were trained to bring awareness against these diseases. Other relevant programmes carried out during the year include expanded programme on immunization (EPI) against six preventable diseases, with high national campaign against polio, spearheaded by the Prime Minister. The Prime Minister's Programme for Family Planning & Primary Health Care was commenced in April 1994 which will continue upto 1998. Under this programme 100,000 lady health workers (LHWs) are to be trained to provide health care in rural and urban areas. By the end of the current year 40,000 LHWs would be in place. Cancer treatment, Aids prevention and malaria control programme were carried out during the year under review. Government has also taken strong steps to control the production/eradication of narcotics abuse in the country.

2.14.3 *Nutrition*

To improve the nutritional status of low income people government is pursuing special projects and programmes. The per capita food availability reached to 2,570 calories in 1995-96 which is 0.8 percent above the recommended dietary allowance (RDA) of 2,550 calories, and the per capita protein intake has reached 67.88 grams per day, which is also 13.1 percent above the RDA.

2.14.4 *Education*

Pakistan's literacy rate is estimated at 37.9 – 50 percent male and 25.3 percent female – in 1995-96. Literacy rate for urban and rural areas is 58.3 and 28.3 percent respectively. During 1995-96 participation (or enrolment) rates are estimated at 73 percent – 89 percent for male and 57 percent for female – at the primary stage. During

the current year, 5504 new primary schools, 151 middle schools and 60 new high schools were established. The Government is making every possible effort for increasing literacy by providing free and compulsory primary education within minimum possible period. Various programmes and projects have been launched for the promotion of technical and vocational programmes and projects have been launched for the promotion of technical and vocational education in the country. Budget allocation for education sector is being enhanced to increase the share of this sector from the existing 2.5 percent to 3 percent of GNP by the year 2000. Private sector has been encouraged in education to participate effectively through the new concept of public-private partnership. SAP helped to a large extent in expanding basic education programme and increasing the resource base. For improvement of female education, innovative approaches in the formal and non-formal sectors have been made.

2.14.5 *Housing*

During the year 1995-96, a sum of Rs.10006 million were allocated for physical planning and housing under public sector development programme. Major Sectoral Programmes which were being implemented during the year included urban and rural water supply and sanitation schemes, provision of residential plots to low income families, improvement of katchi abadis and construction of houses for government employees. The National Housing Authority with the assistance of the World Bank and the Swiss Development Corporation (SDC) prepared the project "Pakistan Low Income Communities Infrastructure (Shelter) Project" for developing a sustainable approach towards improving housing conditions in the country. Housing finance companies have sanctioned loans amounting to Rs.510 million by March 31, 1996 to 873 applicants, for the construction/purchase and improvement of houses. House Building Finance Corporation plans to disburse Rs.1800 million for construction/purchase of houses both in rural and urban areas. Under the Peoples Programme a total of 13,250 schemes at an approved cost of Rs.3263.8 million were undertaken out of which 7690 schemes have been completed during the last three years.

2.14.6 *Environment*

The government assigns top priority to environmental protection and pollution control programmes. In order to manage environmental issues in an effective manner the Environment and Urban Affairs Division has already been up-graded into a full fledged ministry. Pakistan Environmental Protection Council (EPC) which is a statutory body, guides and supervises various activities of the ministry in evolving appropriate strategies to combat environmental hazards. EPC has brought into focus environmental and pollution related issues facing the nation. EPC has formed various committees to promote most actively pollution control activities. In the Public Sector Development Programme adequate allocations are being made to provide clean air, clean water and a congenial atmosphere to the people. Afforestation, soil conservation, marine pollution control are

also priority areas of action.

2.15 Social Action Programme

The Social Action Programme (1993-98), a five year programme, involving expenditure of \$ 8 billion continued to be implemented during the year. The programme is geared towards resolving the manifest gender gaps in the social sectors, and gives attention to enhance female access to education and health services. Basically it focuses on five areas: basic education, primary health, nutrition, population welfare and rural water supply and sanitation. It emphasizes strengthening of the institutional capacity and resolution of key implementation issues through the involvement of the provincial governments, private sector, NGO's and the community in general to make it a more mass-oriented programme. A sum of Rs.51.40 billion was allocated for this programme during 1995-96.

2.16 Obstacles to Economic Development in Pakistan

Anything that makes slow the process of economic development is called obstacles to its functioning. The various obstacles to the Economic development of Pakistan may be categorized as economic, social, cultural, administrative and political.

2.16.1 Economic Obstacles

i. *Inadequacy of natural resources*

Natural resources are comprised of geographical configuration, soil, climate, water resources, minerals etc. No country in the world is self-sufficient in this respect but fair degree of resources is needed for economic growth. In this respect, the position of Pakistan is not so discouraging but the overall position of Pakistan in this respect is not so rich. There are problems of salinity, water logging, floods, droughts, lack of forests, oil and gas, iron, gypsum, coal, copper, water, etc.

ii. *Under-developed human resources.*

The labour force in developing countries, especially in Pakistan, is illiterate and unskilled. Furthermore, it is not up to the mark in physical health and energy needed for developmental activities.

iii. *Shortcomings in technology*

According to the latest statistics, sixty-five percent population is dependant upon agriculture but this sector is carried on with primitive techniques. There is a severe lack of sophisticated and automatic machinery in small and large scale industries. The output is not up to the mark quantitatively as well as qualitatively. We cannot export our products to earn foreign exchange. On the other hand, we import many products and lose our foreign exchange.

Due to backwardness in technology only raw material is exported.

iv. *Inadequate financial resources and capital formation*

Lack of physical capital in the sense of buildings, machinery and tools, raw materials and other intermediate goods is a serious obstacle to the economic development of Pakistan. They are produced by investment resulting from savings. But our saving ration is very low and not enough for capital formation.

v. *Unfavourable economic institutions*

The functioning of banks, insurance companies and stock exchanges is not up to the mark. They cannot provide money on better interest rates which is necessary for capital formation. Primitive techniques are used in industrial and agricultural small scale production. The law of inheritance divides the land into uneconomic units which are not suitable for farming with modern machinery.

2.16.2 *Social Obstacles*

i. *Population pressure*

It occurs when the number of population exceeds the resources of the country. It also happens when medical facilities decrease death rate and family planning is not so effective due to religious and cultural values of the society. Latest population figures show that population of Pakistan is 124.45 million and growth rate is 3 percent. In 1981, total population of the country was 84.25 million (Pakistan Basic Facts -- 1994). Population growth increases dependency i.e. it increases the number of children who are consumers only. They contribute nothing in the production of the society.

ii. *Unfavourable health conditions*

There is a severe shortage of medical facilities in Pakistan. According to the figures of 1993, there were only 796 hospitals, 4144 dispensaries, 63003 registered doctors, 2401 registered dentists, 20245 registered nurses, 3920 registered L.H.Vs, and 1918 persons per doctor for the population of 124.45 million in Pakistan (Pakistan Basic Facts -- 1994). Therefore, masses are still subject to different diseases such as malaria, tuberculosis, typhoid etc. They are physically weak due to mal/under-nourishment. These problems lessen the productive efficiency.

iii. *Mass illiteracy*

It is estimated that in 1994 literacy rate was 36.8 percent in Pakistan which is awfully low. Illiterate people find it difficult to organize and pursue their economic activities. They do not know "technical know how" and cannot adjust themselves on proper lines which effects the productive capabilities,

saving ratio, and capital formation.

2.16.3 *Cultural Obstacles*

Cultural obstacles spring from people's conventions, attitudes, and beliefs. In the social normative values of Pakistan, family planning, female education and female jobs are considered unislamic, socially detestable, and against the social values. Heavy expenditures are incurred on birth, marriage, circumcision, and death occasions. Exhibition of weapons, jewellery, and buildings are salient features of our society and are considered symbols of prestige.

2.16.4 *Administrative Obstacles and Political Incompetence*

The political and democratic process was disrupted several times by martial law regimes which lacked constitutional validity and support of the masses. The democratic regimes in Pakistan cannot be called democratic in its true sense and as a result political and economic institutions were not established properly. Administrative machinery is inefficient because appointments are made on political basis, not on merit basis, the administrative personnel is dishonest and corrupt and there is no system of checks and balances in Pakistan. The political leadership is self-centered and the masses are politically immature. Politicians deceive the masses through catchy slogans and the masses cast their votes on the basis of *baradari*, region, gender, and vested interests and not on the basis of competency and capabilities of politicians.

2.17 *Lack of National Spirit*

This has been manifested in the form of regional, provincial, tribal, and similar other considerations in our body politics. Masses are thinking in racial, provincial, religious, ethnic, and tribal terms and their vote behaviour is influenced by these bonds. Politicians exploit these feelings and serve their own interests. The speeches and tones of the politicians are totally changed indifferent provinces. These politicians are creating a sense of deprivation in the masses of different provinces and ethnic groups. Media has failed to create the feelings of federation in the masses. These developments have led the country toward economic, political, and social crises and disrupted the process of economic development.

3. KEY TERMS

Capital: 1. As a factor of production, capital is a produced means of further production (such as capital goods or investment goods in the form of raw materials, machines, or equipment) for the ultimate purpose of manufacturing consumer goods. Hence human resources are also part of an economy's capital. 2. As money, capital represents the funds which business persons use to purchase capital goods.

Cost: Sacrifice that must be made to do or to acquire something is cost. What is

sacrificed may be money, goods, leisure time, security, prestige, power, or pleasure.

Currency: Paper money (coins are not part of currency).

Economic development: Process whereby a nation's real per capita output or income (its GNP) increases over a long period of time. A nation's rate of economic development is thus measured by its per capita rate of economic growth.

Economic growth: Rate of increase in an economy's full-employment real output for income over time--that is, the Economic growth may be expressed in either of the two ways:

1. As the increase in total full-employment real GNP or NNP over time, or 2. as the increase in per capita full-employment real GNP or NNP over time. The "total" measure is employed to describe the expansion of a nation's economic output or potential, whereas the "per capita" measure is used to express its material standard of living and to compare it with other countries.

Economic: Social science concerned chiefly with the way society chooses to employ its limited resources, which have alternative uses, of produce goods and services for present and future consumption.

Income distribution: Division of society output (i.e. the income society earns) among people. Income distribution thus concerns the matter of who gets how much, or what proportion of the economy's total production.

Investment: Spending by business firms on new job-creating and income-producing goods. It consists of replacements of or additions to the nation's stock of capital, including its plant, equipment, and inventories (i.e., its nonhuman productive assets).

Labour: Factor of production which represents those hired workers whose human efforts or activities are directed toward production.

4. SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. What do you understand by the term economic development? Explain.
2. What is the measurement of Economic development? Discuss.
3. Discuss in detail difficulties of economic development measurement in Pakistan.
4. What are the main Features of a developing economy? Discuss.
5. Write a comprehensive note on the requirements/determinations of economic growth.
6. What are the major obstacles to economic development in Pakistan?
7. Discuss the economic obstacles to economic development in Pakistan.

5. SUGGESTED READINGS

Economic Development of Pakistan (1983), Dr. S.M. Akhtar, Publishers United Limited, 176 Anarkali, Lahore.

Contemporary Economics, (1977 4th. ed.) Milton H. Spencer, Worth Publishers, Inc. 444 Park Avenue, South New York 10016.

Modern Economic Theory -- Micro and Macro Analysis, (1979-80) K.K. Dewett, Premier Publishing Co., New Delhi.

Pakistan Basic Facts --1994, Ministry of Information and Broadcasting, Government of Pakistan, Islamabad.

Economic Survey of Pakistan, 1995-96, Finance Division, Pakistan, Islamabad.

UNIT-10

PART THREE

**INTRODUCTION TO SOCIAL
PSYCHOLOGY**

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1. OBJECTIVES

After studying this unit alongwith the suggested reading the students should be able to:

1. State the history and subject matter of social psychology;
2. Differentiate the relationship of social psychology to anthropology; psychology, and Sociology; and
3. Analyze different theoretical approaches to the development of personality -- individual behaviour.

2. SUMMARY OF THE MAJOR TOPICS

2.1 Definition

Social psychology is the scientific study of the experience and behaviour of individuals in relation to other individuals, groups, and cultures (Muzaffer Sherif 1948).

2.2 Elaboration of The Key Words of This Definition

Scientific Study: The term *Scientific* defines the method of approach to which modern social psychology is committed. that is, it employs a three-step process of what is known as the "scientific method." This process involves (a) the collection of carefully made observations, (b) the ordered integration of these observations to permit the statement of general principles describing the logical patterns into which they fall, and (c) the utilization of these general principles to predict future observation.

2.2.1 Experience and Behaviour

According to this definition social psychology includes a wide range of functions; overt (publicly observable) and covert (private to the individual's own experience). *Behaviour* connotes those functions that involve overt acts or responses that may be observed by others in whose presence they occur. Experience is directly accessible only to the one who experiences them.

2.2.2 The Individual

This definition specifies the scope of social psychology to point out that its basic unit of analyses is the individual.

2.2.3 Individuals, Groups, and Culture

The element in this definition which delineates social psychology as a specialized component within the general scope of psychology is its reference to social stimulus situations. The essential property that characterized this class of stimulus situations is the fact that they derive from other people, either as (i) individuals, or (ii) collectively, as groups, or (iii) from the products of the behaviour of other people (culture).

Social Psychology -- Individuals, Groups, Societies, - John W. McDavid and Herbert Harari, P.12-14

Social Psychology is an attempt to understand and explain how the thoughts, feelings, and behaviour of individuals are influence by the actual, imagined, or implied presence of others (All port).

Social Psychology, S.L. Abbrecht, D.L. Thomas, B.A. Chadwick, P.4

Social psychology studies the relationship between social institutions, social groups, and individual behaviour. It integrates the fields of anthropology, sociology, and psychology, and to a lesser degree, political science and economics. Anthropology

focuses the unique set of beliefs, values and behaviour patterns that constitute a given culture. Sociology studies social institutions, such as family, religion, education, political and economic order, and social groups. Psychology examines individual characteristics, including patterns of thoughts, feelings, and perceptions, and their relationship to other individual behaviour. Social psychology synthesizes the information from these different disciplines to describe for individual behaviour within a social context.

Social psychology explores the relationship between the culture in which the individual has been socialized, the social institutions in which he or she participates, the groups to which he or she belongs, his or her personal characteristics, and his or her behaviour toward others.

The development of social psychology as an independent discipline occurred in the United States in this century. Allport suggests that the tradition of free inquiry, the ethics of a democracy, and strong interest in natural and biological sciences in twentieth-century America accelerated the emergence of social psychology. Furthermore, conflict between labour unions and employers, racial conflict, war, crime, economic depression, cold war, urban rioting, student protests, civil disobedience, and atomic threat have all stimulated theory and research into the causes of such behaviours and how to cope with them.

2.3 Major Social Psychological Theories

Social psychology attempts to understand the individual behaviour by discovering principles of behaviour. To understand a behaviour implies that information about the circumstances surrounding its occurrence or that information about why it occurs has been discovered and that this knowledge can be used to predict or control the behaviour in question. Theories are the set of propositions setting the relationship between phenomena or variables. For example, we may develop a theory that a group norm prescribing obedience to the leader of the group is related to group members' conformity to the leader's commands. This theory asserts that, if a norm of obedience to the leader has emerged, members of the group will obey their leader to greater degree than members of groups not having such a norm. If the relationship between the variables is causal, control of the behaviour may be possible. If a norm of obedience and conformity are causally related, then obedience by members of a group with such a norm will be high. Accepting a causal relationship, group organizers, public officials, leaders may create a norm of obedience and sanctions to support conformity and to punish disobedience, thus ensuring a high rate of compliance to the requests. If the relationship is not causal but only predictive, then the existence of an obedience norm will predict the likelihood of conformity but not allow the control of such behaviour. Such prediction is valuable as it allows leaders, and other interested persons to anticipate a given level of obedience to the group's leader.

The utility of the theory to science is that they summarize observations on research findings and suggest new relationships to research. Keeping in view the importance of theory in the study of social psychology, three major orientations are given. These

theories will be used through part two -- in all units of social psychology.

2.4 Psychoanalytic Theory

Sigmund Freud (1856 – 1939) is the founder of psychoanalytic theory. This theory assumes that every person has a given amount of vital psychic or mental energy called *libido energy*. The libido, the source of this psychic energy and the various channels through which it is expressed, are of utmost importance to personality development. It claims, the mind is divided into two parts, the conscious and the unconscious. The mind is like an iceberg, with the conscious part represented by the portion of the iceberg above the water. That part of the mind of which the individual is aware includes all the information that can be recalled from memory, but even so is much smaller than the unconscious. The unconscious part of the mind consists of emotions, desires, instincts, and knowledge of which the person is not aware. Yet it has an influence on individuals' behaviour.

2.4.1 Structure of the Personality

According to psychoanalytic theory, personality is the interaction between three components: the *id*; the *ego*; and the *superego*. The *id*, present at birth, is the original component of the personality and is the source of all psychic energy, including libido energy, instinct and drives. The *id* cannot tolerate increases in energy and operates according to the pleasure principle to immediately reduce such tension. It does not distinguish reality and thus cannot differentiate between an imagined image of a steak dinner and actual food, or between an imagined sexual partner and an actual person. Obviously, the image of food or a sexual partner will not reduce the psychic energy the *id* has derived from hunger or from the sex drive. Therefore, the ego comes into existence to deal with reality on behalf of the *id*.

The ego differentiates between subjective objects of experiences and real ones. In doing this, it operates according to the *reality principle*. The *id* supplies image of objects of experiences that will produce the desired reduction in tension or energy, and the ego engages in reality testing to determine if the images are real or imagined. In order to locate appropriate opportunities for tension reduction, the ego requires the *id* to delay gratification for a while. The *id* objects to these delays and will tolerate only a limited amount before over-ruling the ego and forcing the individual to engage in what appears to be irrational behaviour. The ego is also responsible to the third component of the personality, the *superego*. The *superego* is the internal representation of society or of the traditional values of sociology as the person has learnt them. It is the moral component of the personality and operates according to the *perfection principle*. This principle pushes the individual to behave on morally prescribed ways rather than to seek pleasure. The super ego includes a conscience, which has developed from punishment the person has received and defined what the person should not do. The ego ideal, a second subsystem of the super ego, emerges from behaviours that have been rewarded and spells

out praise-worthy behaviour. The superego is the non-rational as the *id* and is opposed to both the *id* and *ego* as it seeks a permanent blocking of physical gratification. The *superego* has the ability to enforce its wishes by either punishment or rewarding the person. The *superego* has the responsibility to balance the demands of the *id* and the *superego*. The need for water and food must be satisfied if the person is to survive, and sexual behaviour must occur for the survival of the species but the *superego* demands that the gratification of these basic drives be met via socially or morally acceptable means.

2.5 Social-learning Theory

There are a large number of theories based on the principles basic principles of social-learning theory but for our purpose we will present the basic principles of social-learning theory from which the more specific theories have been derived. Behaviourism is the traditional term used for social-learning theory. Social-learning theory argues that theories of human behaviour must be built on observable events and processes, and reject unobservable mentalistic concepts and processes such as the *id*, *ego*, repression, and so on. This theory does not deny the existence of such processes but argues that, because they are unobservable, they are useless in explaining human behaviour. Rather, relationships between observable conditions in the individual's environment and observable behaviours are the subject matter of social-learning theory.

2.5.1 Respondent Behaviour and Classical Conditioning

Learning theory divides human behaviour into two categories, i.e. respondent and operant behaviour. *Respondent behaviours* are those actions that are controlled by stimuli that precede them and are referred to as behaviour (where *S* is the eliciting stimulus and *R* is the respondent response). Examples of respondent behaviours are the contraction of the pupil of the eye elicited by a bright light, the salivation in the mouth and the release of gastric juices in the stomach elicited by the smell of food, and the acceleration in heartbeat elicited by a sudden loud noise. As indicated by the examples, respondent behaviour involves the smooth muscles and glands of the body. These responses are involuntary in that stimuli that follow them have no effect on them. A person generally cannot make them occur in the absence of the *eliciting stimulus* is present.

Pavlov, the Russian physiologist (1927), discovered the process of *classical conditioning*, which later became known as *respondent conditioning*. Pavlov was studying the digestive system of dogs, including salivation. He noted that although originally only the smell or taste of food (an unconditioned stimulus) elicited salivation, later the sound of the footsteps of the animal keeper (conditioned stimulus) elicited the responses. This observation led to a series of experiments demonstrating that other stimuli, such as the ringing of a bell or the sound of a buzzer, could elicit the salivation response (see figure-1)

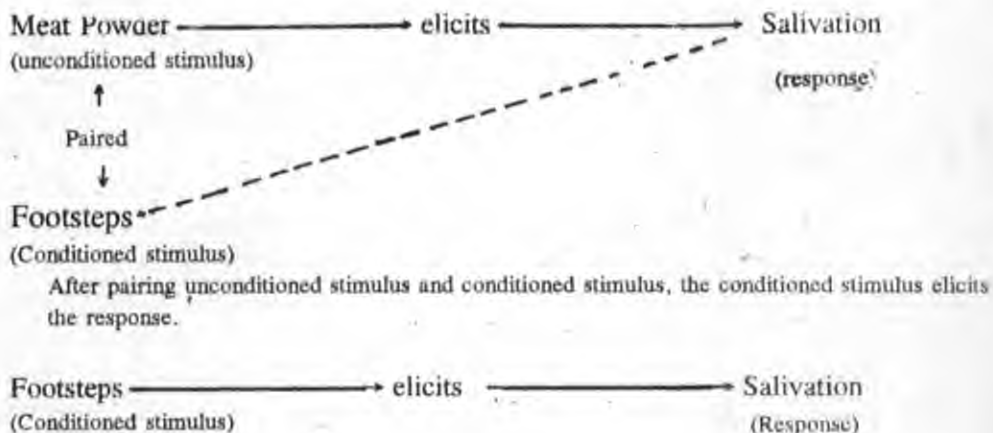


Figure-1

2.5.2 Operant Behaviour and Conditioning

Operant behaviour refers to voluntary behaviour that the individual uses to operate on the environment and is controlled by stimuli that follow it. Operant behaviour is generally referred to as $R \rightarrow S$ behaviour (R is the response that is followed by the stimulus S). The strength of an operant response is determined by the stimulus valued experience, object, or event, then the behaviour will occur more often with greater intensity. If the stimulus is painful, then the response will occur much less often. The stimulus of set of stimulus that follow the response is called *reinforcement or punishment*. *Positive reinforcement* refers to a response obtaining a valued stimulus; *negative reinforcement* refers to the removal of a painful or aversive consequence.

2.6 Social-exchange Theory

Social-exchange theory is based on learning theory. This theory explains social behaviour in terms of the mutual reinforcement people exchange with each other. It explains how individuals seek to initiate exchanges with others by weighing the "profit" they would anticipate from potential changes with alternative partners. Profit is determined in light of the investment a person must have to be eligible to enter the exchange, the costs he or she has to pay, and the reward obtained. If investment, say education; and costs, say time expended; are high, then reward must be high for the exchange to be profitable. The basic principle of exchange theory is that behaviour performed in exchanges that have been profitable in the past will increase in frequency, and those from unprofitable exchanges will decrease. Social-exchange theory attempts to explain social behaviour and thus at times utilizes mental processes to explain the behaviour in question. The existence of a memory and the ability to recall it is inherent in the notion of a history of past reinforcement. Also, the individual's calculation of the profit level of potential exchanges implies mental processes because possible outcomes are predicted. The heavy reliance on the established principle of learning theory,

modified by the inclusion of limited mental processes, has made social-exchange theory very popular as an explanation of social behaviour.

2.7 Cognitive Theory

Cognitive theories of human behaviour stress mental processes, such as perceptions, knowledge, ideas, and expectations, as the major determinants of behaviour. The processes of gathering information, giving it meaning, organizing it into knowledge, and similar mental activities are seen as the most important component of human behaviour. The un-observable nature of these mental events has hindered the empirical testing of cognitive theories. Their existence has to be inferred from behaviours that can be measured, and such inferences are frequently difficult. A number of cognitive theories of behaviour have been developed, but we will limit our review to the two most widely discussed theories: symbolic-interaction and cognitive-consistency theory.

2.8 Symbolic-interaction Theory

This theory emerged in the early nineteenth century having roots in philosophy, psychology, and sociology. George Herbert Mead (1934) was the most influential spokesperson of this theory. The focus of the theory is upon human social interaction. Social interaction, the theory assumes, can best be understood by studying humans because people evidently possess the ability to perform the process of thinking, reasoning, and planning, which is not possessed by other animals. Thus, the theory calls attention to cognitive processes and therefore has a psychological base. The approach is likewise very sociological because one of its major concerns is to understand the cooperative dimension of human social behaviour, which was the essence of society in Mead's view. Human cooperative behaviour is different from cooperative behaviour in animals, which is controlled by instincts. Society (cooperative behaviour) is made possible precisely because humans possess the higher mental process and therefore live in a symbolic world as well as a physical world. Unlike animals, which respond to stimuli directly, people respond to stimuli mediated by their symbolic world. The stimuli impinging upon people are given meaning through cognitive processes and then are responded to according to the attached meaning. This theory suggests that people mentally explore the possible reactions of others to specific behaviours and use this information to decide how to act toward other people. People, unlike animals, possess the ability to experience themselves in their imaginations. Through *role taking*, a person places himself or herself in another person's social role and imagines the other's reaction to the planned course of action. For example, a person can mentally role play how a teacher, spouse, or friend would feel about a particular behaviour or act in order to decide if the behaviour will likely achieve the desired effect. If the response of the other is similar to what was anticipated, then the other's behaviour is said to have *social meaning*. Out of this role taking process cooperative behaviour emerges, and society is created. The degree of consensus between anticipated and actual behaviour is usually

quite high but generally is not perfect. Social interaction that always achieves total agreement between anticipated and actual responses would probably be boring. However, little or no overlap would produce anarchy or chaos, and cooperation could not occur.

Social interaction is seen by this theory as occurring within a common definition of the situation. The role taking occurs within the context of a perceived social setting (tennis game, marriage, or school) and surrounding environment (a ground, home, or street). It assumes that even if the definition of the situation does not reflect social reality, the consequences are real for the people involved. Thus if members of a group believe that another group hates them, then the first group will probably attack the other even though in reality there is no hatred.

2.9 Cognitive-Consistence Theory

Cognitions are those things that each of us uses to make sense out of our every day worlds. It includes our perceptions -- how we perceive and code events and experiences that occur around us--as well as the knowledge, opinions, and beliefs, that we hold about ourselves, about our behaviour, and about our environment. The question of how these interdependent cognitive elements, organized together into larger whole have been one of the primary concerns of consistency theory. The assumption that has influenced the majority of the work in this area is that each individual attempts to establish and maintain some degree of consistency or balance among those cognitions that are related to each other. For example, if I am strongly convinced that there is a direct link between cigarette smoking and lung cancer, it would be inconsistent for me to smoke cigarettes. Similarly, if I were to observe a close friend -- whom I have previously attributed characteristics of honesty and morality -- shoplifting, I would experience inconsistency among related cognitive elements. This theory has the belief that individuals will tend to behave in ways that minimize the internal inconsistency among their interpersonal relations, their intra-personal cognition, and their beliefs, feelings, and actions. The consistency principle holds that the individual does not attempt to behave in ways that would be consistent to his or her own observation. These theories also assume that when inconsistency occurs it is an uncomfortable state. Consequently, it creates pressure within the individual to eliminate or reduce it. Inconsistency or imbalance thus has a motivational quality and may be a major force for attitudinal or behavioural change in the individual. There are numerous areas in which cognitive-inconsistency can occur.

1. When logical inconsistency exists. For example, I believe that all men are mortal but that I, a man, will live for ever.
2. When there is a conflict between actions and self-definitions or cultural mores. for example, I may consider myself a relatively mild mannered and self-controlled professor. If I hit a student in the class, I would feel some psychological imbalance because of my action and my definition of self.
3. When there is an inconsistency between a cognition and a more encompassing

cognition. For example, if I am a secular man but voted a religious political party in the elections. This behaviour would be inconsistent on my part.

4. When inconsistency is created by conflict between present and past experiences. For example, a person who just stepped on the thumbtack with bare foot but felt no pain. The cognitive elements of stepping on tack but feeling no pain simply do not follow.

Social Psychology, Stan L. Albrecht, Darwin L. Thomas, Bruce. A. Chadwick, P.9-25

3. KEY TERMS

Attitude: A relatively enduring evaluative orientation toward some object of experience. Components of attitude include cognition, feelings, and action tendencies.

Classical conditioning: Responses are elicited to a new stimulus by associating it with a previous stimulus.

Cognition: The internal processing of perceptions, memories, beliefs, and other forms of thought.

Conditioning: The alternation of the response patterns following changes on the presentation of stimuli.

Conditioned responses: In classical conditioning, a response elicited by a conditioned stimulus after this stimulus has been associated with an unconditioned stimulus; the conditioned response that was originally by the unconditioned stimulus.

Conformity: Standardization of behaviour in group setting. Id, in Freudian theory, the original and most basic form of personality organization, based upon pleasure seeking impulses.

Negative reinforcement: Presents interference of punishment.

Norms: Standards of expected and approved behaviour.

Operant or instrumental conditioning: a response is emitted with greater frequency following its association with reinforcement.

Organism: The organization of physiological activity of the individual.

Personality: The organization of behaviour characteristics of a particular person.

Positive reinforcement: is sometimes given the general meaning of any reward.

Reinforcement: According to Skinner, any stimulus that strengthens a response tendency.

Role: The pattern to behaviour expected of a person by others in a given social context.

Role-taking: Assumption of the perspective of another person or persons as a framework for considering one's own behaviour.

Variable: Any feature that can be observed by an investigator to show variation. An investigator pays particular attention to two classes of variables:

- i. independent variables which may be at least partially controlled to observe their effects on other variables, and
- ii. dependent variables, the variation of which is assumed to reflect the independent variables.

4. SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. Social psychology is the scientific study of the experience and behaviour of individuals in relation to other individuals, groups, and culture. Explain.
2. The personality is the interaction between three components: the id, the ego, and the superego. Discuss.
3. Social-learning theory argues that theories of human behaviour must be built on observable events and processes. Discuss.
4. Differentiate respondent behaviour from or the operant behaviour conditioning.
5. Cognitive theories of human behaviour stress mental processes, such as perception, knowledge, ideas, and expectations, as the major determinants of behaviour. Discuss.
6. Write a comprehensive note on symbolic-interaction theory.
7. What do you understand by cognitive consistency theory? Discuss.

5. SUGGESTED READINGS

Social Psychology: Stan L. Albrecht, Darwin L. Thomas, Bruce A. Chadwick, Prentice-Hall, Inc. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey 07632

Social Psychology -- Individuals: Groups, Societies, John W. McDavid and Herbert Harari, CBS Publishers & Distributors, 485, Jain Bhawan, Bhole Naht Nagar, Shadara, Delhi, India.

An Introduction to Social Psychology: (1974, 2nd ed.), James A. Schellenberg, Random House New York.

UNIT-11

SELF AND SOCIALIZATION

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1. OBJECTIVES

After studying this unit along with the suggested readings, you should be able to:

1. Explain the social psychological concepts of the self and personality and how they develop;
2. Differentiate the three major approaches to the development of self;
3. Elaborate the process of socialization;
4. Identify the different approaches – active versus passive, and nature versus nurture; and
5. Comment on the three major theories of the socialization process

2. SUMMARY OF THE MAJOR TOPICS

2.1 Definition

The self has been defined as the *combination of one's physical appearance, personal memories, and sensory images* (Ausubel, 1952) Yinger characterizes the self as the mental images of the "who I am" or "what I want to be". Sullivan conceptualized the self as an organization of educative experiences called into being by the necessity to avoid or to minimize incidents of anxiety.

Social scientists generally refer to perceptions of the self as an individual's self-concept or feelings of self-esteem. The self-concept is more general than self-esteem and includes an identification of the characteristics of the individual as well as an evaluation of them. For example, a person's self-concept may be built around the perception that he or she is a good tennis player. Self-esteem is sometimes used as a synonym for self-concept, but usually it emphasizes the evaluation of the person's characteristics. An individual with high self-esteem feels that he or she is a person of worth who possesses valuable characteristics, experiences, or traits; a person with low self-esteem feels incompetent or of little value. Some theorists and researchers have differentiated between different components of the self. The components most frequently identified are the *material self and social self*. The material self includes the perceptions the individual has of his or her own body, usually determined from the physical sensations provided by various limbs, organs, and parts of the body. A steady stream of sensations indicates the body's state of being, including feelings of touch, pain, and pleasure; the image of its various parts; and sounds made by it; is sent to the brain. Frequently, the material self is extended beyond the person's own body and includes other people and objects. A spouse, children, brothers, sisters, work, club, school, house, community or car can become part of an individual's material self. In this case, an attack on any of these persons or objects is experienced as attack on the self, and achievement by them is a source of pride to the self. The *social self* is defined by the perceptions as person has of the social roles he or she occupies and how they are performed. Students probably conceive of themselves as students, which provides meanings to the interaction with their fellow students, instructors, and administrators and how they think that others feel about them as students. It is possible that a person may have several social selves, one for each of the major social roles occupied in society. Occupational, marital, parental, family, and recreational roles are examples of a few of the major roles around which most people develop a social self.

Social Psychology, (1980), S.L. Albrecht, D.L. Thomas, B.A. Chadwick, P.27-29

Allport listed seven aspects of selfhood that deserve special consideration.

1. Body self, a sense of one's body as different from "other things".
2. Self identity, the sense of continuity through time.
3. Self esteem, the sense of wanting to do things and take all the credit.
4. Self-extension, the sense of possessions, that some other people and things are

- mine and some are not.
5. Self-image, a sense of how others view me.
 6. Self-as-rational-coper, the idea that I have intellectual capabilities.
 7. Self-value, the things and events that a person esteem, most highly.

Psychology-Looking at Ourselves (1980 2nd ed.), James Geivitz, P. 418.

The concept of self refers to a person's organization of ideas that have primary reference to his own behaviour, especially those ideas considered most central and enduring in his behaviour. Such an organization tends to be relatively enduring and provides a continuity between different kinds of social situations. The self system includes expectations of others, but only as they become filtered to fit consistently with other self-images.

Self is the individual's conscious experience of a distinct, personal identity that is separate from all other people and things. One can be "proud of oneself", or "ashamed of oneself"; one can "love oneself", "change oneself", or "lose control of oneself"; and one can even talk to oneself". Each of us has seem fairly definite conception of who and what he or she is. Our sense of self seems to consist primarily of the various roles that we play and the various qualities of character that we believe we possess. Whatever our sense of self consists of and where does it come form? The answer is that it is a social product, created and modified throughout life by interaction with people. At the time of birth the infant has no sense of self. The infant begins to use words such as "i", "Me", and "Mine" at the age of two. After the age of two the child fully understands that his/her own self is an identity separate from all others.

How does the self emerge in childhood and how is it continually modified throughout the life cycle? The question has been of great concern to social scientists. Three major theories have been proposed.

2.2 Psychoanalytic Theory of the Self

Frued believed that the relationship between the individual and society is conflicting. He argued that people are born with basic drives such as sex and aggression. Society imposes its will on the individual, suppressing and channeling the drives into socially acceptable ways. According to him personality can be divided into three basic interacting parts.

- i. The *id* is the reservoir of drives present in the individual at birth and throughout life. It is the unconscious part of the self. The self of the very young child consists entirely of the id but the child soon learns through interaction with other people that the demand of the id cannot always be satisfied. Accordingly,
- ii. *ego* emerges. It is the conscious part of the self that attempts to mediate between the unconscious urges of the id and social environments. The child learns about the demands of society from others, particularly from parents and internalizes these demands into personality in the form of the ,

- iii. *superego* is equivalent to the person's conscience. The superego is thus an internal version of the rural authority of the society, and works through feelings of shame and pride of influence the decision of the ego.

Sociology (1980) Ian Robertson, P.102-103

2.3 The symbolic interaction view of the self

The early founders (James; Meads; Cooley) of symbolic-interactionist view believe that people are qualitatively different from animals because of their greater ability to use and interpret symbols. According to them language is a set of symbols with shared meanings and enables communication between them. According to this theory, self is the combination of "I" the "knower" and "Me" the "known". James believes that "Me" is more important than "I" because "Me" is a social object that was identified by others response to the person.

Cooley defined the social self as "a system of ideas, drawn from communicative life". He believes that the self develops via the reaction of others to the person. The resulting self-conception was labelled the *looking-glass self*. The self is thus shaped by the responses and interpretations one receives from other people.

2.3.1 Development of the Self

According to Cooley (1902), there are three steps in the development of the looking-glass self:

- i. Imagination of one's appearance to others (dull, intelligent, old, young),
- ii. The imagination of others judgement (the evaluation as positive or negative),
- iii. Some resulting self feeling (satisfaction, embarrassment). It is important to note that the looking-glass self develops from the imagination of the responses of others.

Herbert Mead's (1968) major innovation was introduced for the first time in the concept of symbolic interaction. He argued that the interaction between people takes place not through simple physical or other sensory contact but through symbols such as (gestures, facial expressions and above all language). Language is socially learned and is essential for all forms of thought. In this sense the mind – through which we interpret our own behaviour and that of others--through which we interpret our own behaviour and that of others--is a social product. According to Mead, the essence of socialization process is the ability to anticipate what others expect and to evaluate and control-one's behaviour accordingly. This capacity is achieved by role-taking--pretending to take or actually taking the roles of other people, so that one can see oneself from their perspective. Children internalize the expectations of the *significant others*, that is, specific individuals such as parents. But as they grow older they learn to internalize the expectation of the *generalized others*, the attitudes and viewpoint of society as a whole. This internalized general concept of social expectations provides the basis for self-evaluation and hence for self-concept. He illustrated this idea by pointing to the childhood

progression from mere play to organized games. They walk about in their parents shoes, play with dolls, play house, doctors, police, nurses, and so on.

Sociology, (1980) IAn Robertson, P. 102-103

2.3.2 *Multiple Selves*

Symbolic-interaction theory implies that somewhere in the individual there is a "core-self" that provides meaning and identity as well as direction for action. However, some symbolic interactionists contend that we have multiple selves to deal with social contexts. For example, a teenage boy behaves quite differently before his peer group than he does in front of his parents. Cooley believes that our self-attitudes are at least in part situationally determined. A harsh and critical police officer may react quite differently when speaking to his children but this does not eliminate the "core-self" because core-self may provide the boundaries outside of which change will not occur or will occur only infrequently. For example, there are certain things that the teenage boy will not do in the presence of either --peers, parents--because his core-self finds them too contrary to his/her self-definition.

2.4 **The Behavioural View of the Self**

This view defines the self as the collection of several statements a person makes about him/her self. A favourable self-concept or high self-esteem is stating positive evaluations or receiving high score on a self-concept scale and vice versa. Behaviourists explain that verbal or written self descriptive statements are the only observable action we have of the internal state labelled the self. This theory defined the self-concept as the frequency of self-reinforcement or self-punishment. A favourable self-concept or high self-esteem is conceived of as a high rate of self-reinforcement, a negative self-concept or low self-concept is a high rate of self-punishment. In the behaviourist view, two basic processes, *respondent conditioning* and *operant conditioning* are used to explain the development and change in attitudes, including self-attitudes.

2.4.1 *Respondent/Classical Conditioning*

According to this view the self is paired with an event or object that elicits a pleasurable emotional reaction and by this pairing the self is conditioned to elicit the same reaction. For example, a famous player's presence elicits a strong emotional reaction in the person. Through association with the player, the person gains the ability to elicit the same reaction in him/herself. But if the person is associated with a criminal whose presence elicits a painful emotional reaction, the person will elicit in him/her self the same reaction. In both cases, the reaction elicited by the self is completely involuntary and is not contingent on any behaviour performed by the person.

2.5.3 *Tabula Rasa View of Socialization*

Tabula Rasa framework explains that infant is considered to be born a social rather than anti-social or pro-social. In this view the individual is seen much like a lump of unmolded clay having no predisposition that would lead him/her into one type of behaviour as opposed to another. This view maintains that socialization is the result of the social pressures in a given social system. Furthermore, it believes that the organism is molded by the society rather than having a hand in his/her own social creation. This view tends the individual as being passive, only responding to stimuli imposed upon him/her own social creation. This view tends the individual as being passive, only responding to stimuli imposed upon him/her from the environment. Thus differences in socialization outcomes are attributed not so much to differences in individual characteristics but rather to differences in the nature of social order.

2.5.4 *The Active Participant View*

This view tends that individual is active in his/her socialization process and it emphasizes factors possessed by the infant at birth that influence the initial social behaviour. It believes that the child never responds to the stimuli directly but acts towards stimuli on the basis of ascribed meanings. This view claims that socialization is the interactional process between characteristics of the environment and the individual characteristics. Therefore, socialization is not just the transmission of culture but the study of process of "becoming human".

There is a controversy namely active versus passive, or nature-verses nurture. Who or what is responsible for socialization outcomes? Tabula Rasa view concludes that whatever differences occur are largely the result of environmental influences and the social order is ultimately responsible for the outcomes. On the other hand nearly all judicial systems are based upon the view that the individual is at least partly responsible for his/her own behaviour. Otherwise, justice, rewards and punishments would all be irrational.

Social Psychology, (1980), S.L. Albrecht et al, P.87-95

2.6 **Theories of Socialization**

Psychoanalytic Approach

This approach to socialization presents the view that the quality of the parent/child relationship is the central element in personality development. It delineates several psychosexual stages of development, and the processes of interaction during these stages occurring in the family are seen as basic to the child's becoming socialized. These familiar interaction patterns are analyzed according to the quality of the emotional relationship. thus, the way the mother interacts with the child while toilet training, feeding, and so on, are seen as the social foundation out of which grow different personality characteristics. The formulation of the initial nature of the human organism as it moves through the stages of development places considerable emphasis upon the

source of energy, namely the *Id* which is present at birth. The *id* needs immediate gratification; therefore, the *id* is the strongest at the earlier stages. As the child develops, other dimensions of the intellectual processes, namely the *ego* and the *superego* functions, begin to appear. The primary function of the *ego* is reality formation and a channeling of the energies of the *id* into ways that will reduce tension; built upon the nature of reality (both social and physical). The child learns that it is more realistic to postpone immediate gratification and wait until the dinner is ready, because the organism will be better off in the long run i.e. the full meal will be prepared and hence the reward much better than a hastily prepared piece of bread demanded immediately.

2.6.1 *Social-learning Approach*

Social-learning sees the child as learning what is appropriate and inappropriate behaviour in any social setting because he or she is rewarded for some behaviour and not rewarded of others. Because of the child's basic nature, he or she tends to repeat rewarded behaviours and does not repeat non-rewarded behaviours. Thus, rather than "learning" general traits, the child learns which response is tied to a given stimuli. Learning, then, is seen basically as establishing links between stimuli and reinforcers. Reward and punishment are central in the stamping in or seaming out processes of connecting specific stimuli with specific reinforcers.

2.6.2 *Symbolic-Cognitive Approach*

Symbolic-interaction approach emphasizes that self and society (individual and the social order) cannot be understood as distinct entities. Society exists because of interrelated social institutions, each consisting of interrelated sets of roles. These roles define for the individuals society's expected behaviour for any person moving into a given role. Once the individual has move into a role and adopted as personally appropriate those behaviours ascribed by society, then it can be said he/she has become socialized. He/she can evaluate his or her own behaviour from society's perspective and initiate behaviour toward other consonant with his or her view of self. According to this approach socialization is the outcome of the interaction between human organism and the social order. The child is progressing through related steps of development. The race of progress is determined by maturational potentials of the child as well as the characteristics of the social order. The child selectively and actively processes information according to his own stage of cognitive development.

According to Kohlberg (1973) model, there are three levels of moral development. Each level has two stages.

1. *Premoral level:* (a) At stage 1, the child behaviour is primarily controlled by punishment, and behaviour centers around avoiding punishment. (b) At stage 2, the child becomes aware of rewards and the behaviour shifts to obtaining rewards. The ceiling of first level is ten years.
2. *Conventional morality:* It involves internationalization of expectations that others --

society -- have of the child. (c) In stage 3, the child conforms to societal rules and norms of expectation of others. (d) During stage 4 the child internalized general standards behaviour and the sense of duty develops

3. *Principled morality*: (e) During stage 5, the individual behaves according to rational, agreed-upon standards but with the arguments that it should be changed. (f) In stage 5, the individual disobeys the order for the sake of justice and freedom. This approach has shown the necessity for understanding human organism as actor forming his/her own cognitive and symbolic view of the world a he/she becomes functioning member of the society.

Social Psychology, (1980), S.L. et al, P.101-104

3. KEY TERMS

Anxiety: Vague, nonspecific fear.

Behaviour: Any observable action of an organism.

Behaviourism: The viewpoint associated with John B. Watson, who proposed that psychology be limited to the study of observable behaviour.

Classical conditioning: A form of learning in which a formerly neutral stimulus consistently precedes an unconditioned stimulus, with the result that the formerly neutral stimulus, elicits the response originally given to the unconditioning.

Concept: An idea or relationship common to a class of ideas or objects.

Cognitive dissonance: Psychological contradiction between associated cognitive elements.

Conscience: The critical, punitive aspect of the superego.

Consonance: A state of consonance occurs when there is an absence of dissonance.

language: A comprehensive system of symbols, plus rules for their usage.

Organism: The organization of physiological activity of the individual.

Personality: The organization of behaviour characteristics of a particular person.

Reinforcement: Any stimulus that strengthens a response tendency.

Role-taking: Assumption of the perspective of another person as a framework for considering one's own behaviour.

Self: The organization of conceptions an individual has of himself and of his behaviour.

Socialization: The process of an individual's adjustment of living with other people, including adjustment to individuals, to groups, and to the culture as a whole.

Symbolic communication: The communication through symbols. A symbol, is anything

(a word, an act, or a physical object) that stands for something else in an artificial (without natural association required) and conventional (through collective habits of association) and natural communication.

4. SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. What do you understand by the term "Self"? Discuss.
2. Symbolic-interactionists treat language a set of symbols with shared meanings. Explain.
3. Self is the corpus of verbal statements a person makes about him/herself. In the light of this definition discuss the behavioural view of the self.
4. Discuss the three steps involved in the looking-glass self.
5. Define the term "socialization" as fully as you can.
6. Discuss in detail the three major theories of socialization.
7. Write notes on the following.
 - i. Tabula Rasa and
 - ii. Active participant views of the self.

5. SUGGESTED READINGS

Social Psychology: Stan L. Albrecht, Darwin L. Thomas, Bruce A. Chadwick, Prentice-Hall, Inc. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey 07632.

Social Psychology -- Individuals: Groups, Societies, -John W. McDavid and Herbert Harari, CBS Publishers & Distributors, 485, Jain Bhawan, Bhola Naht Nagar, Shahdara, Delhi, India.

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SELF INFLUENCE AND SOCIAL ROLES

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1. OBJECTIVES

After studying this unit alongwith the suggested readings, you should be able to:

1. Explain the spirit of norms and social influence;
2. Narrate how the norms originate and the social influence exists;
3. Explain why conformity is must for the maintenance of social order;
4. Identify how the concept of Role is developed in the society; and
5. Elaborate how sex roles are adopted.

2. SUMMARY OF THE MAJOR TOPICS

2.1 Norms and Social Influences

Wrightman has proposed that conscience operates, when each individual is working on his or her own, but when the person functions in "organizational mode" one's individual conscience is no longer relevant. Such persons are operating in an *agential state*, or a condition in which the person sees himself or herself as an agent for carrying out another person's wishes, in contrast to a state of *autonomy*, or acting on one's own.

According to social-psychological research, the presence of others, "whether in immediate sense or in the actor's psychological definition of the situation" (Warner and DeFleur, 1969), exerts influence on the individual to act in a manner that is consistent with what those others are perceived to feel is appropriate and desirable conduct. According to this research it was noted that behaviour in group tends to differ from behaviour that occurs in private settings.

The idea of social influence or of conforming to the expectations of the group implies the existence of some *standard* around which our attitudes and behaviour cluster. That standard is most often socially defined and so can be referred to as a social norm. Social norms constitute "ought to" definition; they define for us the behaviours and attitudes that are appropriate for given situations; they tell us what we ought to do and, conversely, what we ought not to do. From a sociological perspective, norms constitute one of the essential ingredients that hold the fabric of society together. Along with attending sanctions, they account largely for the existence of social order. Without some degree of adherence to normative prescriptions, social life would be characterized by general disorganization and chaos. From a social psychological perspective adherence of social norms helps to account for the regularities in individual behaviour. As the individuals grow to maturity, they are taught to socialization process that certain types of behaviour are appropriate and others are inappropriate and unacceptable. Sanctions, in the form of approval, praise, scorn, or punishment, are used to enforce the norms. Behaviour that is consistent with social norms brings approval from others, and this increases the portability of such behaviour occurring again. Behaviour contrary to norms, on the other hand, usually elicits disapproval or some other form of negative sanction, decreasing the probability that similar behaviour will be repeated.

2.2 The Origin of Social Norms

Sumner proposed that much of our daily action is governed by *folkways* or relatively informal traditions and customs that are passed from one generation to the next. The best explanation of norms lies in the observation that norms emerge to provide meaning and structure in what would otherwise be an ambiguous situation. New norms emerge to fill the gaps left by the ambiguity or the inapplicability of existing norms. Some degree of consensus on the new norms is necessary, otherwise, the outcome is likely to be anarchy and destruction.

The emergence of new norms in response to ambiguity is illustrated by the research conducted by Muzafer Sharif who employed *autokinetic effect* in studying the process of norms formation. In one of his experiments, Sharif brought a group of subjects into a dark room to observe a totally stationary light, and asked them to estimate how far the light moved. Sharif was very successful in creating a situation totally ambiguous in a physical sense because there were no criteria available for the subjects to use in estimating movement of the light. After a series of trials, Sharif began to observe a most interesting social-psychological phenomenon: the range of estimate by his respondents began to converge toward the mean. For example, after the first trial, the range of estimated movement varied from two or three inches to several times that amount. After additional trials, the more extreme estimate tended to become less extreme, therefore moving toward the mean. Eventually the group came to establish a "norm" or a generally agreed-upon estimate of light movement. In other words, a social norm developed to provide meaning to an ambiguous situation. There are two sources of information to determine the validity of our opinions and actions -- physical reality and social reality (Second and Backman, 1974). We obtain information from the physical environment and our opinion and behaviour are determined on the basis of this physical reality. Social reality is the evaluation and judgement of others and is an important source of information. People define and interpret our world for us and we look to the response of others before taking actions ourselves. The key seems to be that the more ambiguous the physical stimuli, the more likely we are to rely on social definition of reality. The most interesting example in this regard is the science fiction tale of the invasion of the Eastern United States by the aliens from outer space. The radio drama was presented in the format of on-the-scene descriptions. Thousands of listeners switched on the radio after the programme had begun. They defined the events as real and panicked. Police phone lines were clogged with incoming calls and intersections were jammed by people fleeing their homes. However, social definitions of the situation, apparently filled the gap provided by physical ambiguity. Listeners interpreted their inability to get a call a result of alien destruction of communication line. In the heat of panic, the same definition could apparently be applied to different conditions. For example, some people rushed to the window and saw a great deal of traffic, which they defined as a result of large number of people fleeing before their attackers. Some others defined no traffic that all people have been killed by the invaders.

2.3 Conformity

Conformity is to be defined as *yielding to group expectations or definitions of the situation*. It implies some degree of conflict between what the group demands of the individual and what the individual would otherwise do. There are different types of conformity.

1. Individuals living in traditional-directed societies rely primarily on standards handed down from the past. These individuals rely on elder-imposed sanctions.

2. Inner-directed societies are characterized by individuals who rely on a set of internalized norms to govern their behaviour. These societies rely on self-imposed sanctions.
3. The third type of conformity is the other-directed in which person continually looks to others for directives concerning appropriate and inappropriate behaviour. This is the person who goes along with the crowd in order to be popular and feel accepted. Even this behaviour is contrary to his or her own personal norms and values. In this case, behaviour fluctuates as the situation and the evidence change. Although we all conform, and conformity to a degree is necessary in order to avoid chaos, the other directed person carries it too far.

2.3.1 Group Conformity Versus Individual Judgement

The question is that what happens when the individual's privately held attitudes, perceptions and definition of the situation conflict with the position taken by the group. Solomon Asch (1951, 1956) arranged an experiment in which several individuals were brought together in the experimental laboratory. Seven, out of eight subjects were confederates but this was not known to the eighth. The seat arrangement was rigged in such a way to guarantee that the experimental subject would be in the next to the final seat. The situation developed by Asch was hardly ambiguous because it was very easy to make the correct selection. During the first two trials, the confederates were instructed to give correct answer. Following this, they began systematically to give preselected incorrect answers. Suddenly the experimental subject got confused and began to give incorrect answers. Asch found that the subject would conform with group and give an obviously incorrect answer in approximately 37 percent of the trials. In general, these studies have demonstrated that the size of the majority is not critical after it reaches about three. One finding of particular interest was the observation that if the naive subject was given one confederate, the probability of conforming to the group decreased dramatically.

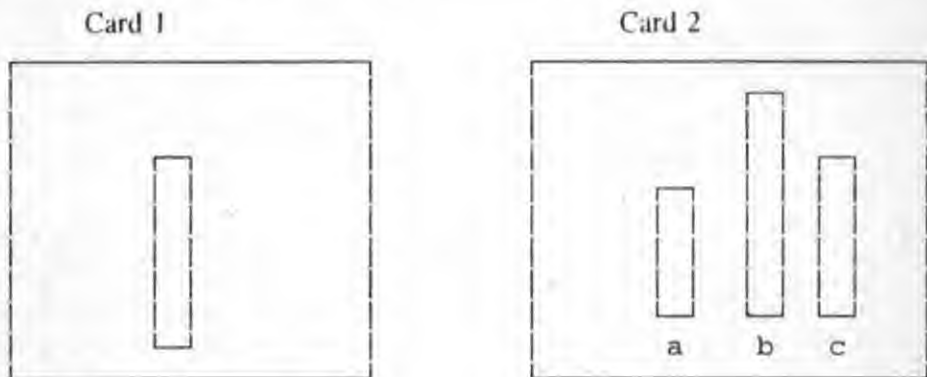


Figure-1 The Asch conformity experiment.

The Asch experiment involved a procedure somewhat like that depicted here. The subjects

were simultaneously shown the two cards and were asked to indicate which of the lines of card 2 was equal in length to the single line on Card 1. The correct answer was usually quite obvious, as demonstrated by the fact that when alone the subjects were able to make the right choice almost without exception.

2.3.2 Normative and Informational Influence

There is a difference between *normative* and *informational influence*. The individual under normative influence goes along with the group in order to be accepted by the group even if the behaviour may be contrary to the individual's own values and perceptions. Informational influence emerges to increase certainty about the correctness of the response. The individual sometimes conforms to the group simply because he or she is unsure about the appropriate course of action. In autokinetic effect informational influence is operating. However, in the Asch studies, normative influence becomes more critical. Riesman and others argued that we are becoming more conformity-oriented in the normative influence meaning of the word. Being popular, in other words, is becoming more important than being right.

Compliance, Identification, and Internalization

Kelman (1961) has made a rather critical distinction between three different types of conformity.

1. *Compliance* involves to agree to group demands not because one really identifies with and accepts these demands but because noncompliance could result in punishment or loss of reward. Compliance, then, depends on the observability of one's behaviour. We go along and so long as others can observe and administer sanctions. When that external constraint is removed behaviour may be changed significantly.
2. *Identification* is the conformity with another person not because of punishment or reward but because that he/she desires to be like the influencer. Conformity contributes to a highly valued, satisfying relationship with another person, such as that between a child and his or her parents. Television commercials rely heavily on identification when they hire a famous cricketer to endorse their products.
3. At the internalization level, the individual conforms to the action and makes it a part of his/her own value system. The person adopts a particular behaviour because he/she really believes that it is the correct and appropriate course things should be done. The reward is internal in this case and the person feels good while adopting such behaviour. Differences can be noted in these different modes of conformity. Compliance depends upon the existence of external constraints; if they are removed the behaviour may be changed. Identification depends upon their particular relationship with someone else (significant others – parents, sibling, spouse – , political or religious leader). If the relationship

shifts for some reasons, identification no longer exists. Internalization relies on internal rather than external source of motivation and is more permanent means of control.

Kelman's three process can be used to account for the common action of different individuals in the same behavioural context. For example, one individual may observe the maximum speed limits of 60 KM per hour because of traffic police. The other observes because his or her significant others (Parents, leaders etc.) have emphasized the importance of law. The third person may observe the speed limits because he/she personally feels this law saves gasoline and minimizes traffic accidents.

2.4 Independence Versus Conformity

Hollander (1975) had defined independence as *action which reflects critical judgement by the individual in responding to social demands*. According to him it means sometimes accepting and going along with the majority view and sometimes rejecting that view, deviating from it, and trying to get others to do so as well. It implies the real potentials of selecting an alternative course of action if such course is consistent with one's own definition of the situation. It does not mean that one automatically rejects the view of the majority.

Hollander has identified six impediments which can be viewed as contributors to the conformity as well.

1. *Risk of disapproval*

The most important factor that limits independence is the fear of rejection and disapproval. For example, a teenager participates in a deviant act because not to do so, his peer group will label him as timid.

2. *Lack of perceived alternatives*

Independence from a decision of a group is impossible if there are no alternatives. If a person does not agree with the group decision then he must present an alternative way to convince the other members of the group for a specific action.

3. *Fear of disrupting proceeding*

In spite of disagreement with the group decision some members are reluctant to face confrontation with other members. Consequently they follow the group decision and go along with the group.

4. *Inability to feel responsible*

Maybe we do not like some decisions of the group but we rationalize that it is not our responsibility to direct the course of an action. Rather than accepting responsibility, we tend to diffuse responsibility.

5. *Absence of shared communication*

The dissenter feels him/herself alone in the position and so fails to speak out. In

such a case, failure of communication can lead to "pluralistic ignorance", and all go along with something they do not totally agree.

6. *Sense of impotence*

This impediment occurs when the dissenter feels that speaking out would not make any difference: any way.

Social Psychology (1980), S.L. Albrecht, Thomas, Chadwick, P.126-154

2.5 Social Roles

The concept of "Social Role" is very important for the students of social psychology because this concept allows the students to simultaneously study the nature and function of the social order and the behaviour of the individual actor in the social order.

2.6 The Development of the Concept "Role"

Social systems are composed of a series of positions. For example, the family is a social system. It is composed of such positions as father, mother, spouse, son, daughter, sibling and so on. All these positions are interdependent. A set of expected attitudinal and behavioural patterns is attached with these positions in a social system. These expectations are normative in nature and define what the occupant of the position ought to do and ought not to do. They constitute the social role. The expected set of behaviours that are associated with the position of the father in a family system constitutes the social role of the father. For cultural anthropologist, a social structure, or social system, consists of a set of inter-related statuses. Status is defined as a social position in a given social order. According to Linton, role is the cultural patterns associated with a particular status. It includes the attitudes, values, and behaviour ascribed by the society to the person occupying the status. Bates defined role as a *part of a social position consisting of a more or less integrated or related subset of social norms.*

Occupants of the social position of spouse/parents in the family generally accept the responsibility of meeting clusters of expectations related to specific duties that they must perform as well as inherent rights attached to social position. There are at least eight different social roles which are the normative dimension of parent position. They are:

i. child socialization;	ii. provider (family monetary needs);	iii. homemaker (organizing the home);	iv. child care (physical well being of the child);
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v. the rapeutic (emotional support);	vi. recreation (recreation to family)	vii. Sexual (husband-wife relationship);	viii. Kinship (ties with kin lines).
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2.6.1 Related Concepts

a. *Reciprocity*

No role exists in isolation. They are reciprocal in nature. The right of one individual is the duty of the other and *vice versa*. Inrole analysis, the needs and rights of one person are reciprocal to the obligations of the role partner. The need of the child to be nourished with food becomes the parents obligation to provide food for the child. Role are many and varied in nature. Demands are made upon the individual occupant of a role. These demands come from two sources, (i) Multiple demands within one role--the child socialization role has many demands, and (ii) multiple roles--but the parents/spouses meet other roles such as provider, and homemaker etc.

b. *Role strain*

If an individual occupies many different positions at one time, he or she will find that some expectations run counter to others. For example, the profession of a busy officer demands to take work at night but as a spouse/ parent he/she should give time and attention to spouse and children. To perform this double role he/she will be the victim of role strain.

c. *Role conflict*

There are two type of role conflict 1. Inter role conflict: it is created by incompatible expectations from more than one role. It results when someone occupies multiple social positions and different positions demand conflicting performance. For example, a police officer arrests his son involved in a crime or judge awards life imprisonment to his son proved criminal. 2. Intera-role conflict: it refers to contradictory role expectations emanating from one social position. for example, a PRO of an industry faces intra-role conflict when he tries to protect labour rights on the one hand and to minimize monetary expenditures of the organization on the other hand. The expectations of the labour and organization are extremely conflicting. The benefit of one party is the loss of the other. Thus, the role is intra-conflicting.

2.7 Social Roles as Process

Positions, roles, and norms are seen as parts of the social order, and individuals are seen as moving in and out of social positions exhibiting the appropriate behaviour according to role expectations. Social roles are forged in social reaction. Each actor creates his or her own particular style of role performance depending upon his or her

view of self and others.

2.7.1 *Role taking*

Role taking, in its most general form is a process of looking at or anticipating another's behaviour by viewing it in the context of a role imputed to that other. Social behaviour is made possible precisely because humans do not respond directly to stimuli but to stimuli that are placed into meaning systems. One of the chief mechanisms for doing this is to place the other person in an appropriate social position, anticipate the behaviour that would be associated with that position, and then align one's own action with the total definition of the situation concerning self and others.

In virtually all social interaction, be it the first encounter or routinized action, each actor sees himself or herself as an object of the actions and perceptions of the other person. Simultaneously, the person experiences self as subject or initiator of action.

2.7.2 *Role Making*

A second process of social interaction is role making. Not only do people ascribe roles to self and others, but they create their own version of their role performance over time. There is considerable parallel allowed between the role expectations and any one person's performance; thus, people develop their own distinct style of role performance. In creating the role, the person does not just comply with existent role expectations but selectively chooses those expectations to which he or she conforms, those that he or she modifies extensively, and those that he or she rejects completely. This process of role making generates a considerable amount of social change over time as the role created by one occupant becomes the accepted role expectation for a later occupant of that social position.

2.7.3 *Role Distance*

Goffman (1961) has carefully analyzed face-to-face social encounter by introducing the concept of role distance to refer to the discrepancy between the actor's view of self and the "self that is implied in the role". His extensive analysis of the merry-go-round rider shows the emergence of role distance as the child's view of his or her own capable self develops and changes over time. At two or younger age, the role of a merry-go-round rider is too much for the child to handle. The role may be rejected completely because the child's view of self is that of not being capable of performing the role. At three or four, he or she embraces the role netting and "doing is being". At five, the child's view of self is that of being much more capable than just riding a wooden horse, and hence he or she develops a personal, mocking style of riding. The intent is to create distance between the self and the role; to clearly communicate to all observers that the real self is not to be confused with the role of rider. Role distance affords people a process by which they can apologize to observers for performing a role that they perceive to be inappropriate and by which they can rationalize the behaviour.

2.7.4 *Role and the Stage*

It implies that when we perform in a role we are to one degree or another actively wearing a mask and that in wearing the mask we are presenting to the audience only part of the behaviour we take to be representative of us as a total person. According to Goffman, most social behaviour can be viewed as a "performance." It involves a stage or setting where the performance takes place, an actor who is playing a role, and an audience that reacts to the performance of the actor. In order to have some degree of control over the impression that the audience receives, the actor will attempt to manipulate the setting or stage.

2.8 **Sex: A Universal Social Role**

Sex role is the earliest and most important role learned and adopted. The beginning of this sex role learning occurs so early that most of us cannot remember when the sex role began.

2.8.1 *The Development of Sex-typed Behaviour*

All cultures place men and women in different social statuses and children quickly learn appropriate and inappropriate behaviour based upon these social categories.

2.8.2 *Psychoanalytic Approach*

Freud postulated that girls identified with their mothers and boys identified with their fathers and adopted the appropriate sex-role identity with the accompanying sex-typed behaviour. Although this explanation enjoyed considerable popularity for some time, the research evidence has failed to substantiate it.

2.8.3 *Social-learning Approach*

According to this approach sex-typed behaviour is seen as a consequence of the rewards and punishments that a child experiences as he or she engages in various behaviours. This approach assumes that a male child will be rewarded for engaging in behaviour characteristics of male children and punishment for doing what girls do and *vice versa* in the case of girls. Boys are given gun, motorcycle, and car etc, to play with, and girls are given dolls and pottery. Gradually, the child learns to discriminate between appropriate and inappropriate behaviour and then generalizes it. The social-learning model also explains a second process of observational learning. It is generally acknowledged that a child learns many things by merely observing the role model (parents or peers) engaging in behaviour. The child need not be rewarded or punished but through observational learning he or she comes to discriminate between appropriate and inappropriate sex-typed behaviour. A daughter learns the requisite feminine behaviour by observing her mother in the kitchen. Thus, when the child plays at making bread, her this behaviour is associated with her mother's feminine behaviour of making bread.

2.8.4 *Cognitive-Developmental Approach*

Kohlberg (1966) developed an alternative view that can add some additional insight. He begins by identifying the basic casual model underlying the social-learning approach to sex typing and then compares it to the cognitive-developmental view. According to him, the social-learning model is:

1. I want rewards.
2. I am rewarded for doing boy things.
3. Therefore, I want to be a boy.

The cognitive-developmental view argues for a very different sequence of events leading up to sex-typed behaviour. He reasons that a child will likely develop a sense of firmness about his or her own sex-role identity about the same time he or she is developing the comparable cognitive process of conservation/preservation. Once the child forms his own sex-role identity by coming to know that he is a boy and that he will always be a boy. He, then matches his own behaviour to the internalized standard of what a boy should do. The basic cognitive-developmental model is:

1. I am boy.
2. I want to do boy things.
3. Therefore, doing boy thing is rewarding.

Social Psychology (1980), S.L. Albrecht, Thomas, Chadwick, P. 156-182.

3. KEY TERMS

Cognition: A thought or idea

Cognitive: Having to do with mental activity, as opposed to, for example, observable behaviour

Cognitive theory: A theory that emphasizes perception, memories, and other thought processes; often contrasted with behaviour theory.

Conformity: The tendency to change opinion or behaviour as a result of group pressure, and to accept the group norms.

Conservation: The principle that essential qualities as volume remain constant in spite of change in form.

Deviance: Behaviour not considered acceptable by the individual's group or culture.

Experiment: The observation of phenomena under controlled conditions. In *laboratory experiments* the investigator himself creates the setting for his observation whereas in *field experiments* he manipulates only some of the variables in an established social setting.

Identification: The process of an individual's concentrating his adjustment, including his sense of self-identity, upon relationship with another person. This typically involves imitation of the behaviour of the object of identification.

Leadership: Influence exerted in a group setting, based on voluntary following rather than on the control of formal sanctions.

Role-taking: Assumption of the perspective of another person or persons as a framework for considering one's own behaviour.

Social influence: Any effects, deliberate or unintended, upon the behaviour of other persons.

4. SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. Define social influence and also describe how social norms originate?
2. Write a comprehensive note on the term "conformity".
3. Describe major impediments to independence which can be viewed as contributor to conformity.
4. Write a comprehensive note on the development of the concept of "Role".
5. Discuss social role as a process.
6. Sex is a universal social role. Discuss.
7. Write a comprehensive note on any three of the following:
 - i. Compliance
 - ii. Internationalization
 - iii. Identification
 - iv. Normative and Informational influence
 - v. Reciprocity
 - vi. Role strain
 - vii. Role conflict

5. SUGGESTED READINGS

Social Psychology, Stain L. Albrecht, Darwin L. Thomas, Bruce A. Chadwick, Prentice-Hall, Inc. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey 07632

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UNIT-13

ATTITUDE AND ATTITUDE CHANGE

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1. OBJECTIVES

After reading this unit alongwith the suggested readings, you should be able to:

1. Define the concept of attitude properly, and determine its importance in the practical life;
2. Measure how attitudes are scaled and organized;
3. Differentiate attitude from behaviour; and
4. Count the characteristics of the source; the message, and the audience and explain how these characteristics are combined for attitudinal change.

2. SUMMARY OF THE MAJOR TOPICS

2.1 Definition

The concept of attitude occupies a central position in the field of social psychology. Herbert Spencer (1862) and Alexander Bain (1868) suggested that an individual's mind would fall into a set pattern or attitude that would influence and colour his perception of a situation. German scientists treated attitude as a mental preparedness that could significantly affect physical reaction time. In order to be able to predict behaviour, all one had to do was to determine the person's attitude toward the object of the behaviour. The study of social psychology reveals that there is little consensus on the definition of social attitudes. Thomas and Znaniecki (1918) defined the attitude as *by attitude we understand a process of individual consciousness which determines real or possible activity of the individual in the social world*. The most important characteristic of this definition is the notion of some underlying attitude process that determines overt behaviour. This definition contributed the popular concept that: by knowing one's attitudes we can predict behaviour toward the object of that predisposition. For example, if we know a person's attitude toward a minority group, we can anticipate how he or she will behave when coming into contact with a member of that minority group. Several other definitions of attitude are:

An attitude is a mental and neural state of readiness, organized through experience, exerting a directive or dynamic influence upon the individual's response to all objects and situations with which it is related (Allport, 1935).

An attitude can be defined as an enduring organization of motivational, emotional, perceptual and cognitive processes with respect to some aspect of the individual's world (Krech and Crutchfield, 1948).

Attitude is defined as an implicit drive producing response considered socially significant in an individual's society (Doob, 1947)

An attitude is a relatively enduring organization of beliefs about an object or situation predisposing one to respond in some preferential manner (Rokeach, 1967)

Attitude refers to certain regularities of a person's feelings, thoughts, and predispositions to act toward some aspect of his environment (Socord and Backman, 1964).

Every one of these definitions assume that attitudes influence behaviour. In addition, most of the definitions make some reference to the multi-dimensional nature of attitudes. For example, Socord and Backman make reference to a cognitive component (beliefs or knowledge about the attitude object), an affective component (feelings or emotional response to the attitude object), and a behavioural component (predisposition to respond in some fashion toward the attitude object). Here the purpose of the discussion is to determine the organizational relationships between these sub-components. Is affect always consistent with cognition? If our knowledge about an attitude object changes, will our feelings toward that object also change? DeFleur and Westie (1963) have proposed

that two types of definitions of attitude can be found in the literature. In the first type, attitude is clearly a predisposition to act, operating as a motivational force within the individual. Behaviour is thus, due to attitude, which acts as an immediate and direct determinant of the behavioural response. The second type of definition is more consistent with the available empirical literature, employs a probability concept. Attitude is treated as the probability of a certain type of responses in a certain type of situation. The concept is thus tied directly to observable events rather than relying on some latent process or hidden mechanism. Bain defined the attitude as the stable overt behaviour of the individual that influences his status. The definition is consistent with the behaviourist emphasis on observable behaviour.

2.2 Measurement of Attitudes

The scientific usefulness of the concept of attitude depends upon the ability to measure these internal states. Thus, the principle task is to develop ways to measure attitudes. Attitude is a hypothetical construct and itself cannot be directly observed. Therefore, it must be inferred from behaviour, including self report.

2.2.1 Content Analysis of Communications

Thomas and Znaniecki (1918) used this method to infer the attitudes from different types of written documents. They collected over seven hundred letters that were to or from Polish immigrants residing in America and their families and relatives still living in Poland. Other sources included were copies of Polish newspapers published in Poland; histories of Polish parishes and other organizations that were established by the immigrants after their arrival in America; and live histories. The material available to researchers were tremendous and it was hoped that the common theme or attitudes could be identified in these materials that could then be used in understanding the behaviour of the Polish immigrants. Because no specific tool or measurement scales were developed, therefore, the question of accuracy, interpretation and replication was raised.

2.2.2 Thurstone Scaling of attitudes

Thurstone (1928) argued that there is a psychological continuum of affect along which individuals can be placed. In his equal-appearing interval method, he assembled about seventy-five statements about the attitude topic. These were reviewed by one hundred judges. They were asked to sort them into eleven piles. A value is determined for each statement according to average ranking by all the judges. This is referred to as the scale value of the statements. A second measure called the Q value is determined for each statement by calculating on interquartile range for the distribution of judgements obtained for that statement. A Q value is really a measure value for ambiguity -- a high Q value indicates lack of agreement by the judges on placement of the statements; a low Q value indicates high consensus. Finally, on the basis of the scale value, the Q value and the desire to have items that cover the range of the eleven point scale, approximately

twenty statements are selected for the scale. These can then be given to the subjects to be studied, and scale scores determined by the items with which the subjects indicate they are in agreement. For example:

<i>Scale Value</i>	<i>Selected Items</i>
4.5	I believe in what the religion teaches but with mental reservation
5.4	I believe in religion but seldom go to mosque.
1.0	I think the mosque is a parasite on society.
0.2	I believe the religion is the greatest institution in Pakistan.

2.3 Likert Scaling of Attitudes

Rensis Likert (1932) developed a scaling technique known as the method of *Summated rating*. In this method, the statements are written in such a manner that the degree of agreement and disagreement can be registered. Usually a five-point scale is used including:

- | | |
|--------------------------------|--------------|
| 1. Strongly | 2. Agree |
| 3. Neutral/undecided/uncertain | 4. Disagree. |
| 5. Strongly disagree | |

The group of statements and these response categories are pretested with a group of respondents having characteristics similar to those of the population to be studied, to determine the items to include on the final scale. Each individual attitude statement is then assessed in terms of whether it affords a distinction between high and low scorers.

Example:

Smoking causes lung cancer	1. S. agree, 2. Agree, 3. Undecided, 4. Disagree, 5. S. disagree.
Iodized salt is very effective in physical and mental growth	1. S. agree, 2. Agree, 3. Undecided 4. Disagree, 5. S. disagree
Population growth is a burden on national resources	1. S. agree, 2. Agree, 3. Undecided 4. Disagree, 5. S. disagree

2.4 Attitude Organization

Most of social psychologists assume that an attitude is multi-dimensional; that it has cognitive (belief, knowledge), affective (feelings and emotional), and behavioural (predispositions to behave or act) properties. Two questions emerge from this conceptualization of attitude: (i) the relationship among these components; (ii) how different attitudes are related to each other? All theories of attitude organization are based on the idea of cognitive consistency. That is, all assume that individuals attempt to avoid situation that would create cognitive inconsistency.

2.5 Heider's balance Theory

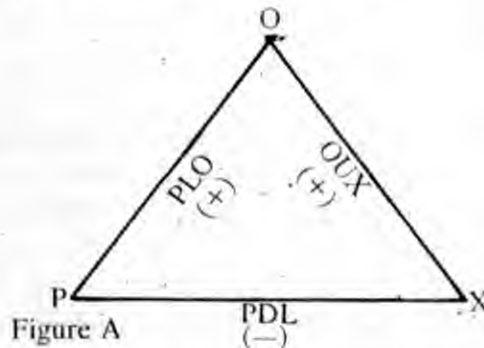
The concept of cognitive consistency is based on the assumption that an individual will try to maximize consistency among the various components of an attitude or between two or more attitudes. Our affective response toward some attitude object should be consistent with our knowledge and beliefs about that object, and both should be consistent with our behaviour. For example, a person believes that smoking is injurious to health, then this individual should also express a negative emotion to smoking and, on a behavioural level, should not smoke. Similarly, if a person holds two attitudes that are related to each other, these attitudes should be consistent. For example, if an individual has a positive attitude toward a teacher who smokes, then the person should have a positive attitude toward smoking. In either of these examples, if the components of attitude or different attitudes are not consistent, the person will experience a psychological stress. Heider's theory focuses on sentiment that refers to how a person feels about another person or some object in the environment.

In Heider's P-O-X model:

- a. liking indicates positive sentiments
- b. disliking indicates negative sentiments
- c. P stands for person
- d. O stands for another person
- e. X stands for object
- f. U stands for unit relationship
- g. Not-U stands for not unit relationship.

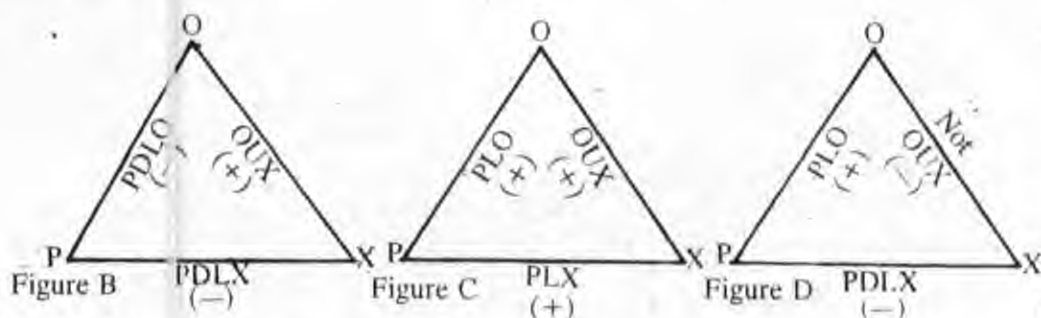
According to the theory individual will attempt to maintain a balance state among their sentiment and unit relationship with others and with impersonal entities. A balance state is one that is harmonious or one in which the entities comprising the situation and the feelings about them fit together without conflict or stress.

The unbalance state in Heider's formulation.



In the P-O-X triangle, three specific relationships are involved: i. P to O; ii. O to X; iii. P to X. Each of these relationships has four possibilities based on the concept of sentiment and unit relationships: L, DL, U, and Not-U. For example, P may like O, O

may be connected in a unit relationship with X, and P may dislike X. The relationship can be said to be unbalanced that depicted in the above model (Figure - A) because there are two positive and one negative linkages. The relationship will be balanced with two negative and one positive linkages depicted in Figure-B, or when there are all positive linkages depicted in Figure-C, or when there are two negative and one positive linkage depicted in Figure-D.



Heider argues that the individual will try to balance the relationship. A change in any one of the individual relationships would create a balance state. For example, in Figure-B, the P liking for O is changed to disliking. In this case a balance state is achieved through one positive and three negative linkages. In Figure-C three positive linkages are established and a balance state is achieved. In Figure-D two negative and one positive linkages are achieved and as a result balance state is achieved.

2.6 Attitudes and Behaviour

Social scientists have debated the relationships between attitudes and behaviour — attitude as predictor of behaviour. Two studies of Richard Lapiere and Kutner et al., indicated a lack of correspondence between actual behaviour and the behaviour that respondents verbally indicated that they would take. A careful review of the research from 1930 to 1969 led to the conclusion that attitude accounts for about 10 percent of variability in behaviour. Warner and DeFleur have noted that the debate has resulted in three distinct views.

The first is the *postulate of consistency*. It is based on the assumption that attitudes can be used as reasonably valid guides for prediction of the behaviour. The second is the *postulate of independent variation*. It claims that there is no valid reason to assume that attitudes and behaviours should be consistently related. The third position is the *postulate of contingent consistency*. It combines the previous two positions. According to this postulate, behaviour appears to be influenced by the person's attitude combined with other personality and other situational factors. An examination of the attitude/behaviour research reveals that most of the studies were focused on attitude alone in predicting behaviour. The results indicate that attitudes by themselves are not very good predictor of behaviour. DeFleur and Westig argue that the lack of a strong relationship between

verbal attitude and overt behaviour may be explained in terms of social constraints preventing the person from acting out his convictions. for example, an individual may be extremely prejudiced against smokers, but when introduced by his or her significant others, he or she responds in a gracious manner. Most contemporary researchers have been influenced by the insight and have attempted to include situational constraints in understanding attitude/behaviour relationships.

Social Psychology, Stan L. Albrecht, Darwin L. Thomas, Bruce A. Chadwick, P.192-222

2.7 Attitude Change: Consistency and Social-learning Theories

2.7.1 Attitude Change

We can see in our daily life that most activities are directed towards changing the attitudes of other human beings. A great amount has been spent on an attempt to change the attitudes of the audience members towards power consumption, adopting of small family norms, smoking, and other environmental degradations. All mass media are full of numerous efforts to influence the attitudes of the people toward certain objects.

2.7.2 Consistency Theory

Newcomb's A-B-X model

According to Newcomb's model person A likes person B, who feels positively about X. But A dislikes X.

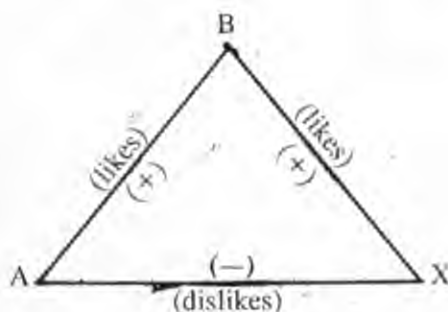


Figure-1 Newcomb's A-B-X model.

In this case the situation would be unstable and would create pressure for change in one of the connected links. He argues that A's orientation toward B and toward X are not independent of each other, but are interdependent. for example, there is a situation in which A and B are in positive relationship but disagree about the X. This disagreement will create a strain. However, the amount of strain will be the function of three factors: (i) the degree of A's attraction to B; (ii) the intensity of A's attitude degree of A's

attitude toward x; and (iii) A's perception of the discrepancy between his or her opinion of X and B's opinion of X. He proposes that this imbalance state will be resolved through the process of communication. That is, A will communicate with B regarding X, presumably to change B's attitude towards X and create balance. For example, two close friends disagree about the merits of a particular politician. This would create strain and an imbalance state would exist. Thus, communication between the two would start to eliminate the state of imbalance. Strain is, thus, reduced through communication (A convinces B to vote for someone else, or B convinces A to vote for X).

But Schachter found that this communication will not continue indefinitely. In a designed research project he added three new members to establish social groups. The three each played different roles. (i) The *conformist* adopted and went along with the group. (ii) The *slider* initially played a deviant role but then went with the group. (iii) The *deviant* played a non-conformist role throughout.

A Newcomb's model would predict, the conformist was the focus of relatively little of the group's communication. He already accepted their position and so no strain toward symmetry was created. The slider was the focus of extensive group communication and he finally began to shift toward the group. The deviant, too initially was the focus of extensive communication, but when he showed no change, he was rejected by the group. In this case, too, the symmetry or balance state was achieved with two negative and one positive linkages.

2.7.3 Social-learning Theory

A second major orientation in the attitude-change literature grows out of the application of the reinforcement principles of classical and operant conditioning theories.

2.7.4 Classical Conditioning Model

A series of studies by Staats and Staats (1958) is representative of the work of employing the classical conditioning model to the problem of attitude change. In one of their study, they sought to determine whether or not attitudes toward national names could be changed by pairing these national names with stimulus words that elicited generally positive or negative responses. They began by compiling lists of words that led to negative responses. By using the semantic differential as a measurement tool, they found that words such as *beauty*, *sweet*, and *gift* led to positive reaction and words such as *bitter*, *ugly*, *sad*, and *sour* elicited negative connotative reactions. The positive words were then paired with the national names, *Swede*, and the negative words the name *Dutch*. After a series of such pairings, they observed that the word *Dutch* would not elicit a more negative response in their subjects, and the national name *swede* would now elicit a positive response. It is not difficult to apply this method in everyday life. For example, in television ads, products are paired with well-known and liked personalities – cricketer, artist etc.

2.7.5 *Operand Conditioning Model*

There are several basic steps in employing the operant model of attitude change. First, the researcher needs to determine what attitude she or he wants the subjects to hold at the conclusion of the experiment. Second, the current operant level, or the present attitude held by the subject must be determined in order to assess the amount and type of change that must be elicited. Third, an appropriate primary or secondary reinforcer or punishment must be selected. When dealing with human subject, secondary reinforcers, such as status or approval, are frequently more effective because the needs they meet are not so easily satiated as are those met by primary reinforcers, such as sex or food. Fourth, a schedule of reinforcement must be established. Although continuous reinforcement must often be used to establish a new attitude, the attitude change will be less subject to extinction if an intermittent schedule is employed. When these four steps are completed, the attitude can be shaped in the desired direction.

2.8 **Characteristics of the Source, the Message, and the Audience on Attitude Change**

Howland, Janis, Kelly and many others have examined in detail issues relating to: (i) the source of the message; (ii) the characteristics and content of the message; and (iii) the characteristics of the recipients of the message in determining the nature and amount of attitude change that will be generated.

2.8.1 *Characteristics of the Communicator/Source*

Most of us would probably respond more favourably to arguments given by expert on the topic concerned. Researchers have gathered considerable evidence that we are more influenced by an expert than we are by a layman. If someone or some entity is defined as an expert, we almost automatically assume that he or she is a source of valid and correct arguments. However, expertise is issue-specific. The economist who know about the economic policy of the country may know little about the religion. Different experts can disagree about the relative merit of various courses of action. For example, there are probably equal number of arguments on both sides of the debate of adopting small family norms or these of iodized salt. Economists and doctors present credentials to convince the people to adopt such behaviour while religious leaders oppose the issue on religious grounds. In such cases, the public tends to opt for the *status quo* rather than trying to choose between expert sources.

Another important characteristic of the communicator is his *trustworthiness*. If we can trust a communicator, we are more likely to be influenced by that source. Other communicator characteristics that influence our attitude are *power*, *attraction*, *likeableness*, and *similarity*. We are more likely to be influenced by source who has *power*. Because the communicator has the power to impose sanctions if we fail to comply with the request. To effectively bring about change, the powerful source must also be visible or have the ability to monitor the degree of compliance. An *attractive* and

likeable communicator will have more effect on an audience than will one who is disliked and unattractive. The salesperson who dresses neatly and is pleasant is much more likely to change the attitude and make the sale than one who is nasty and unattractive. *Similarity* may operate in much the same fashion. For example a housewife depicted in a commercial who hates to clean dishes can be identified with other housewives who similarly despise that particular job. If she has found a product what can easily clean the dishes then the same product will work for others as well.

2.8.2 *Characteristics of the Message*

Regarding the message, there are two major issues: (i) the use of fear-arousing as apposed to more rational or less emotional appeal; (ii) the content or organization of the message itself.

i. *Fear-arousing appeal:*

Many messages have been based on the assumption that if sufficient fear is aroused in an audience, they will be convinced to choose the course of action advocated by the message. An appeal that causes much fear does arouse more worry, concern, and fright in an audience, but this is less likely to be translated into attitude and behaviour change than are appeals that elicit less fear and more thought. Apparently too much fear can cause us to "turn of " the message and to react unfavourable to it. Highly fear arousing appeals may be so distracting that it is difficult for the audience to attend to what is being said. Many researchers have found that if an immediate response is necessary, and if the subject has low self-esteem, highly fear-arousing appeals are more effective.

ii. *Organization of the Message:*

Extensive research has been conducted on the issues that (a) whether persuasive message should present on one or both sides of the arguments, (b) whether message should draw a conclusion or leave it up to the audience. Researchers concluded that it depends upon several other factors in addition to that of message organization. For example, evidence concerning whether to present only one side of an argument or to recognize the arguments of the opponents as well suggests that it depends upon the characteristics of the audience. If the audience is well-informed and already know the counter arguments, then the speaker will have more impact if he or she recognizes those counter arguments and should answer them if possible. If the audience is not well-informed, presenting both sides arguments will confuse the audience.

Research evidence suggests that if the issue is more complicated then the speaker should draw the conclusion and vice versa.

2.8.3 Characteristics of the Audience

Certain personal and group characteristics of the individual must be assessed to evaluate the effectiveness of communication.

i. Personality Factors:

There is no research evidence that indicates that some people are rigid and some are more susceptible toward attitude change efforts. But in general, people who have had a history of success are less likely to be amenable to persuasive appeals. Successful individuals are more self-confident and less reliant on others than are those who have a history of failure. Persons who have aggressive personalities are also less likely to respond to efforts to change their attitudes. A person who is absolutely convinced of the rightness of his or her opinion is not likely to respond favourably to efforts to change that attitude.

ii. Group Factors:

Communication appeals are usually filtered through the various group membership and opinion leaders that play an interpretative role for us. Research showed that most voters do not respond directly to appeals made by politicians. Rather, they interpret and evaluate these appeals in terms of religious groups, labour unions, baradarism, provincialism, khanism, vaderaism and so on. When the group ties have been broken they are more amenable to persuasive appeals.

Social Psychology, Stan L. Albrecht, Darwin L. Thomas, Bruce A. Chadwick, P.224-252

3. KEY TERMS

Attitude: A relatively enduring valuative orientation toward some object of experience. Components of attitudes include cognition, feelings, and action tendencies.

Attitude scale: A set of questions designed to measure an attitude on a single dimension.

Balance: According to Heider, a condition of consistency between associated cognitive elements, especially between unit relations and sentiment relations. Unit relations represent the groupings of cognition with each other, while sentiment relations represent positive or negative feelings toward cognitive elements. Balance obtains when similar sentiments are felt toward all elements of a unit relating; imbalance occurs when this is not the case.

Conversion: Relatively sudden and drastic attitude and drastic attitude change, prejudice, stereotyped attitude toward a person or group, held without adequate evidence. Prejudices are usually thought of as negative attitudes, though they may also be positive.

4. SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. Define the term "attitude" as fully as you can.
2. Discuss the Heider's balance theory of attitude organization.
3. Discuss the Newcomb's A-B-X model of attitude change.
4. Discuss the characteristics of "the source, the message, and the audience" in attitude change.
5. Can behaviour be predicted from attitude? Discuss
6. Write a note on the Likert scaling of attitude.
7. Discuss the consistency and social-learning theory of attitude change.

5. SUGGESTED READINGS

Social Psychology: Stan L. Albrecht, Darwin L. Thomas, Bruce A. Chadwick, Prentice-Hall, Inc. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey 07632

Social Psychology— Individuals, Groups, Societies, -John W. McDavid and Herbert Harari, CBS Publishers & Distributors, 485, Jain Bhawan, Bhala Naht Nagar, Shahdara, Delhi, India.

An Introduction to Social Psychology: (1974 2nd ed.), James A. Schellenberg, Random House New York.

UNIT-14

COLLECTIVE BEHAVIOUR

Written by:
Prof. Farish Ullah Yousafzai

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1. OBJECTIVES

After reading this unit alongwith the suggested readings, you should be able to:

1. Evaluate collective behaviour in a popular sense and to study in Pakistani society;
2. Explain the types and examples of collective behaviour in Pakistani society;
3. Analyze critical approaches and views to the social movements;

2. SUMMARY OF THE MAJOR TOPICS

2.1 Introduction

Collective behaviour has been generally applied to these events and refers to *group behaviour which originates spontaneously, is entirely unorganized, fairly unpredictable and planless in course of development, and which depends on interstimulation among participants*. Examples of collective behaviour include panics, revolutions, riots, lynching, manias, crazes, and fads.

Traditional approaches to the study of collective behaviour have emphasized the importance of emotion, suggestibility and irrationality in the understanding of collective episodes.

2.2 Studying Collective Behaviour

Researchers have always recognized the problems associated with the fact that collective outbursts are not highly predictable and, therefore, do not always occur at a time or place that is convenient for collecting data. Thus the researchers rely on secondary source, such as newspapers accounts and historical records, or on narratives provided after the fact by participants or observers. Narratives are based on recall, and in most cases the sources are untrained in social-science research methods. Despite these difficulties, a number of approaches have been used by researchers in attempting to study the phenomenon of collective behaviour. The major approaches to the study of collective behaviour are summarized below:-

2.2.1 Survey Methods

Social scientists have used both questionnaires and personal interviews as survey methods in studying collective-behaviour episodes. Usually, these surveys are taken after the fact and participants are requested to recall their involvement as well as their feelings, perceptions, and observations. However, other studies have used survey techniques to examine collective behaviour as it is occurring. For example, Mann, Nagel, and Dowling (1976) studied an economic panic in Australia even as it was occurring by systematically sampling and interviewing persons standing in lines to withdraw their savings from a financial institution. But the researchers noted little evidence of panic in the popular sense, that is non-coordination, destructive competitiveness, and mob-like behaviour. Most withdrawers were anxious, but they waited patiently in well ordered, self-regulated queues. There are some obvious limitations in using survey research methods to study some types of collective behaviour. For example, members of a murderous lynch mob are hardly likely to submit to an interview and the person fleeing a burning building cannot be expected to pause and fill out a questionnaire.

2.2.2 Content Analysis

Numerous secondary sources are available that provide a rich pool of information

for the researcher who is interested in particular collective-behaviour episodes. For example, if one were interested in studying the riots, violence, panic, and revolution, one could turn to the hours of television footage that were shown at the times; to the hundreds of interviews that were conducted with officials, policemen, and with participants in the demonstrations. All these sources would enable the researcher to develop a broad and comprehensive picture of these particular historical events. Content analyses provides an after-the-fact method of studying collective-behaviour episodes but is useful in increasing our understanding of these events.

Observational Techniques

As noted, one of the problems in studying collective behaviour has been the fact that such episodes are difficult to predict and do not always occur at a time or place that affords direct access to the events as they are happening. Nevertheless, there are a growing number of instances in which social scientists have been present and have been able to become direct observers of the action. For example, Berk (1974) and several of his students became participant observers in a confrontation between students and university administrators. Each of the participant observers collected extensive field notes that, along with other sources, became the materials used to test a data that are extremely useful in testing specific research hypotheses. In fact, data collected this way by trained researchers have contributed greatly to the erosion of stereotypical views of collective behaviour that characterized the literature for many years.

2.2.3 Experimental Approaches

Several researchers have attempted to study collective behaviour by developing lab experiments that test relevant theoretical variables. Although it is amply clear that the conditions that give rise to authentic collective behaviour episodes are not easily reproduced in the laboratory, some innovative studies have appeared periodically in the research literature. For example, an early study by French (1944) attempted to simulate panic conditions in order to assess the differential reactions of organized and unorganized groups. Groups that had either been organized and structured beforehand or had been left unorganized and unstructured were placed in a locked room and were led to believe that a fire had started in the building. To simulate conditions that might lead to panic, fire bells were sounded and smoke poured under the door of the locked room. No panic occurred among the participants although the previously organized groups tended to react in a more orderly way than did the previously unorganized groups.

In summary, many different tools and techniques are available to the researcher interested in studying collective behaviour. However, it must be recognized that this area presents problems that differ in important ways from other research areas discussed in the previous four units of social psychology. Nevertheless, the imaginative students of collective behaviour can develop techniques and procedures that will increase our knowledge and understanding in this important area of behaviour.

2.3 Types and Examples of Collective Behaviour

The term collective behaviour has been applied to a broad range of group activities ranging from a rather spontaneous and short lived actions of a crowd to the more organized, structured and long-term experiences of a major social movement.

2.3.1 *The Crowd*

We attend the theatre and game events with a large number of people. We join the political demonstration to change the direction of domestic and foreign policy. Each of these actions could be viewed as crowd behaviour. Crowd refers to a *highly diverse conditions of human assemblage: audience, mob, rally and panic all fall within the definition of crowd*. Roger Brown (1954) classifies crowds as either active or passive. Passive crowds are given the label *audience* and can be either casual (a group pausing on a street corner to observe some stimulus event) or international (spectators at an athletic event) in nature. Active crowds are called *mob* and include aggressive collectivities, such as riots and lynch mobs, panics of escape and acquisition, and expressive crowds.

2.3.2 *Communication in the Crowd: Rumours*

Most analysts of the crowd behaviour argue that the dispersal of information through rumours is one of the most important and significant processes underlying the whole phenomenon. When a mass of individuals joins together in a common course of action, such as riot, panic, or lynching, they must usually develop something approximating a common definition of the situation. The development of this common definition often occurs through the rumour-dissemination process.

Turner and Killian (1972) have noted that rumour is the characteristic mode of communication in collective-behaviour episodes. It is the mechanism by which meaning is applied to what is otherwise likely to be an ambiguous situation. Thus, rumours play an important problem solving role and allow the people to deal with the complexities and uncertainties of life by providing meaning and structure. Rumours are most likely to develop in situations that are characterized by both *ambiguity* and *stress*. Stress increases the immediacy of need for meaning, thus, when our personal welfare appears to be threatened in some way and there is no clear definition of what is happening or why, rumours are likely to run rampant. Rumours are generally passed by word of mouth from one person to another. When large groups of people are coming together, the speed of the transmission is greatly facilitated. These rumours are completely distorted in the process of transmission. They play a critical role in most episodes of collective behaviour. Through providing meanings in situations of ambiguity and stress, they provide an orientation for the potential actors by helping them develop a common definition of the situation. This aids in the mobilization of the participants for action by identifying a target on a riot or lynching, by attributing cause for problems and failure, and by defining what would be an appropriate course of action. Rumours are an

important mechanism of information transmission in most societies and their significance is increased dramatically during stress and crisis.

2.3.3 *The Role of Leadership in Crowd*

The acceleration of activity in many collective behaviours is attributed to the actions of the leader. This emergent leadership acts first what the others will do subsequently. This leadership is emergent and is not selected according to the traditional practice. The leadership emerges out of the course of group interaction and often disappears back into the crowd after the action has run its course. The development of leadership in major social movements is the exception. Many of the important political leaders achieved world recognition through their emergence as leaders of social movements. Examples include Ghandi, Fidel Castro, Mao Tse Tung, Imam Khomieni and many others. Conventional leadership follows conventional norms and leadership in a mob is engaging in the violation of conventional norms and they are the persons for whom norms are the weakest. The critical importance of leadership in most collective behaviour occurrences can best be summarized by reviewing the roles the leader plays. First, the leader builds and increases the emotional tensions of the groups. Second, the leader suggests a course of action that will relieve the built-up emotions.

Finally, the leader justifies the specified course of action as being "right". This is the final stage for hesitant, timid and more rational people to be converted into collective behaviour. It is true that in most collective behaviour-episodes, things are not always as they seem. Marx (1974) notes that some activists and even some leaders of social movements are actually "agent provocateurs" or informers planted by an authority to create internal crisis.

2.3.4 *Panic as a Type of Collective Behaviour*

Panics tend to emerge from crowd situation such as fire in a cinema hall, hotel etc., but in some situations it emerges inspite of physical and psychological distance of the people involved in the panic. For example, economic panic can occur among persons who are widely dispersed if they come to apply a similar set of definitions to a common situation. Some stimulus is required to prompt the action of the dispersed participants, such as radio or television report (see Norms and Social Influence, unit -3 of part two). However, the presence of crowd facilitates reaction. In the simplest sense, panics involve competition for something in short supply. This may be economic resources, products or social status. Economic panics occur when money or some other commodity is believed to be on short supply and may result in such behaviours as a run on a bank or a selling run on a stock exchange. Other panics may occur when groups of people believe that there are insufficient escape routes in a dangerous situation, such as when a building is on fire. According to research, ambiguity about the degree of danger and the probability of escape increase the probability of panic behaviour. From the study of experimental literature Fitz and Williams (1957) conclude that panics are most likely to

occur when the following conditions exist:

1. Individuals perceive an immediate and severe danger to life, financial security, social status and so on.
2. People believe that there is a limited escape route or any other applicable form of "short supply". If there were a large number of escape routes that would easily accommodate all those in need, there would be no need for competition and, hence, panic.
3. People believe that the existing routes are closing, so that if one does not get out in a hurry, there will be no escape at all. If the escape routes are not closing, there should be ample time for everyone to make an escape, and panic will not be likely to occur.
4. There is a lack of information or the existing communication channels are unable to keep everyone adequately informed on the issue. This leads to ambiguity and greater urgency in the situation.

2.3.5 *Fashions and Fads*

These types tend to be more trivial in terms of their total impact on individual lives, but they are also included under the umbrella of collective behaviour. Unlike many collective episodes, which tend to be "crowd" phenomena, fads and fashions do not depend upon the physical proximity of participants and can affect the behaviour of individuals in widely dispersed circumstances. A fad can be defined as some short-lived variation in pattern of speech, behaviour, or decoration. For example, music of air wolf (a PTV programme at time), phrases from drama and film, etc. Its occurrences are quite unpredictable, but its life can be expected to be short. Fashions tend to be longer-lived than fads. However, fashions is a process, which means that it is a continuing state of change. Hemline length, lapel width, hair-lengths, the style of eyeglasses are the examples

Traditionally, it has been assumed that fashions were introduced by people of high social status and that they then filter downward. In many instances, this is true, but the filtering goes in the other direction as well. For example, some contemporary style of dress, shoes, and foods originated in the lower social classes and then filtered upward.

Social Psychology, Stan L. Albrecht, Darwin L. Thomas, Bruce A. Chadwick, Prentice-Hall, Inc. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey, pp. 348-366.

2.4 Theoretical Approaches to the Study of Collective Behaviour

The major theoretical orientations of collective behaviour have been summarized under the headings of contagion, convergence, emergent norms theories, and sociological theory of Smelser.

2.4.1 *Contagion Theory*

Theories of collective behaviour based on contagion "explain collective behaviour

on the basis of some process whereby moods, attitudes, and behaviours are communicated rapidly and accepted uncritically". Contagion theory grows out of the classic work of LeBon (1896) who sought to understand how groups of individuals could come to present characteristics that were both different and unpredictable from the characteristics of the individuals composing the group. His explanation came to be referred to as the "law of the mental unity of crowd". This proposed that under the right set of circumstances, the sentiments and ideas of all persons in a group would take one and the same direction, and individual initiative and personality would vanish. In such circumstances, the behaviour that resulted would be unique to the group setting in that one could not predict its occurrence simply on the study of the individuals comprising the group.

Contagion theory relies heavily on such idea as stimulus-response and emotional contagion. Supposedly, as a crowd moves around and interacts, emotions are transmitted quickly from one individual to the other, and each individual becomes transformed as he comes more and more under the influence of the group. This transformation is facilitated through "circular reaction" or "a type of interstimulation" whereby one individual reproduces the stimulation that has come from another and when reflected back to this individual, reinforces the original stimulation.

2.4.2 *Convergence Theory*

According to contagion theory, the individual in a crowd situation loses himself/herself to the emotions of the crowd and does something that could not be predicted on the basis of individual characteristics. Convergence theory, on the other hand, argues that participants, particularly in violent collective episodes, were already *predisposed* to engage in such actions -- the crowd simply offers them the excuse. Thus, collective behaviour is explained on the basis of simultaneous presence of a number of people who share the same predispositions, which are activated by the event or object toward which their common attention is directed.

According to convergence theory, the presence of the crowd is not the casual factor in collective outburst. Rather, it simply provides an excuse for people to do what they were already predisposed to do anyway. Allport argues, nothing new is added by the crowd situation "except an intensification of the feeling already present, and the possibility of concerted action".

2.4.3 *Emergent-Norm Theory*

The emergent-norm approach as initially developed by Turner and Killian (1957) argues that observers of collective-behaviour episodes have tended to get so caught up in the emotion of the situation that they fail to make important observations of what actually is happening. Thus, they fail to notice the definitional process that is often occurring. "The shared conviction of right, which constitutes a norm, sanctions behaviour consistent with the norm, inhibits behaviour contrary to it, justifies proselyting, and

requires restraining action against those who dissent. Because the behaviour in the crowd is different either in degree or kind from that in non-crowd situations, the norms must be specific to the situation to some degree-hence the emergence norm. Bystanders, influenced by the emotion of the situation, often fail to observe this process.

Emergence-norm theory differs in several important respects from the other two approaches. For example, rather than attributing crowd action to the "spontaneous induction of emotion", greater emphasis is placed on group conformity through the imposition of a social norm. The crowd suppresses incongruous feelings and actions of its members and provides direction and meaning. In addition, limits on the direction and degree of crowd action are more readily explainable by emergent-norm theory than by the other two. The crowd defines certain behaviours as appropriate to the situation, but other behaviour may remain defined as inappropriate. The individual who goes beyond the limits is often chastised and sanctioned.

2.4.4 *Smelser's Valued-Added Theory*

Smelser combines ideas from economic with the work of sociologists in developing "value-added" theory. Smelser's theory seeks to provide answers to two basic questions: (i) what are the factors that determine whether or not a collective-behaviour episode will occur? and (ii) what determines whether one type (for example, panic as opposed to a riot) rather than another will occur? Value-added notion implies that the development of a collective-behaviour episode, involves a process and that each stage in that process adds its value to or influences in an important way the final outcome. More specifically, he sees six stages as necessary before collective actions of the nature discussed above will occur. These six stages occur in sequence, and all are necessary, otherwise the developing episode will not occur. these stages include:

1. *Structural Conduciveness*: The concept of structural conduciveness implies conditions that are permissive of a particular sort of collective behaviour. That is, general conditions in a given society are such that they would enable or allow a particular form of collective behaviour.
2. *Structural Strain*: More specifically, structural strain refers to certain aspects of a system such as economic competition, unequal distribution of wealth, and sense of economic deprivation.
3. *The Growth and Spread of a Generalized Belief*: The third phase involves the development among the potential participants of a generalized belief regarding the causes for the strain that exists and some means by which it may be eliminated. In other words, the developing belief that comes to be accepted by members of the group identifies the source of the strain, attributes certain agreed-upon characteristics to this source, and then makes some recommendation about how the strain can be relieved.
4. *Precipitating Factor*: The precipitating event is the incident or action that sets

off the collective episode. Because of conduciveness, strain, and the development of a generalized belief, the situation is now ripe for an explosion. All it needs is the spark that will set it off.

5. *Mobilization of Participants for Action*: Now all that is needed is for the gathered participants to mobilize. The mobilization is largely a function of two forces -- leadership and communication. Before the milling and largely disorganized crowd can begin to take some coordinated action, some form of leadership must be provided. This emergent leadership then communicates direction to the crowd -- for example, the target for the hostilities is defined, appropriate actions are specified, a division of labour may even be established, and so on. At this point, a full-fledged collective episode is underway.
6. *The Operation of Social Control*: Up to this point, it is argued that the factors identified must be *present*, otherwise the collective act will not occur. But the *absence* of the social control is the key to the final outcome. In other words, if social control is present, the presence of the previous five factors will be suppressed and controlled and cannot be converted into a collective-behaviour episode.

Social Psychology, Stan L. Albrecht, et al. pp.367-378

2.5 Social Movements

Blumer (1971) defines social movement as *collective enterprises to establish a new order of life*. The elements of collective and organized efforts are necessary in social movements. They are long-lived as compared to panics, riots and other collective episodes. The fundamental difference between social movements and other types of collective behaviour is the existence of bonds of *positive solidarity* which makes it possible for social movements to generate common ideology, internal organization, continuity of leadership and a sense for strategic necessity. Collective behaviour is spontaneous in character, unorganized, and lacks structure and stability. However, social movements tend to develop highly defined structure and organization.

2.5.1 Traditional Approaches to the Study of Collective Behaviour

Literature of the past few decades noted that social movements emerge out of the shared grievances and discontent that are present in a given population. According to Blumer, the motive power of the movement derives from dissatisfaction with current conditions and hopes for a better scheme of living. Cameron identifies three basic social conditions that lead to the genesis of social movements:

1. a recognition of dissatisfaction and a sharing of these with others;
2. a belief in the ability to influence and reshape the course of events;
3. an existence of social conditions in which to change something is possible and

plausibly effective.

If it is believed that a better change is possible, the social movement frequently evolves as an enduring organization devoted to the attainment of this vision. Values and goals are defined into a group ideology, a structure emerges with its role definitions. Then the social movements enter the phase of its career and effect the social order. During this phase, the membership in the movement is likely to be increasing. At the beginning, this relatively unorganized, small group is neglected or even may be laughed at by the large society, but, as the movement grows larger and more powerful, opposition forces come into play.

2.5.2 Resource-Mobilization Approach

Tilly argues that social movements grow directly out of the central political process evident in a society. McCarthy and Zald (1977) further de-emphasize the importance of grievances and discontent as a necessary precondition for the emergence of social movements by noting that there may always exist enough discontent in a society to supply the grass-roots support for a movement, and, even if this is not the case, it may be created by entrepreneurs and organizations. Thus, full-scale social movements might be mobilized. They may not grow directly out of existing grievances but through the efforts of individuals for established elite group.

2.6 Collective Behaviour and Social Change

One of the reasons for the importance of the fields of collective behaviour to the student of social psychology is found in the relationship between collective behaviour and the larger issue of social change. Few episodes of collective behaviour leave the society in which they have occurred untouched or without some lasting impact. A large urban riot can leave a major duty scarred for years to come. At the same time, it can prompt the larger society to develop social programme that may help to alleviate the ills and frustrations that spawned the riot in the first place. Panic can leave long-term emotional and psychological scars on those who survive as well as on the family and friends of those who do not. Participation in a mass religious revival may have life-long effects on the behaviour of individual participants as well as on whole communities and societies. Social movements may leave few of societies' major institutions untouched, and successful revolutionary movements may overturn existing institutions and dramatically affect relationships in all facets of life.

In all these senses, then, there is a rather direct and important link between collective behaviour and the larger issue of social change. Many collective-behaviour and the larger issue of social change, many collective-behaviour episodes play a direct role in facilitating the process of social change in the larger society. It is noted that the specific goal of many social movements is to change the society from which they emerge, and many movements have done that in rather dramatic fashion.

Not enough is known at present about the relationship between collective behaviour and

social change. Nevertheless, there is little question that an important link exists, and the development of further knowledge and understanding of this link awaits the effort of the student of social psychology.

Social Psychology, Stan L. Albrecht, et al., pp.378—388.

3. KEY TERMS

Collective behaviour. A term usually used to represent the general class of social behaviour that is relatively unstructured by customs or traditions.

Crowd: A temporary group, focused on a common object of attention, in which mutual stimulation among members is a main basis of behaviour. This mutual stimulation typically includes a milling of persons in close physical contact, collective excitement aroused by an unusual event, and the social contagion of mood and action from one member to another.

Mass: A form of collective behaviour characterized by physical dispersion, indirect communication, anonymity of members, and inability to carry out concerted action.

Rumour: A tentative belief based primarily on widespread hearsay evidence.

Satisfaction: The degree of rewards realized relative to the level of rewards expected.

4. SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. Discuss the major approaches to the study of collective behaviour.
2. Write a detailed note on the types and example of collective behaviour.
3. Write a comprehensive note on the "crowd" as a type of collective behaviour.
4. Discuss four major theoretical orientations/approaches to the collective behaviour.
5. What do you understand by the Smelser's Value-added theory?
6. Discuss different approaches to "social movement".

SUGGESTED READINGS

The Social Order: 1970, (3rd ed.), Robert Bierstedt, McGraw-Hill Kogakusha, Ltd., London.

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UNIT-15

PART FOUR

THE NATURE OF STATE

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1 OBJECTIVES

After studying this unit, you should be able to:

1. Explain the concept of State and its elements;
2. Describe Sovereignty, its attributes and narrate the concept of Sovereignty in Islam
3. Make a comparison between Law and Liberty and Right and Duty;
4. Narrate the characteristics of the 1973 Constitution of Pakistan;
5. Comment on the Eighth Amendment in the 1973 Constitution of Pakistan and its abrogation through the 13th Amendment.

2. SUMMARY OF THE MAJOR TOPICS

2.1 Definitions of State

Different scholars have defined "State" differently. Definitions of the few are described below. Aristotle defined it as "a community of families and villages having for its end a perfect and self-sufficing life, by which we mean a happy and honourable life".

Holland defines the State as "a numerous assemblage of human beings, generally occupying a certain territory, amongst whom the will of the majority or of an ascertainable class or persons is by the strength of such a majority or class made to prevail against any of their number who oppose it".

Bluntschli holds: "the state is the politically organized people of a definite territory". Woodrow Wilson defines it simply as "people organized for law within a definite territory".

MacIver defines the state as "an association which, acting through law as promulgated by a government, endowed to this end with a coercive power, maintains within a community territorially demarcated the universal external conditions of social order".

Cole says that the state "is a whole community of its members regarded as an organized social unit".

Harold J Laski defines the state as "a territorial society divided into government and subjects claiming within its allotted physical area, supremacy over all other institutions".

Garner says: "The state as concept of political science and public law is a community of persons, more or less numerous permanently occupying a definite portion of territory, independent of external counter, and possessing an organised government to which the great body of inhabitants render habitual obedience.

Karl Marx, defines state as "the political organisation of the ruling class which uses its power for the purpose of suppressing the resistance of its class enemies. The state arose as a result of the division of society into antagonistic classes, and therefore for the purpose of curbing the exploited majority in the interest of the exploiting minority. It shall exist so long as there is the need for class domination and shall then wither away".

Frederick Engels holds as "The state is a particular power of suppression". He further says that the modern state is nothing more than a committee for the administration of the consolidated affairs of the bourgeois class as a whole. The apparatus of state power -- the army, the police, the judiciary etc. is in the hands of one class to suppress another class or classes".

2.2 Elements of the State

2.2.1 Population

There is no concept of a state without population. Plato believed that an ideal state

should have a population of 5040 persons. Aristotle was of the view that it should be between ten thousand to one lakh persons. He however, laid down a general principle that it should be large enough to be self-sufficing and small enough to be well governed. There are small and very large population states.

2.2.2 Territory

There must be a land where the people of the country can live in. Territory of the state means soil, rivers, lakes, mountains, subsoil and its natural resources.

2.2.3 Government

State can only exist when there is a government. The state plans and acts through the government. It is the government that administers the state, keeps law and order, formulates the policy of the state, and organises the common purposes of the people dwelling within its territory.

2.2.4 Sovereignty

Sovereignty is the basis of the state. Sovereignty means supreme power of the state.

2.3 Sovereignty

Sovereignty means the supremacy of the will of the state. It is indivisible, inalienable, universal, permanent and exclusive. Sovereign also means "above" or "one who is superior to others". Aristotle believes Sovereign as a 'supreme power' of the state. According to Ibn Khaldun, sovereignty is the basis of the state. In the sixteenth century, the French political thinker, Jean Bodin gave it new meanings. Properly understood, Bodin argued, "sovereignty" refers to the source of the state's authority, regardless of its form of government. Sovereignty may be vested in a king or in some elite group or even in the corporate citizenry of the society over time. Whatever the form of sovereignty, Bodin explained, it is distinguished by three attributes: it is absolute, perpetual, and indivisible. Bodin's primary concern was to strengthen the authority of the French monarchy, which some argued was constrained to honour certain long-established traditions and principles enshrined in the common law and in France's medieval institutions. But if the king was limited by the common law or by tradition, Bodin observed, the king was not sovereign. And, as the Sovereign power could not be divided among various institutions, or formally limited by past experience, it followed that the king could do whatever he pleased. Sovereignty was absolute, perpetual, and indivisible.

Hugo Grotius an international jurist defined sovereignty that all the states are equal and independent with supreme jurisdiction within their boundaries. Later, the monistic theories of sovereignty were expounded by several thinkers. Hobbes gave us its absolutist or legal theory. Locke gave us the theory of political sovereignty and Rousseau the theory of popular sovereignty. Austin further developed and perfected the idea of legal

or juristic sovereignty.

2.3.1 *The Concept of Sovereignty in Islam*

According to the Western concepts, sovereignty may be vested in a determinate human superior, a body of persons or various groups of the entire community.

Muslim scholars also accept this definition of sovereignty but they differ from the Western scholars as to the locus of sovereignty. They hold that sovereignty belongs to Almighty God alone because the attributes of sovereignty are to be found in God alone. This contention may be proved from the following *Qur'anic verses*:

Unto Him belongs the sovereignty of the heavens and the earth.

(*Surah Al-Furqan: 2*)

Blessed is He in Whose hand is the sovereignty and he is able to do all the things.

(*Surah Al-Mulk: 1*)

Glory to be Him in Whose hand is the dominion of all the things.

(*Surah Yasin: 83*)

The ordinances from heaven to earth

(*Surah Al-Sajdah: 5*)

The decision rests with none but Allah.

(*Surah Yusuf: 40*)

None can postpone the command of Allah.

(*Surah Ar-Ra'd: 41*)

Though sovereignty belongs to God yet this power is to be exercised by the Muslim Ummah as trust for God. The Qur'an calls the Muslims as the best Ummah raised for mankind ordering good things and forbidding indecency. They are the vicegerents of God and have to run their day to day business through mutual consultation. In small communities getting together becomes difficult for them. Hence they elect their representatives to act on their behalf. The representatives have to execute the will of God on behalf of the Muslim Ummah. Hence they are responsible not only to God but the Muslim Ummah as well.

The main difference between the Western concept of sovereignty and the Islamic concept of sovereignty is that according to the western concept human superior or representatives of the people make laws for the people whereas in Islam people or their representatives are not the source of law. Muslims have to submit to the Divine Law. Islamic government cannot issue directives which are repugnant to Qur'an and Sunna. In the West the main objective of the state is to please the people by the end of the Islamic state is the pleasure of God.

In the end it is to be observed that sovereignty over the entire universe belongs to God. As after the demise of the prophet, direct divine guidance has ceased, so Muslims have to run their day to day affairs through mutual counsel and in light of the injunctions of the Qur'an and Sunna. Hence they as vicegerents of Allah, exercise power as trust for

Allah in order to seek His pleasure and the pleasure of His creatures.

2.4 Relationship Between Law and Liberty

Before discussing the relationship between law and Liberty, it is necessary to define the two important terms of Political Science. Law may be defined as the sum of social influences regularly recognised and applied by the state in the administration of justice. Or to put it in the words of Holland, a law is a general rule of external action enforced by a sovereign political authority.

Liberty has two aspect. In its negative aspect, it means the absence of restraint upon the existence of those social conditions which in modern civilization are necessary guarantees of individual happiness. In its positive aspect, liberty may be regarded as the eager maintenance of that atmosphere in which men have the opportunity to be their best selves.

Two extreme views have been put forward regarding the relationship between law and liberty. According to the collectivists and the Idealists, there is no conflict between law and liberty. They regard the state as the embodiment of all reason and justice. Individuals according to these thinkers are imperfect and liable to error but state is perfect which through its laws leads its citizens to the development of their personality and their well-being. Hence every law of the state guarantees the liberty of individuals. In other words, laws do not curb the liberties of the individual, rather they enhance them.

The Individualists and the Anarchists regard law and liberty as two opposing things. Hence they cannot go hand in hand. As every law of the state curtails the liberty of the individual, hence they are against the very existence of the state. Though the Individualists retain the state as a necessary evil yet they are deadly against state interference. Both the schools of thoughts are of the opinion that the more the state interference through laws the lesser the liberties of the individuals.

Regarding the relationship between law and liberty both the schools of thought have gone to the extreme. The former has over-emphasised their case whereas the latter has under-estimated the state. It is not necessary that every law made by the state should protect and enhance the liberty of the individual. Laws made by selfish persons do not guarantee the liberty of individuals. Hence obedience to them is not freedom but slavery. On the other hand, it is also not correct to say that every law made by the state curtails the liberty of individuals.

Regarding the true relationship of law and liberty it is to be said that neither every law enhances individual liberty nor curtails it. It depends upon the nature and contents of law. Laws made by the representative government of the people having the support of the masses guarantee liberties. Laws made by despots may not necessarily enhance the liberty of an individual. Law and liberty are closely related if a law fulfills the following condition:

1. If a law protects the life or property of the citizens it cannot be opposed to individual liberty, rather it would enhance liberty.

2. Laws creating favourable conditions for the development of one's mental faculties and personality cannot be said to oppose the liberty of individual, e.g. law of sanitation, compulsory education, insurance and factory laws determining working hours, wages etc. do not curtail liberties; rather they enhance them.
3. Constitutional laws defining and restricting arbitrary powers of the government officials also enhance liberties of individuals.

Laws are closely related to liberty if they protect our rights or if they create favourable conditions for their enjoyment.

2.5 Rights and Duties: Their Relationship

A right is a claim recognised for some common good. To put it in simple terms, freedom of action is right. Holland says that right is one man's capacity of influencing the acts of others by means of opinion and force for the society. According to TH. Green, a right is a power claimed and recognised as contributory to common good. Herold J. Laski is of the opinion that rights are those conditions of social life without which no man can seek, in general, to be himself at his best.

A duty may be defined as an obligation to do or not to do something for the sake of others. A duty is something we owe to others as social beings.

2.5.1 Relation Between Rights and Duties

Rights and Duties are closely related. They are so much interdependent that they may be regarded as two faces of one and the same coin. To separate them means to debase and destroy the society. One can enjoy his rights only when he respects the rights of others. If one wants to develop his personality and take full advantage of his inner potentialities he must enable others to do the same. It has, therefore, rightly been said that the marriage of rights and duties leads to good citizenship and is essential for good government.

A healthy social life is not possible without the co-existence of rights and duties. If every body enjoys all the rights in a society but performs no duties, the result would be chaos and confusion. If a man, on the other hand, has duties but no rights, the outcome would be slavery. The existence of rights and duties and their strict observance is a must for a healthy society.

Rights and Duties are interdependent. They are the two faces of one and the same coin. If one looks at them from one's stand point they are rights and if seen from the stand point of another they are duties. When I claim to do something I also impose a corresponding duty on another man to enable me to enjoy my rights. Both rights and duties are social in nature and are essential conditions of life in a healthy society.

Rights are meant for serving one's personal ends. A man should enjoy his rights in such a way as not only to benefit himself alone but also benefit other members of the society. It means that rights and duties are interdependent and that every right implies a corresponding duty.

The state recognises our rights but mere recognition is not sufficient. It is the duty of the state to maintain and protect them. If somebody tries to violate them, the state will take action against him. If the state does not or cannot protect our rights, there will be no justification for its existence.

From the foregoing discussion, we may conclude that rights and duties are closely related. They always go hand in hand. We cannot conceive a right without a corresponding duty. Every right implies duty. It has rightly been said that a healthy social life is not possible without the co-existence of rights and duties.

2.6 Salient Feature of the 1973 Constitution of Pakistan

The present Constitution is the third constitution of the country which was drafted and passed by the National Assembly of Pakistan on April 10, 1973. It was authenticated by the president on April 12, 1973 and enforced on August 14, 1973. Following are the main characteristics of this constitution.

i. *Written Constitution*

The Constitution of 1973 is written with a preamble, 280 Article, 6 Schedules and a few Amendments. Political Usage's and Traditions are yet to emerge and develop side by side with the constitution of Pakistan.

Flexibility

The Constitution is neither too rigid like the American Constitution nor too flexible like the British Constitution. It can be amended if 2/3 majority of the total strength of the National Assembly approves an amendment in it and when the same is absented to by the Senate with majority of its total strength.

Republican Form of Government

According to the Constitution, Pakistan shall be an Islamic Republic. The Head of the State shall be elected by the parliament in a joint sitting for a term of five years. He may be re-elected for another term also.

Federal Form of Government

Pakistan shall be a Federation consisting of the provinces of Sind, Panjab, N.W.F.P and Baluchistan. Powers of the Federation have been enumerated in the Federal Legislative list part-I and II and residuary powers belong to the provinces Powers common to both the federal and the provincial Governments have been enumerated in the Concurrent List.

Parliamentary Form of Government

The Constitution provides for Parliamentary form of Government both at the centre and in the provinces. Both the Prime Minister and the Chief Ministers are held responsible to the National and Provincial Assemblies. They continue in office as long as they command confidence of the assemblies. They may be removed by the assemblies through a vote of No-Confidence.

vi. *Bicameral Legislature*

The Legislature will Bicameral. The Lower House is called the National Assembly directly elected by the people on the basis of one man one vote for a term of 5 years. The upper House is called the Senate elected by the Provincial Assemblies on the basis of Proportional Representation. The National Assembly is subject to dissolution but not the Senate.

vii. *Fundamental Rights*

The Constitution grants and protects the fundamental rights of the citizens of Pakistan. They include the right to life, property, profession, liberty of thought and expression, freedom of association, religion, equality of citizens etc. In case of their violation, the affected person may go to the Courts for seeking redress of his grievances.

viii. *Pakistan to be a Welfare State*

The Constitution reflects the spirit of a Welfare State. It provides that illiteracy shall be removed; educational and economic interests of backward classes and areas shall be promoted; just and human conditions of work shall be provided; prostitution, gambling and consumption of alcoholic liquor shall be prohibited and well-being of the people, irrespective of caste, sex, creed or race will be secured by raising their standard of living. Basic necessities of life like food, housing, clothing, education, and medical relief shall be provided to the citizens who are permanently or temporarily unable to earn their livelihood.

ix. *Independence of Judiciary*

Although the members of the judiciary are appointed by the president yet the powers to remove them from their offices have not been given to him for ensuring independence of judiciary. The judges can be removed by the president only when the Supreme Judicial Council of Pakistan so advises him. The Constitution also provides independence of the judiciary from the Executive.

2.6.1 *Islamic Provisions of the Constitution*

Following are the Islamic provisions of the Constitution of 1973:-

1. The name of the Republic shall be the Islamic Republic of Pakistan.
2. The constitution recognizes the sovereignty of Allah and Viceregency of Muslims to solve state problems. Islam shall be the state religion of Pakistan, the Constitution says. No law shall be made in the country which is repugnant to Qur'an and Sunnah and that all the existing laws are to be brought in conformity with the principles of Islam as laid down in the Qur'an and Sunnah.
3. For the realization of the above ends, an Islamic Council shall be constituted

which will advise and guide the Government in this respect.

4. Under the "Principles of Policy" the Constitution says that Muslims of Pakistan shall be enabled to understand Islam and lead their lives individually and collectively in accordance with the principles of Islam.
5. Teaching of Qur'an Islamiyat and Arabic language will be made compulsory.
6. Mosques, Usher and Zakat are to be recognised.
7. Riba, Prostitution, Gambling and other unethical practices are to be eliminated and the use of alcoholic liquor discouraged.
8. Bonds with Muslim countries are to be strengthened and efforts are to be made for Muslim Unity.

2.6.2 *The President of Pakistan*

Under the Constitution of Pakistan 1973, the President is the head of the state who shall represent the unity of the Republic. A candidate for the office of the president must fulfill the following qualifications:-

- 1 He must be citizen of Pakistan.
- 2 He must be a Muslim believing in the unity of God and finality of the prophethood of Muhammad (peace be upon him)
- 3 He must have attained the age of 45 years.
- 4 He must be a man of sound mind.
- 5 He must not have been declared an undischarged insolvent by a competent court.
- 6 He must not hold any profit of office.
- 7 His name must appear on the electoral roll of Pakistan.
- 8 He must not have been debarred to contest elections under an Act of the parliament.
- 9 He must fulfill all other qualifications laid down by an Act of the parliament.

2.6.2a *Election of the President*

The president is elected by the members of the parliament in its joint session (the National Assembly and the Senate). The poll shall be by secret ballot. Any candidate who secures the larger number of votes than the aggregate of his rivals shall be declared the president-elect. In case no candidate gets the required majority in the first poll, the one getting the smallest number of votes shall be eliminated from the poll and fresh poll shall take place. The process shall be repeated till one of the candidate gets the required number of votes. Election to the office of the president shall not be held earlier than 60 days and not later than 30 days before the expiry of the term of the president in office. In case the National Assembly has been dissolved, the election to fill in the office of the

president will be held within 30 days of the general election of the Assembly. The president shall hold office for a term of 5 years. He can be elected for another terms. (Powers of president are described in the portion relating to Eighth Amendment)

2.6.2b *Impeachment of the President*

The president may be removed from his office before the expiry of his term on the grounds of physical or mental infirmity, or gross misconduct or on a charge of violating the constitution or high treason. A notice to this effect may be given by 1/2 members of any house of the parliament to its presiding officer. The Speaker of the National Assembly shall send copy of the notice to the president within three days after its receipt. He will also summon a joint meeting of the two houses not earlier than 7 days and not later than 14 days after the receipt of the notice by him. The House shall investigate the case and the president shall have the right to appear before the house or send some one to represent him. If after consideration of the result of the investigation the parliament in its joint sitting passes a resolution with 2/3 majority of its total strength declaring that the president is not competent to hold office, he shall be deemed to have been removed from his office immediately after the declaration.

2.6.2c *Acting President*

If at any time the office of the president becomes vacant due to the death, resignation, impeachment, or if the president is sick or unable to perform his duties, then the Chairman of the senate will act as president. If he is also absent or unable to perform the functions then the Speaker of the National Assembly shall be the Acting President.

2.6.3 *The Prime Minister*

The Prime Minister of Pakistan is the Chief Executive of the Federation. He is elected by the Muslim members of the National Assembly. He is elected by the votes of the majority of the total members of the House. The Prime Minister may be removed from his office by the members of the National Assembly through a Motion of No-Confidence.

2.6.3a *Powers and Position of the Prime Minister*

The Prime Minister is the Chief Executive of the Federation. Under the Constitution he is the most powerful figure. His powers and functions may be described under the following heads:-

2.6.3b *As Leader of the Cabinet*

The Prime Minister is the leader and mouth-piece of his Cabinet. He is central to its formation, central to its life and central to its death.

2.6.3c *As Leader of the House*

The Prime Minister is the leader of the majority party and as such the leader of the National Assembly. He prepares the agenda of the House and introduces all the important bills. He defends the policies of government and answers questions and objections of the opposition in the National Assembly.

2.6.3d *As Chief Executive of the Federation*

The Prime Minister is virtually the working head of the state. All the appointments are made by him subject to the Eighth Amendment. The Ministers, members of different Commissions and Councils, Attorney General and Auditor General etc. are appointed by the Prime Minister.

2.6.3e *As Leader of the Nation*

As leader of the parliament he is also the leader of the Nation. So he is supposed to be a popular leader of the public. He must, therefore, know what to speak, when to speak and how to speak. He guides public opinion on all major issues.

2.6.3f *As Link Between the President and the Cabinet/Parliament*

The Constitution says that the Prime Minister shall keep the president informed on matters of internal and foreign policy and on all the legislative proposals the Federal government intends to bring before the parliament. It means that he is a link between the president and the Cabinet on the one hand and the president and the parliament on the other.

2.7 **The Parliament of Pakistan: Its Composition and Functions**

Under the present Constitution the legislature is bicameral consisting of the National Assembly and Senate. National Assembly is directly elected by the people and Senate is elected by the people and Senate is elected by the provincial Assemblies on the basis of proportional Representation through single transferable vote. Any candidate for the membership of the parliament must fulfill the following qualifications:-

1. He must be a citizen of Pakistan.
2. In the case of National Assembly, a candidate must have attained the age of 25 years and in the case of the Senate the candidate must have attained the age of 30 years.
3. In case of candidacy for National Assembly one's name must appear on the Electoral List anywhere in Pakistan and in case of candidacy for the Senate one's name must appear on the electoral list of the province he is going to represent in the senate.
4. A candidate cannot contest election for the membership of the parliament if he is a person of unsound mind and has been so declared by a competent court.

5. An undischarged insolvent cannot be a member of the parliament.
6. A person cannot be a candidate if he has ceased to be a citizen of Pakistan
7. A person who holds an office of profit in the service of Pakistan cannot be a candidate for membership to the parliament.
8. A person cannot contest election to the parliament if he has been debarred from contesting election to the parliament under an Act of the parliament.
9. He must fulfill any other qualifications laid down by any Act of the parliament.

2.7.1 Powers and Functions of the Parliament

Under the Constitution of 1973, the parliament has the following powers and functions:-

i. *Legislative*

The parliament can make laws on any matter included in the Federal Legislative List. Laws relating to such matters may also be amended or repealed by the parliament.

ii. *Power to Amend the Constitution*

The parliament has complete power to amend the Constitution. Any such bill must be initiated in the National Assembly and if passed with 2/3 majority of its total strength; it shall be sent to the Senate and if the Senate also passes it with absolute majority within 90 days, it shall be sent to the president. But if the Senate passes the Amendment bill with some amendments, it shall be considered by the National Assembly and if it passes it with 2/3 majority, it will be sent to the president for assent. If the bill is either rejected or not considered by the Senate within 90 days it will be deemed to have been rejected by the Senate.

iii. *Executive Powers*

The parliament also controls the executive. The Prime Minister and his Cabinet ministers are members of the parliament and sit in its meetings. They are collectively responsible to it. Any member of either house may put questions to them. The members of the House may invite the attention of the cabinet to all important issues through adjournment and privilege motions. Members of the National Assembly have more control over the executive for they not only elect the Prime Minister but they can also remove the Prime Minister from his office through a Motion of No-Confidence. In short, the parliament has full control over the Prime Minister and his Cabinet. He continues in office as long as he has the confidence of the National Assembly.

iv. *Financial Powers*

The parliament (National Assembly) is the custodian of the purse of the Nation. Every year the central govt. lays down before it the annual budget for approval. No new text or any matter relating to finance can be imposed by the central govt. without the sanction of the National Assembly.

v. *Judicial Powers*

The parliament in its joint sitting of the two Houses also exercises judicial powers when it has to consider an Impeachment Motion against the president.

vi. *Electoral Powers*

The parliament is also Electoral College for elections to different offices. The National Assembly elects its Speaker, Deputy Speaker and the Prime Minister. The Senate elects its Chairman and Vice-Chairman. Both the Houses elect the president of the Federation in their joint sitting.

vii. *General Powers*

The parliament has the power to direct the provinces in certain cases to enforce any Federal Law which relates to a matter specified in the Concurrent list. It may impose restriction on trade and commerce or intercourse between two provinces in public interest. Members of the parliament may bring in any personal, local, national or international issue to the parliament for discussion. Foreign policy and other policies of the government may also be brought under consideration.

2.8 The Supreme Court of Pakistan

The highest court in Pakistan is the Supreme Court which shall consist of a Chief Justice and as many other judges as may be determined by an Act of the parliament. Until so determined, the president shall fix the number of the judges. The Constitution says that a persons shall not be appointed as Judge of the Supreme Court unless:-

1. He is a citizen of Pakistan
2. He has for a period of (or for periods aggregating) not less than five years been a judge of a High Court. or
3. He has for a period of not less than fifteen years been an advocate of a High Court. The Chief Justice is appointed by the president and other judges are also appointed by him in consultation with the Chief Justice. A judge of the Supreme Court shall retire at the age of 65 years unless he sooner resigns or is removed from office subject to the constitution. A judge can neither practice before the same court after retirement nor can he be appointed to any profitable office under the government before the expiry of two years after his retirement. The president may seek the advice of the Supreme

Court on any question of law which he considers is of public importance. The Supreme Court has to tender its advice on the question.

2.9 Supreme Judicial Council of Pakistan

The Council that inquires into the capacity and conduct of the judges and issues a code of conduct for them is called the Supreme Judicial Council of Pakistan under Article 209 of the Constitution. It shall consist of the Chief Justice of Pakistan, two next senior most judges of the Supreme Court and the two most senior Chief Justices of High Courts.

Following are the functions of the Council:

1. It inquires into charges of mental or physical incapacity to perform his duties or gross misconduct of a judge of the Supreme Court, High Court, the Chief Election Commissioner and Auditor General.
2. The Council issues a code of conduct to be observed by judges of the Supreme Court and of the High Courts.
3. For the purpose of inquiring into any matter, the Council shall have the same powers as the Supreme Court has, to issue directions or orders for securing the attendance of any person or the discovery or production of any document. Any such direction or order shall be enforceable as if it had been issued by the Supreme Court. The president shall remove a judge from his office only on the recommendations of the Council.
4. The Supreme Judicial Council of Pakistan, like the Supreme Court of Pakistan, possesses the jurisdiction concerning contempt of court. It may punish any person under contempt of court.

2.10 Eighth Amendment: Background and Implication

In order to implement a power sharing plan, some fundamental changes were brought in the 1973 constitution which had been framed on the pattern of the parliamentary form of government. (This view of the Eighth Amendment has been taken from the articles of Dr. Safdar Mahmood, published in daily The News on November 23rd and 26th 1996.) The then President General Muhammad Zia Ul Haq ordered general elections for the National Assembly and the Provincial Assemblies on February 25 and 28, 1985 respectively. Before the newly elected assemblies could meet, the president promulgated an order on March 2 for the revival of the 1973 Constitution incorporating some key amendments with a view to re-define the President-Prime Minister future power relationship.

Under the Eighth amendment, the president was given wide discretionary powers such as:

1. The president will **appoint** the Prime Minister from amongst the members of the parliament, who will **enjoy** vote of confidence of the House within 60

- days,
2. The president, either on the advice of the prime minister or on his own, can order a national referendum on any issue of national importance,
 3. The president can dissolve the National Assembly on the advice of the prime minister or on his own, followed by general elections within 90 days under a caretaker government for the interim period,
 4. The president will have the power to appoint governors, the Chairman of the Joint Chiefs of Staff Committee, and the chiefs of the three armed forces;
 5. The president will have powers to appoint ministers, ministers of state and advisors, with the consultation of the prime minister. The president was to be the supreme commander of the armed forces.

The Eighth Amendment, was finally approved by the National Assembly in 1985 after much debate as a quid pro quo to lift the martial law from January 1, 1986. It introduced major changes of structural nature in the 1973 Constitution. These cannot be properly appreciated unless each amended article is compared with its original form.

Article 48

The original article envisaged that the president was to act in accordance with the advice of the prime minister in the performance of his presidential functions and that the prime minister's advice was binding on him. The president's order required the signatures of the prime minister for their validity. The Eighth Amendment, has tilted the balance of power in favour of the president. The article, as amended now, envisages that the president shall act in accordance with the advice of the cabinet or the prime minister in performance of his functions. The president, however, has been vested with the power to require the cabinet or the prime minister to reconsider the advice tendered to him either generally or otherwise: The president is to act in accordance with the advice tendered after reconsideration. Sub article 2 of the article empowers the president to act in his discretion in respect of any matter for which he is empowered by the Constitution. Validity of any act done by the president in the exercise of his discretion cannot be inquired into by any Court, tribunal or authority. Any advice tendered to the president by the cabinet, the prime minister, or any minister cannot be called in question on any ground.

When the president has dissolved the National Assembly, he would in his discretion appoint a date not later than 90 days, from the date of dissolution, for the holding of general elections to the National Assembly and would also appoint a caretaker cabinet. When the president in his discretion, or on the advice of the prime minister considers that any matter of national importance should be referred to a referendum in the form of a question that is capable of being answered either "Yes" or "No", he can do so.

Article 51

Before the said amendment, a person not less than eighteen years of age was entitled to vote. Now the age of voters has been raised to twenty-one years. Prior to the amendment, the National Assembly was to consist of 200 members to be elected by direct and free vote. Now the seats have been enhanced to 207. Specified religious communities such as Christians, Hindus, Sikhs, Buddhists and persons belonging to the 'Qadiani or Lahori Group have been allocated 10 seats. The members belonging to minority communities are to be elected on the basis of separate elections by direct and free vote in accordance with the law whereas, previously such members were elected by the members of the National Assembly.

Article 56

Sub-article 2 to 4 have been newly added to Article 56 which empower the president to send messages to either house with respect to a bill pending in the parliament or otherwise, and the respective house where such messages have been sent to is required to take the matter into consideration as required by the message. The president has also been empowered to address the first session of the parliament after each general elections and every first session of each year.

Article 58

The Eighth Amendment has empowered the president to dissolve the National Assembly in the following cases in exercise of his discretion:

1. when a vote of no-confidence has been passed against the prime minister and no other member of the national assembly is likely to command the confidence of the majority of the members.
2. when a situation has arisen in which the Federal Government cannot be carried on in accordance with the provisions of the Constitution and an appeal to the electorate becomes necessary.

Article 59

The changes brought about in this article by the Eighth Amendment are as follows: The number of Senate seats was enhanced from 63 to 87, 8 senators were to be elected from the Federally Administered Tribal Areas against 5 prior to the amendment while 5 additional seats were allocated to ulema, technocrats or other professionals from each province to be elected by the concerned provincial Assembly. Half of the members of each category were to retire after every three years, previously it was two years.

Articles 60

The term of office was extended from two to three years.

Article 75

Prior to the amendment the president was required to give his assent to a bill within 7 days after it had been presented to him and if he failed to do so, he was deemed to have assented thereto. Now the article envisages that the president is required to give his assent to the bill within 30 days. The president is also empowered to return a bill other than a money bill to the parliament with a message requesting that the bill, or any specified provision thereof, be reconsidered as well as any amendment specified. If the parliament, in a joint sitting, again passes the bill, it shall be deemed to have been passed by both the houses of parliament and the president will not withhold his assent thereto.

Article 90

Before the Eighth Amendment, the executive authority of the federation was to be exercised in the name of the president by the federal government consisting of the Prime Minister and the federal ministers which was required to act through the prime minister. After the amendment the executive authority has been vested in the president who is required to exercise it either directly or through officers subordinate to him, in accordance with the Constitution. The gist of the article is that even under this amended article the executive authority of the Federation has to be exercised by the parliament through its cabinet in the name of the president.

An important amendment effected in article 91 is that the prime minister is to hold office during the pleasure of the president, but the president has been debarred to exercise his power in this respect unless he is satisfied that the prime minister does not command the confidence of the majority of the members of the National Assembly in which case he would summon the National Assembly and require the prime minister to obtain a vote of confidence from the assembly.

Article 105

Before the Eighth Amendment, the governor of a province was required to act on and in accordance with the advice of the chief minister and such advice was binding him. After the amendment, it is provided that the governor shall act, in accordance with the advice of the cabinet or the chief minister. The governor, however, has been empowered to ask the cabinet to reconsider its advice. The governor is required to act in accordance with the advice tendered after reconsideration. The other amendment effected in this article is that after the dissolution of the Provincial Assembly, the governor shall appoint a caretaker government in his discretion but with previous approval of the president. The powers conferred on the governor by virtue of this Amendment, for dissolution of the provincial Assembly are similar to those conferred on the president for the dissolution of the National Assembly under Article 58.

Article 116

The power of the governor are similar in nature to the powers of the president under article 75.

Article 270A

This article indemnifies all the president's Orders, Ordinances, Martial Law Orders including the Referendum Order, made between July 5, 1977 and September 13, 1985. After the date the president's Orders, Martial Law Regulations, Martial Law Orders are to be confined only to making such provisions as are to facilitate or incidental to the revocation of the proclamation of July 5, 1977.

It can be safely concluded that the Eighth Amendment, framed with the motive of sharing powers, has brought about basic structural changes in the 1973 Constitution. The Eighth Amendment has also been interpreted as a safety valve against extra-constitutional intervention. The Eighth Amendment has been a subject of debate and controversy for more than a decade.

2.11 The Thirteenth Amendment and Abrogation of the Eighth Amendment

Pakistan's constitutional history took a new turn on April 2, 1997 as parliament unanimously scrapped three major powers vested in the president including his discretionary authority to dismiss an elected government and national assembly and appoint services chiefs.

The Thirteenth Amendment passed by Senate and National Assembly restores the competence of prime minister's office to take these decisions. The two houses of legislator, witnessed a rare show of unanimity by all parliamentary groups against the amendment introduced by General Zia in 1985 as a quid pro quo for restoring a quasi-democratic system. After the Thirteenth Amendment, the president has become a figurehead again-closer to the position assigned in the original constitution of 1973, Article 58 (2) b of the constitution, which provided discretionary power to the president to dissolve the National Assembly and dismiss the government, has been abolished. Its corresponding provision, Article 112 (2) b which vested similar powers in the governors to sack the provincial governments and assemblies, has also been struck off.

The words "in his discretion" have also been deleted from Article 243 (2), which provided for appointment of services chiefs by the president. This change implies that these appointments will now be made by him on the advice of the prime minister which will be binding.

Similarly, the phrase "in consultation with" occurring in Article 10 (1), which deals with appointment of governors, has been replaced by "on the advice of". It means the governors will now be appointed by the president on the binding advice of the prime minister.

The bill was first moved in the 87 member Senate where it secured 79 votes of all those present against none while in the 217-member National Assembly, 190 Mps voted

for it without even a single dissenting voice.

At the time of presenting the bill in the Senate, prime minister's advisor on law, explained that the total repeal of the controversial amendment would have hit the mention of Objectives Resolution and the Federal Shariat Court in addition to the affairs of minor details which had been incorporated in the constitution through the Eighth Amendment. Its total annulment, he said, might have caused a chaos.

Responding to a few objections raised by leader of the opposition, which included the mention of the name of General Zia ul Haq in the Constitution, it was said that the government would soon introduce a thorough constitutional package which would address minor problems about the powers of the president.

3. SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. Describe the view points of various scholars regarding the concepts of "State".
2. What is sovereignty? What does sovereignty mean in Islam?
3. Explain the relationship between law and liberty.
4. Explain the relationship between Right and Duty?
5. Explain the characteristics of the 1973 Constitution of Pakistan.
6. Explain the Powers and Position of the President of Pakistan before the Eighth Amendment.
7. Explain the Powers and Position of the President of Pakistan after the Eighth Amendment.
8. Explain the Powers and functions of the Parliament under the 1973 constitution.
9. Explain the Eighth Amendment with its background and implications.

4. SUGGESTED READINGS

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UNIT-16

FORMS OF GOVERNMENT

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1. OBJECTIVES

After reading this unit along with the suggested readings, you should be able to.

1. Explain the concept of unitary form of Government, its merits and demerits;
2. Elaborate the characteristics of Federation ;
3. Analyze the salient feature of parliamentary and presidential form of Government;
4. Point out that how welfare state work for the betterment of the community;
5. Elaborate democracy as form of Government and its strengths and failures.

2. SUMMARY OF THE MAJOR TOPICS

2.1 Unitary Form of Government

A unitary state is one in which the central or national government is supreme, possessing complete governmental power. In a unitary state the national government may and usually does, delegate many duties to cities, counties, or other local or regional units. However, this authority is delegated by an ordinary statute enacted by the national legislature - not by the constitution and it may be withdrawn as quickly as it was granted.

2.1.1 Merits of the Unitary Form of Government

In comparison with federal states, a unitary state enjoys some obvious advantages, including uniformity of laws and administration, which enable the nation as a whole to adapt to new conditions and problems. In a federal system, some individual states may be progressive, while others may pursue antiquated and harmful policies (e.g. in education, public welfare, or health). On the other hand a unitary state may suffer from over centralised administrative control of local affairs. Due to the vigorous checks, administration in the unitary form of govt. is clean which guarantees for good governance. The strength of the centralised Unitary form of govt. has always been strong especially in foreign policy and national defence. Since, it is simple in organisation, therefore very much effective for executing laws and policy; and it has minimum expenditure over state governance.

2.1.2 Demerits of the Unitary Form of Government

Of course, unitary form of govt. is effective for small, non ethnic population states but it is particularly ill suited to large or culturally heterogeneous nations in which local problems usually require special rather than standardised policies. Too much concentration of power makes the central government despotic. The concentration of power in the centre makes the local governments unable to have the initiative and time to vote to local affairs without getting prior approval from the central govt. unitary form of govt. suits only to a small country, whereas, large territory, with diversity of culture, language and tradition, the federal form of govt. is more suitable.

2.2 Federal Form of Government

Federation is the form of government in which supreme powers in the state are distributed between the central government and the federating units, making each government autonomous within its own sphere. It has rightly been observed that federation is a political contrivance intended to reconcile national unity and powers with the maintenance of the state rights. A federation comes into existence when sovereign independent states agree to form a single strong state or when a unitary state splits itself into units and then combine these to form a union.

The conditions favourable for the creation and maintenance of a federation are the

geographical contiguity among the federating units, the desire for local autonomy and national unity, community of culture, religion, interests and a high sense of political consciousness.

2.2.1 *Characteristics of Federation*

Following are the characteristics of a federation:-

a. *Supremacy of the Constitution*

In a federation the constitution must be the final authority for resolving any issue between the federation and the federating units. It must define their rights and position. The supremacy of the constitution is maintained in the following three ways which must be taken into account:

1. that the constitution must be written;
2. that it should be rigid one so that the thickly populated units may not amend it to suit their own interest;
3. that supremacy must lie in the constitution amending body.

b. *Distribution of Powers*

In a federation the powers of the central and local governments should judiciously be distributed and each should derive its powers from the constitution so that there is no clash between the two. Usually three modes are adopted for the distribution of powers between the federation the federating units:

1. Powers of the centre are enumerated in the constitution and residuary powers are given to the local governments;
2. Powers of the federating units are enumerated in the constitution and residuary powers are given to the centre;
3. Powers of both the governments are listed in the constitution and powers common to both are listed in a third list called the concurrent list. Every state follows mode of the distribution of powers according to its peculiar conditions. Whatever mode is to be adopted, but the point is that powers of the centre and federating units must clearly be defined and determined so as to avoid clash between the two.

c. *Supremacy of the Judiciary*

In order to preserve the supremacy of the constitution and prevent the centre or the federating units from encroaching upon the rights of one another, the federal judiciary should be supermen and independent. It should be the custodian of the constitution. The power to interpret the constitution should only lie with the federal judiciary. It should have the power to declare any executive or legislative measure ultra vires and therefore, null and void if it contravenes the provisions of the constitution.

d. *Bicameral Legislature*

Federation is regarded as a political contrivance intended to reconcile national unity and powers with the maintenance of state rights. It, therefore, consists of bicameral legislature. One house represents the entire nation on the basis of one man one vote. The other house represents the federating units where equal representation is given to all irrespective of their sex or population. Pakistan experimented uniameralism in Federation up to December 1971 but with complete failure. Apart from the above characteristics, a Federation is also characterised by dual government, double citizenship, equality among the component units and a high sense of political consciousness.

2.3 **Parliamentary Form of Government**

The parliamentary or Cabinet system is one in which the legislative and executive branches of the government are closely related and interdependent in the performance of certain functions like policy-making and budgeting. In this system, members of the cabinet are also members of the legislature and as such responsible to it. The legislature or parliament is central to its life and death.

2.4 **Presidential Form of Government**

Presidential system is the one in which the executive and legislative organs of government are independent of one another. In this system members of the executive have neither seats in the legislature nor they are held responsible to it. Both the organs of government have to work within their own sphere of powers and no one can interfere in the affairs of the other except as provided in the constitution.

2.5 **Salient Features of the Two Systems**

Following are the characteristics of the parliamentary and presidential systems of government

- a. In parliamentary system the Prime Minister is the head of government who exercise actual powers of the government with the aid and advice of his cabinet. The head of state who may either be a president or a king. But in presidential system the president is the actual wielder of powers. He exercises all the executive powers himself.
- b. In parliamentary system the members of the Cabinet are the colleagues of the Prime Minister. At least in theory he is the first among the equals. But in presidential system members of the Council of Ministers are the agents or were advisors of the president. He is their boss.
- c. In Cabinet system the cabinet is usually homogeneous, i.e. its members must belong to one and the same party and they must be politicians of long stay and

experience. But in presidential system it is not at all necessary that the members of the Council of Ministers must belong to one party. Usually they are technocrats.

- d. In parliamentary system the ministers have seats in the legislature and they are always held responsible to it -both individually and collectively. But in presidential system the ministers are either the members of the legislature nor are they responsible to it.
- e. The ministers in the parliamentary system attend the meetings of the legislature, participate in its debates and discussions and guide and control its deliberations. They can easily get legislation done through their party members who are in majority. But in presidential form of government neither the ministers attend the meetings of the legislature nor take part in its deliberation. They are often helpless when the legislature refuses to pass the laws they are indeed of.
- f. Parliamentary system ensures the supremacy of the parliament and the presidential system ensures executive predominance. Thus it is said that England is ruled by the parliament and America is ruled by the president.
- g. In parliamentary system the Prime Minister is the leader of both the legislature and the executive. He guides legislation and enforces it. But under presidential system power is divided, particularly legislative power is hidden away in some committees which makes responsibility hidden and divided which in fact is no responsibility.
- h. In time of peace the Cabinet system is more efficient. Every thing can be considered with due care and attention. But in emergency it may prove well whereas presidential form of government is efficient both in time of peace and war.

2.6 Welfare State and its Functions

Modern Welfare State is a via media between Individualism and Collectivism. Herald J. Laski may be regarded as the exponent of the theory of Welfare State. Welfare State seeks to eliminate the evils of Individualism and Socialism and aims at general well-being of the citizens, it tries to provide them with the basic necessities of life along with their political liberties.

2.6.1 Aims and Objectives of Welfare State

The main objectives and functions of the modern welfare state may briefly be described under the following heads:-

a. Defence

- The compulsory functions of modern welfare states include the internal law and order in the state, administration of justice, defence of the state from foreign

aggression and the foreign affairs of the state.

b. *Economic Functions*

Modern welfare state regulates industries and nationalises key industries and natural resources so that exploitation is minimised and production increased. It also tries to encourage private enterprises to invest their capital in private sector with a view to increase national production. In other words welfare state believes in mixed economy. It takes steps for minimising the differences between the low paid and the highly paid. It also regulates trade and commerce.

c. *Planning*

Welfare state also undertakes social and economic planning for raising the standard of living of the common man. But a modern welfare state does not plan totally like the communist states. By planning alone it can keep private and public industries and enterprises at full employment and production.

d. *Welfare Activities*

Welfare state promotes that general welfare of all the citizens. It seeks to free the workers, the unemployed, the poor and the needy from the fear of want and social miseries. It provides facilities for free education, medical relief, unemployment relief, old age pension and insurance. It endeavors to supply the basic necessities of life to all.

e. *Political Liberties*

Along with the general welfare of the people, it also takes into consideration the individual liberties, of the people. It tries to enhance the political liberties of the citizens.

The importance of welfare state lies in the fact that many states in modern times claim to be welfare states. The programmes of these states have added much to the development of democracy and economic prosperity of the common man. But welfare state is objected to on the ground that it is opposed to liberty and democracy due to its interference. The production in nationalised industries is also likely to decrease due to bureaucracy. It is also said that such a state is expensive and therefore unsuitable for developing countries. But being a via media between Individualism and Collectivism, it has incorporated the merits of both the systems. Therefore, it is still regarded as the best state.

2.7 Democracy

The word "democracy" is derived from Greek words, "demos" and "kratos" which mean 'the people' and 'the rule'. Democracy has been defined differently by different experts. Aristotle, defined it as the rule of the mob. Seeley defined it as "a government in which every one has a share". In the book Principles of Political Sciences, Dicey defines Democracy as a form of government in which "the governing body is a comparatively large fraction of the

entire nation." Bryce says, "The word democracy has been used ever since the time of Herodotus to denote that form of government in which the ruling power of a state is largely vested, not in any particular class or classes but in the members of the community as a whole." He further adds that the ruling power in the community belongs to the majority, which is the only way of determining the will of the community. Gettel defines it as "the form of government in which the mass of the population possesses the right to share in the exercise of sovereign power." Abraham Lincoln said that democracy is the Government of the people by the people and for the people.

2.7.1 *Kinds of Democracy*

There are two kinds of Democracy:

Direct Democracy

Indirect Democracy

2.7.1.1 *Direct democracy*

In direct democracy people express their opinion in a mass gathering and participate in govt. affairs directly rather than through their representatives. The concept of direct democracy was existed in ancient Greece and Rome city-states where people of the state gathered in one place and had to solve their political issues. In modern times we have some examples of direct democracy in the small cantons of Switzerland, namely, Appenzell, Uri, glarus and Unterwalden.

2.7.1.2 *Indirect Democracy*

When people express their will through elected body as their representatives to make laws and government the country, it is called an indirect or represented democracy.

2.7.2 *Aspects of Democracy*

Mazhar-ul-Haq in his book "Principles of Political Sciences" explains different aspects of democracy as: "Political, Economic and Social Democracy. Ordinarily, democracy is understood in its political aspect. In this sense, democracy means the sovereignty of the people and the enjoyment of political rights and liberty by every adult citizen. It means that everyone must have one vote, have the right to stand for election, and hold public office, if properly qualified for it. The citizen a must also enjoy the rights of freedom of opinion, speech, association and other civil liberties. In this way the people will choose and control their representatives. Political democracy makes the government and state democratic.

Economic democracy exists when there is no class distinction in a country, when wealth is equally distributed in the society, and when the society is based on the principle, "from each according to his capacity, to each according to his needs". Such a democracy exists only in a communist society, it recognises that every citizen right to the enjoyment of life. Economic democracy makes the society democratic.

Social democracy is based on the principle of social justice and equality. It exists where there are no prejudices of class, caste, colour or creed, and the people mix and mingle with each other freely, regardless of their health, birth or social status. All citizens—men and women, rich and poor, official or not mix with each other on equal terms in social life. In other words, man is valued as man and nothing else. Social democracy exists where everyone is friendly, genial and good 'mixer'. Such a democracy colour, class, nationality or race, although differences of wealth and income may continue to it.

Democratic Government: Democratic State and Democratic Society. Another useful distinction is made between a democratic state, government and society. It is not necessary that the three may be identical and co-existent. A democratic government is one which is controlled by and responsible to the electorate. A democratic state means the mode of appointing, controlling and dismissing a government. A democratic government is not possible without a democratic state, but a democratic state can be without a democratic government. The characteristics of a democratic government are: elected, representatives, majority rule, enforceable responsibility of the government; while those of the democratic state are universal adult franchise, political rights and civil liberties, free press, effective influence of the public opinion, etc.

A democratic society is one in which there are no distinctions and prejudices of caste, class, colour or creed, and persons enjoy equal rights and privileges, it is a society based on the brotherhood of man, in which the common man is a determining factor, it has faith in the personality of man. It is possible that a democratic society may not have a democratic state. For instance, the Muslim countries have a democratic society, but very few of them have a democratic state and government. Hindu society is undemocratic because it is caste-ridden, but India is a democratic state with a democratic government.

In spite of these distinctions, they are interdependent. A democratic government can exist and thrive only when it is supported by a democratic state in a democratic society.

3. *Conditions for Democracy*

Existence of the following conditions make a state or government truly democratic.

1. Free expression of opinion and the existence of opposition
2. The right to change the government
3. Equality of law.
4. Protection of the individual rights
5. Opportunities for the common man
6. Terror free society
7. The citizens of democratic society must be enlightened, vigilant, tolerant, responsible, and educated.
8. Organization and Leadership

2.7.4 *Charateristics of Democracy*

Charateristics for the success of democracy are as follows:

1. Government of the majority.
2. Responsible government.
3. Freedom of expression.
4. The right to vote.
5. Liberty and Equality.
6. Faith in the common man.
7. It is a government for the people of the people and by the people.
8. Every body has the share to participate in the government.

2.7.5 *Attacks on Democracy*

Both in theory and practice, democracy has been subjected to severe criticism. Critics have pointed out the following defects, disadvantages and deficiencies in the democratic form of government

- a. Democracy need education of common man to understand the complexity of the govt. and to participate in the decision making. In the third world countries people do not take interest in govt. affairs due to lack of education. This lack of education on the part of common citizens usually turns the rulers despotic.
- b. Critics argue that democracy is a govt. mostly run by the ignorant and unintellectuals. Carlyle, says that democracy is the rule of fools. Some say that the masses can be influenced by passions and prejudices, as they are uneducated and illiterate, they can also cast their vote unintelligently in favour of candidates who do not possess reasons.
- c. According to Mazar-ul-Haq, Democracy is based on several wrong principles, such as the political equality of all men, one man one vote. Vote of an intelligent man has the same value as of an ignorant. Votes are counted, not weighted. Democracy bases on quantity but not on quality.
- d. Ideal democracy needs good citizenship having interest to participate in the govt. affairs, ready to sacrifice personal again for public natures and to understand government policies. But it has been observed that common citizens of the undeveloped society are too selfish, self-centered and majority of the people are not educated.
- e. Lecky says, "Democracy ensures neither good government nor grater liberty. In the book "The Principles of Political Science" by Mazhar ul Haq. Maine and Lecky pointed to that the ordinary people are conservative, petty-minded and jealous. They are bound by customs, and prejudices, and old ways of living and thinking. They distrust progress and originality To place political power in their hands, as democracy does, is to curb and even destroy the liberty and opportunity for progress for those few talented persons who are above the average level of humanity. Lecky and Maine gave several examples of tyranny

of the majority, e.g. the poisoning of Socrates by the Athenian democracy. The 'colour bar' in the USA, racialism in Western democracies are the dark side of democracy.

- f. Modern democracy is based on capitalism which by and large goes in favour of the richer people. Even Pakistan is a democratic state but it has been governed by the landlords, industrialists, and big businessmen since its inception. Mostly parliamentary members of UK, France, Italy, Germany, Spain, India, USA etc. come from the richer classes and only they can bear heavy expenses on election which is out of question for an ordinary person.
- g. Political parties in a democratic state use all means—fair and unfair—to win the election. Professor Barker in this regard remarks that when "all is said and done, it means the rule of the few manipulators who can collect suffrages in their own favour with the greatest success."
- h. Sir Henry Maine criticizes that popular governments lack stability which are usually toppled-down by mobs and armies. He adds, this form of government does not have a long future. History reveals that there are revolts and revolution in many democratic governments in several parts of the world.

2.7.7 *Defence of Democracy*

If there is criticism, there are also strengths of democracy. Some of the merits of democracy are given here briefly. For detail understanding students are requested to study the suggested books given at the end of the unit.

1. Government of the people for the people and by the people
2. It provides social, political and economic equality
3. It stands for efficient govt. as it comes through a popular mandate
4. It educates people politically and socially through participation in govt affairs, election and discussion.
5. Popular mandate also guarantees stability of the govt.
6. It upholds the theory of decentralization of power
7. Authority in democratic govt. rests with the responsible people as they are elected by their fellow citizen for a shorter period, whereas authority in kingship is perpetual and not given by the people
8. It encourages patriotism among the people by allowing them to participate in the govt. affairs.

3. SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

Define Unitary form of government and explain its merits and demerits.

Define Federal form of government and explain its characteristics. Also comment on the climatic and geographic conditions that suit to Federal form of government.

3. Elaborate the concepts of Parliamentary form of govt. and Presidential form of govt. Also explain the salient feature of the two.
4. How welfare state aims at the well being of the people. Explain the various functions of the Welfare state.
5. What is Democracy. Elaborate the various aspects of Democracy.
6. Explain the conditions, characteristics, merits and demerits of Democracy.

4. SUGGESTED READINGS

Rodee, Anderson and Christol (1967), Introduction to Political Science, Third Edition, International Student Edition McGraw-Hill Inc. Japan.

Mazhar-Ul-Haq (1976), Principles of Political Science, Publishers and Booksellers 17, Urdu Bazaar, Lahore

Dr. Muhammad Sarwar (1996), Introduction to Political science by 8th Edition, Al-Hijaz Printers, Lahore

A.C. Kapur, 16th Edition (1887), Principles of Political Science, 18th ed. S. Chand and Company (Pvt.) Ltd. Ram Nagar, New Delhi, India.

UNIT-17

BRANCHES OF THE GOVERNMENT

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OBJECTIVES

After reading this unit along with the suggested readings, you should be able to:

1. Explain how the different matters of state functions are performed;
2. Narrate the philosophy of legislative and highlight the kind; difference between unicameral and bicameral legislature its organization and their merits and demerits, functions and duties;
3. Discuss the executive branch of the government, its types organization, merit and demerits;
4. Point out that how welfare state work for the betterment of the community;
5. Explain judiciary and the rule of law, organization of judiciary its function and power.

2. SUMMARY OF THE MAJOR TOPICS

2.1 Branches of the Government

Generally executive authorities are considered as government by the ordinary people; but if we study deeply the Organization or structure of government, then we shall see three important branches of a government which are functioning in their respective spheres and exercising totally different types of powers in relation to state affairs. Political scientists and thinkers have recognized these three state functions as the law-making, the law-enforcement and the law-adjudication. These three branches of government in a modern state are as under:

1. The Legislature -- to exercise legislative power or make laws;
2. The Executive -- to exercise executive powers or law enforcement;
3. The Judiciary -- to exercise judicial powers or to make judicial settlements.

Basically, these three branches of government perform completely separate and different functions according to the nature of their work. Thus, in democratic governments, it is inevitable to keep these institutions within their respective limits without intermixing their jurisdictions so that they may work separately and independently. The purpose of such independence and separation is to avoid concentration of powers in a single department because it is feared that in case of concentration of powers with a single institution, there will be dictatorial and despotic rule. These three departments of the government are functioning differently under different systems either with full separation or mixedly in various systems of governance e.g. presidential or parliamentary system, federal or unitary system and autocratic or dictatorial system.

Political philosophers have presented the theory of separation of powers to save the independence of all these institutions. In ancient times Aristotle had divided political power in three parts but had not made any proper distinction amongst them. John Locke in his book titled "Two Treatises of Government-1690", had emphasized that the legislature, the executive and the judiciary should not be in the hands of a single persons so that people's freedom and rights may be secured in a better way. Montesquieu is the person who vehemently advocated the theory of separation of powers. He said that it is impossible to protect the freedom and independence of people without separating the legislature and executive. Similarly, the judiciary should also be separated from the legislature and executive so that people may complain against the excesses of the executive to the judiciary. Blacke Stone, the English political thinker had also promoted similar ideas. All political philosophers who had emphasized the separation of powers actually worked for the liberty and freedom of individual from the repressive and cruel powers of state and the despotic governments in the name of state interest or state himself. In grammatical sense, the theory of separation of powers is not practicable. However, it can be implemented under certain limitations, checks and balances, to achieve the fundamental objective of this theory which is to provide maximum liberty and good governance to individual. There is not a single example of absolute and complete

separation of powers of the three branches of government in the present day state systems.

It was the American constitution in which the Theory of Separation of Powers was first incorporated but in fact these powers are inter-related and interdependent due to the system of checks and balances so as to contain each institution from becoming recalcitrant and rebellious. Though the separation of powers is proclaimed and propagated but practically it is impossible to make complete and total separation of powers because in that case there is a possibility of break-down and total collapse of the system itself. Basically, these three departments of the government are an organic whole and act like a human body. As all parts of a human body contribute for success in our life similarly every department of the government is dependent on the other leading to prosperity and welfare of a state. There is no hard and fast rule to make complete separation of powers, but if it is implemented with a spirit of tolerance and cooperation in the state interest with flexibility and elasticity, then the state will benefit a lot. However it must be kept in view that perfection in any system can be realised only in dream or imagination. It is also pertinent to mention that for efficient and proper functioning of state machinery and government departments, some functional and administrative expertise and specialization is a necessary condition which may be secured to some extent only by separating various state departments. It also provides some measure of accountability, and checks and balances to restrain the misuse of power due to concentration of power in a single individual.

Now we shall discuss these three branches of the government separately to clearly understand the concept, organization and functions of all the three state organs.

2.2 The Legislature

In a modern democratic state, legislature is more important institution than the other two because only this institution is the representative of the people's and sovereignty. In ancient times the legislature was neither a separate department nor it was a state practice to establish such a legislative department or institution. The ruler of a state was in complete control of administrative affairs and he did legislation according to the requirements of the time and his own expediencies. The words of the absolute sovereign were law. The principle of "Might is Right" was prevalent everywhere. In general, the laws were based on the commands of God, customs and traditions or on the principles of nature itself. But with the development of civilization gradually, the concept of legislation evolved and started being followed. Initially, the parliament was ordinary peoples' representatives body, nor was it empowered to perform important functions. The vested interests were dominant, but after the French Revolution, popular representation system was introduced to some extent. In the beginning, the legislative powers of the Parliament were limited but with the flourishing of democracy, the powers of the individual rulers were curtailed and the powers of the legislative assemblies were increased. Thus, with the passage of time, legislatures have grown into competent bodies

to legislate on all spheres of state functions because the legislature is peoples representative body responsible to and accountable before them. It is only due to this role that legislature is treated as the most important organ of state. British parliament is the oldest parliament and is known as the mother of all the parliaments of the world and the originator of the parliamentary system. Now-a-days, legislature is treated as the supreme body and the creator of the other two organs of the state where systems are based on written constitutions. Existence of an enacted law is a precondition for taking any action or making any change in the prevailing order, and it is impossible to take an executive action or deliver any judgement or prosecute without it. Gilchrist has compared the three organs of the state as under:-

"The legislative authority forms the major premises; the judiciary the minor; and the executive, the conclusion... As the major premises is more important than the executive or judiciary."

20 However, in the present political structures and systems, it is very difficult to prove the supremacy of any one organ of the state over the others due to their inter-related, coordinated and over-lapping roles in the prevalent political systems and constitutional structures.

2.2.1 *Forms and Organisation of the Legislature*

The legislature is regarded as the representative of the whole nation. Hence to maintain its national character it is necessary that all segments of the society must be represented in a proper way. The organisational structure of the legislature depends upon the constitution of the state. It determines the form of the legislature, i.e. whether it will be Unicameral (single house legislature) or Bicameral (two houses Legislature). The legislatures of different countries are known by different names, but their functional similarity is an accepted fact with minor variations in their powers or procedures. In Britain, Commons (Lower House) and the House of Lords (Upper House). In the USA, the legislature is named as the Congress constituted by the House of Representatives and the Senate as lower and upper house respectively. In our country, Majlis Shura (Parliament) is the legislature at national level with the National Assembly and the Senate as lower and upper houses.

In case of a Bicameral legislature, the popularly elected house is generally known as the Lower House or the Second Chamber which is generally constituted on the basis of equal number of members from the federating units. But in a unitary system of governance as in Great Britain, the upper house is composed on the basis of other considerations including hereditary members, professionals, experts and persons of distinction in their national life for whom it is not easily possible to be elected on the basis of popular franchise.

Presently representation system is based on the division of population on regional or areas basis divided in electoral constituencies of approximately equal population for the members of popularly elected house or generally for lower house. The number of

members is different in different countries according to their respective populations and constitutional requirements. Procedures regarding election of member also vary as direct or indirect according to the constitutional structures of different states. Although the systems of representation vastly differ in different states, but one thing is common that the lower houses are ordinarily composed on the basis of population through election for a particular and fixed term. In Federal and Unitary systems totally different patterns are adopted for the composition of Upper houses. It is the general view of the majority of the political scientists that a legislature and legislation will be more effective if it represents all sections, interest groups and classes of the people in a state.

The role of legislature is a very important factor in the efficient and effective performance of a government. However, it has not been possible so far to agree upon a uniform term for the life of an elected parliament in various prevalent political systems e.g. two, four or five years etc. But there is consensus on the point that the term should be fixed and reasonable. It should not be too long to make people suffer under the repression of discredited representatives who have lost the confidence of the majority due to their poor performance; nor should it be too short, depriving the people's representatives of the opportunity to play their democratic role in a proper way. In different countries the upper houses are generally of permanent nature with a continued process of partial change in their membership at regular intervals. But the term of Lower houses or popularly elected houses is fixed e.g. two years in America, five years in Great Britain, India and Pakistan. It varies in different states according to their respective constitutions. In a parliamentary system, however, the popularly elected houses may be dissolved at any time on the advice of the leader of the house or when no political party in the house is in a position to form government, or even just to provide another opportunity for the fresh mandate of the popular sovereign i.e. people of the country before the completion of the tenure of the government. In a few systems, the Heads of the State are vested with the power to dissolve the popularly elected house under some provision of their respective constitutions before the expiry of the term to appeal to the electorate for fresh mandate. In a democracy, elections are the only barometer to measure the people's wishes and trends which are necessary for effective legislation. In case of a longer term of parliament it is feared that the legislative process can not be adjusted according to changing circumstances and times due to conservative behaviour of the representatives while in case of a shorter tenure the representatives are not able to concentrate on their legislative role due to preparation for next elections.

As already stated, legislatures are of two kinds, namely Unicameral and Bicameral. Unicameral and Bicameral legislatures have their own merits and demerits. All the countries of the world have adopted legislative systems according to their own wishes and requirements. There are arguments for and against both the systems. No system can be treated as perfect and free of faults. In the early days of parliamentary democracy a single house legislature was not preferred but now-a-days the performances have been changed according to changed times and circumstances. In general terms, Unicameral

system is liked in small states and Bicameral system is considered suitable for large sized and federal states consisting of a variety of communities and population groups having different cultural and historical background. Bicameral system flourished in Britain but the other states adopted it due to its peculiar advantages and merits. A Bicameral house is treated as a strong barrier in the way of hasty and emotional legislation while a unicameral house needs the most experienced and patient legislators to make reasonable and effective laws. As laws affect everyone in a state, hence every section of population should have proper representation in the legislature.

2.2.2 *Merits and Demerits of Bicameral and Unicameral Legislatures*

No legislative body of the world can be tenured perfect in its functions and objectives. Unicameral and Bicameral legislatures are in vogue indifferent countries of the world. Both the forms have been experimented in different democratic states from time to time, but even after such experimentation it is impossible to pronounce either of the two types a complete success in legislation. A brief account of merits and demerits of these systems are given below so to evaluate their performance in all respects:-

As laws affect the lives of the entire population of a state, hence they must be thoroughly deliberated and discussed before their enactment and implementation. This requirement is generally fulfilled in a bicameral system where every piece of legislation has to be discussed with due care and caution due to totally different nature of the membership of the two houses. However, hasty and emotional legislation is possible by a unicameral house in the presence of brute majority of the ruling political party. But time factor is destroying the performance of both the systems by unnecessary delay in a bicameral legislature or by hasty and expeditious passage of bills or legislative proposals in a Unicameral House. A second chamber hesitant to pass a piece of legislative may apply delaying tactics or may suggest some amendments in the draft passed by the lower house thereby damaging the efficiency of the system in cases of urgency and national emergencies demanding early legislation.

Bicameral legislature provides equitable representation of different national interest classes, minorities and professional groups like capitalists, trade unions, industrialists, educationists and peoples of special interest etc. But in a unicameral house only popular vote decides the composition and of the elected representatives. They also represents liberal and conservative schools of thoughts. In bicameral system each house can check the despotism of the other but in a single house, the brute majority of a party may convert the system from democracy to dictatorship. Bicameralism makes possible the election of some experts in some specialized fields which is impossible otherwise. Their distinction in some fields specific life and specialized experience can enrich the system. The Federal system of governance proper provides representation to federating units and provinces. All this is not possible in a single house legislative system.

It is said that there are no voices in democracy. Therefore, it should be represented by a single house. There is no need of Bicameralism because it divides the responsibility

and is against the spirit of unity and sovereignty. In two houses, there will be dead-locks and discords. If the second house agree to everything then it is superfluous; if otherwise, it may become mischievous. The duplication in functions results in mere wastage of time and money. In case of difference of interests between the two houses, the business, of legislation will be delayed. An ideal second house is non-existent due to diversity in human thinking. Owing to its conservative nature, second house generally obstructs progressive legislation. A unicameral legislature is preferred as it represents common interests and is expected to pass laws expeditiously. The defects of unicameralism can be corrected in due course by using veto, delaying the approved of bills by the head of the state and by returning bills for reconsideration by the house. The party system has also helped to promote unicameralism in federal states by changing voting pattern on party lines. The single house system is simple as compared to Bicameralism which is complex during the process of legislation, and often creates deadlocks.

In the present day world, in most of the states Bicameralism is in vogue; is being practiced successfully and hence preferred due to maximum participation from all walks of life. Bicameralism is therefore preferred single chamber democratic system.

2.2.4 Functions and Duties of the Legislature

The legislatures of different states perform their functions according to their own constitutional schemes and in live with their secular national aspirations and specific concepts about democracy. In some states, the legislatures are merely consultative bodies and they are not empowered to properly represent the wishes of their people regarding law-making as generally assumed by the democratic word legislatures. The major and important functions of a democratic legislature are as under:-

- i. Law-making/legislation;
- ii. Administrative functions
- iii. Financial functions
- iv. Judicial functions;
- v. Electoral functions;
- vi. Making constitutional amendments;
- vii. Accountability functions;
- viii. Special functions

To understand these functions clearly a brief account of each function a legislature in a democratic system is given below:

The main function of every legislature is to make, amend and repeal laws to adjust them according to changed situations or to fit in the prevailing national requirements. A draft law is presented before the legislature in the form of a bill or a legislative proposal and it becomes a law after going through several stages of debate and deliberations in various committees of the legislature and is finally approved by the legislature itself. The assent of the Head of the State is also a pre-condition before its implementation by the

executive organ. In case of an ambiguity or controversy these acts of parliament are interpreted by the superior courts to fill the gaps and flaws pointed out at implementation stage by executive. In democratic states legislatures being peoples representative bodies are given financial control, as the people have the first right to determine their financial priorities for their welfare and betterment through their elected representatives.

Generally the legislature has the inherent right to check the efficiency and performance of the administrative machinery of the governments through legislative control or by passing vote of Censure or No Confidence. It can curtail the administrative powers of a particular department through public accountability and by checking its dictatorial trends. The legislature has the power to change the basic framework of the government by making changes and amendments in the constitutional structure. Finally it is pertinent to mention that a legislature can control the executive and the judiciary by curtailing their powers or by other strict measures.

In parliamentary systems, legislatures are practically sovereign and supreme because the cabinet or executive is completely responsible before the legislature and even a cabinet's survival is only upto the pleasure and confidence of the legislature. Otherwise, a vote of no confidence/candal a death blow to the cabinet. But in a presidential system all the three organs are mutually controlled through the system of checks and balances.

2.3 The Executive

The second organ of government is the executive. The term executive includes all the officers of the government who execute the laws made by the legislature. The whole administration of the state revolves around it. It implements and executes the policies and orders or will of the peoples representatives through laws enacted by them in accordance with the wishes of their electorate. It includes all government functionaries except the legislature and the judiciary. In other words executives the head of the state, ministers, advisers as well as the entire organization of the Civil Service at all levels. It may be said that the executive is the aggregate of all the public service functionaries who are involved in the executive of the will of the state which is expressed and formulated in terms of legislative enactments and laws. In general the executive is composed of the Chief Executive, Head of the State, his ministers and advisers, who usually make policies and supervise their implementation as imagined and planned by them through the institution of the Civil Service which in the present democratic states consist of regular employees of the state who run different departments and organizations of the state. All state departments are active components of the state machinery and their failure may cause the failure of the government. The organ of the executive which is named as cabinet, formulates policies and the civil services works under its direct supervision implements these policies. In fact, the executive includes all such officers and functionaries of the state who conduct different affairs of the state and are responsible for governance. Administration of the state is divided in various departments and ministries. Each ministry and department is supervised by a minister and functions in coordination with

the Cabinet in all respects. The executive is inter-linked with the legislature which makes laws, as required by the executive; while judiciary is responsible for administration of justice in the light of legislative provisions and also checks the excesses of the executive during the implementation of laws.

Executive is an important organ of the government. It is responsible for internal law and order, external security of the state as well as state interests among the fraternity of nations. It establishes mutually beneficial relations with other states. To protect the fundamental rights of the citizens it implements judicial decisions and prepares draft laws for approval by the legislature.

2.3.1 *Types of the Executive*

Before democratic era, the executive powers are exercised by the despotic kings, monarchs, dictators and autocrats according to their wishes. But in modern democracies, the executive organs of governments have been organized and are functioning differently. The constitutional structure of each state has made its own framework legal protection of the legislature for better governance according to the wishes of the people. Different types of the executives existing in modern times are as under:

- i. Real and Nominal Executive;
- ii. Single and Plural Executive;
- iii. Parliamentary and Presidential Executive;
- iv. Hereditary and Nominated Executive.

2.3.2 *Real and Nominal Executive*

This distinction follows from the difference in the powers of the head of government and head of the state. Ordinarily in the Parliamentary form of government the executive powers are exercised by the Prime Minister while the president or the Head of the State is just a nominal head. Though all powers are actually exercised by the Prime Minister who is the elected representative of the people and expresses their popular will, but nominally the chief executive exercises powers the name of the President or the Head of the state. However, the constitutional structure of each state explains the factual position about the real and nominal executive and clearly determines their powers and authority.

2.3.3 *Single and Plural Executive*

Plural executive is also known as collegial executive. Presidential system is the best example of the single executive, in which all powers are exercised by the president as being the Head of the State as well as head of the government or chief executive. He appoints or nominates his ministers or secretaries who are answerable only to him and work upto his pleasure. The Swiss Federal Council is the sole example of the plural or collegial executive in which state power is exercised by its members collectively and no

members is less powerful than the other. One of the members is entrusted to chair the meetings of the Council but not with any special powers.

2.3.4 Parliamentary and Presidential Executive

In a parliamentary form of government, executive powers are exercised by the Prime Minister assisted by Cabinet of Ministers collectively. But the Prime Minister is powerful and can compel his ministers to follow and implement his orders. They are collectively responsible before legislature and make decisions with majority vote or consensus. In Presidential system, the President is vested with executive power and he also represents the state. President is elected by the people directly or indirectly and is responsible before them. He appoints his cabinet and the ministers remain in cabinet during his pleasure. Presidential powers are controlled by a system of checks and balances. Judiciary may challenge the validity of his orders and legislature may restrain him by legislating against his wishes or by refusing to ratify his acts or appointments made by him.

2.3.5 Hereditary and Nominated Executive

In monarchical form of government, the executive authority is inherited with a lifelong term of office and law of primogeniture is complied with for making appointment of the Chief Executive. Kings and Emperors are hereditary heads of government as well as state, but now such monarchies are going to extinct due to the advent of democracy. In nineteenth century and before the colonial rulers and imperialist powers resorted to the method of nomination for appointment of executives in the countries under their control. British colonies and dominions are the perfect example in this regard and even today, in some British dominions, the Governor Generals are appointed by the British Crown e.g. Canada etc. This system is not practicable in independent and democratic states of present day. However, this system is being followed in modern states for appointment of subordinate executives for provinces and units or in other offices like officers of civil service and autonomous bodies and organisations in a country.

2.3.6 The Organization of Executive

Executive is a large institution which consists elected and political office hold i.e. chief executive and his cabinet or council of ministers as well as civil servants who are appointed on permanent basis for a fixed age limit and are paid from state exchequer e.g. civil service. Generally the organization of the executive consists of the following:-

1. Chief Executive or Head of State;
2. Cabinet/Ministry or Executive Council;
3. Civil Service.

2.3.7 Head of State or Chief Executive

In every state, the Head of State or Chief Executive supervises the entire state

system and all orders are issued and executed under his signatures and seal. He may be a monarch, a King, Dictator, a President or a Prime Minister. In democratic states, the terms and conditions of the office of the head of state or Chief Executive, are laid down in the constitution. The procedure of his election, term of office and powers are specified in detail. The types of executives and their modes appointment election have been discussed in the preceding pages briefly. But in general, the executives are elected or nominated. A non-elected executive may be hereditary, nominated or autocratic according to the system of the country. An executive may be elected directly or indirectly. The principle of popular sovereignty is followed in the form of direct popular election of the Chief Executive. This system has its own merits and demerits. It is appreciated as the chief executive is held directly responsible to the people or the electorate. Conscious people tend to elect a person having ability and integrity to solve their problems. However, if the electorate is illiterate incompetent and ignorant, then corrupt and dictatorial persons may manipulate its will as is the case in some third world countries. Emotional and influenced choice may prove dangerous for peoples destiny.

Ordinarily, the head of a State is elected indirectly by an electoral college as the presidents of USA, Pakistan and India. In this way, the electorate consist of competent and vigilant elected representatives as compared to general masses who times swaged by emotions or momentary influences. The elected representative, being well informed, better advocated and more conscious, tend to elect a competent and capable head of the state. But due to the specific role of political parties, indirect election may also fail to produce desired results as the candidates are elected only on party basis without properly checking their credentials and without exercising due care and impartiality. Thus, indirect election also has its own weak points as direct elections. The election of executive head by the legislature is another form of indirect election, but this negates the principle of separation of powers, because after his election the chief executive will be the representative/nominee of the legislature. In such a case, the impartiality and independence of the Executive head will be impaired and he will remain subservient to the wishes of the members of the legislature. Notwithstanding its defects, the election by the legislature has produced excellent results in most of the Parliamentary systems of the world. In modern systems, it is being adopted with some checks and balances.

Term of office of the Chief Executive or Executive Head also varies from two years to seven years in different states e.g. in many states of USA, it is two years in the French Republic, four years for American President, and five years for Indian and Pakistan Presidents. A longer term, it is argued gives temptation for monarchies and dictatorships. Conversely it may argued that a longer terms gives an experienced, familiar and mature administrator who brings stability to the system and introduces new policy and programmes for national transformation. It is a common view of all political philosophers that the term of Chief Executive should neither be too short nor too long but of reasonable duration with a constitutional provision to make changes at any time if the chief executive fails to fulfill his duties as required.

2.3.8 *Cabinet/Ministry or Executive Council/Council of Ministers*

In the parliamentary form of government, cabinet is a very important institution which functions under the leadership of the Prime Minister. Cabinet or Ministry is collectively responsible before the legislature. Cabinet or Ministry is collectively responsible before the legislature. Cabinet is the pivot on which the whole political machinery revolves. It is the supreme body which coordinates and controls the whole of the government and also guides the legislature. There is a prominent difference between a Cabinet and a Ministry. While cabinet consists only of very important ministers, a Ministry also includes ministers of state, parliamentary secretaries and advisers. Cabinet or Ministry is the executive in the parliamentary form of government which is responsible before the legislature and remains in power during the pleasure and confidence of majority in the legislature. Thus, we may say that cabinet is the actual executive which formulates policies and programmes and executes them through various departments headed by ministers. It is closely related to legislature, politically homogeneous, works with solidarity and collective responsibility. The cabinet is the real ruler of the country ruler of the country in the parliamentary form of government. It decides all national and international issues; makes all important appointments and exercises general control over the administration. British system may be studied as its true demonstration. In Presidential system, the president is the chief executive and responsible to make all important decisions and appointments. the president chooses his cabinet which stays in office only with his pleasure. The cabinet members are not the members of the legislature and are answerable only to the President and not to the legislature. American system is the true presidential system. The secretaries are the heads of departments and are answerable to the president for their work and efficiency. The American president is the real boss of his cabinet. The powers of the executive vary from country to country both in parliamentary and presidential systems due to different constitutional structures in different countries. In autocratic and dictatorial states, the balance of power is completely in favour of the rulers.

2.3.9 *Civil Service*

The executive include not only the head of state and government but it also has a machinery of permanent government officers and officials in different tiers and occupational groups. Good governance is possible only with a competent and efficient civil service. Cabinet/ministry alone cannot handle the work of the administration of the state and as its basic function is formulation of policies and basic strategies. Administration of the state is divided into various departments. Each department which is headed by a minister, has numerous officers and officials of civil service and subordinate services. The members of civil service have a permanent status and tenure and are selected through public service commissions keeping in view their qualifications and administrative capacity. Civil service is a totally non-political and impartial organization of permanent nature which helps to execute and implement the policies of

the political executive. Civil service is the symbol of expertise and knowledge in different fields, professions and departments. They undergo extensive training process before their induction in the civil service. The civil servants should be appointed on merit rather than on the bases of favouritism. If civil service is politically influenced and relies on political executive, then it will indulge in corruption and with every political change will be demand for the change of such politically appointed and motivated civil servants. The spoils system in America was an example of political civil service which failed to produce positive result and therefore had to be changed with a non-political and impartial civil service selected and appointed by an impartial public service commission strictly in accordance with rules and regulations. In all modern democratic states, civil services are organized on the basis of open competition and merit, and every individual who fulfills required terms and conditions, has the right to compete in such competitive examinations conducted by an independent public service commissions. Reasonable remuneration and salary is paid to all civil servants according to their terms and conditions of service with full guarantee of a fixed permanent tenure and equal opportunities of promotion and privileges during their good behaviour and conduct. All civil servants are entitled to retirement benefits and pension satisfactory completion of their service tenure. In Pakistan, Civil service is divided into various occupational groups and subordinate clerical staff. However our civil service could not establish its reputation for good and impartial governance.

2.3.10 *Functions and Duties of the Executive*

The powers and functions of the executive relate to the activities and programmes of the government. In all states the functions and duties of the executive are innumerable as are the needs of the peoples of that state. The basic objective of the state is the welfare of man, and to achieve this target administration is geared up to make necessary arrangements in all aspects of human life e.g. domestic, national and international. The main functions of the executive may be described as under:-

Internal Administration or Administrative Functions

A state consists of a vast population organised in the form of a society. Such Organisation is possible only when there is peace and harmony in all segments of the peoples. Thus, the first and supreme objective of the state is to maintain law and order so that all subjects of the state may enjoy equal protection, security and freedom. A comprehensive system of laws is prepared to provide equal opportunities to all citizens without any discrimination. Their rights and liberties are guaranteed in the form of basic laws relating to fundamental human rights which are equally guaranteed to citizens of the state through its judicial organ. Home or Interior Department is set up to maintain law and order by establishing district administration, police force prisons and courts. In democratic states, judiciary is completely independent to work as a watch dog against the wrong implementation of

state laws by administration.

ii. *External Administration or Diplomatic Functions*

In present days a global society is emerging due to communication explosion and no state can remain isolated in the international comity of nations and states. Diplomatic or foreign relations play an important role in the present day world changed into a global village. Today, the entire world is inter-linked & inter-dependent due to latest scientific technological and industrial progress. Modern war machine has also enhanced the need for active diplomacy for the maintenance of international peace and harmony. Now, owing to the highly destructive nature of wars, the states are compelled to use diplomatic channels for settlement of their disputes and differences. Security is inter-dependent and aggression is avoided due to its mutually destructive results. Diplomatic missions strive to foster relations amongst the states. All international agreements and treaties are concluded and negotiated through diplomatic channels. Through foreign office headed diplomatic functions and duties are performed by the Minister for Foreign or External Affairs who is the member of executive and responsible for promotion of international relations according to the foreign policy of the government.

iii. *Financial Functions*

Financial functions of the executive are its very important assignment because no government can survive without proper financial provisions. It is the duty of the Finance Ministry or Department to devise ways and means for generation of funds to meet the governmental expenditures. Finance Minister is considered as very important and influential member of the executive and really speaking, is responsible for the efficiency and competence of the political government. Annual Budget is considered a very important and influential member of the executive and really speaking, is responsible for the efficiency and competence of the political government. Annual Budget is the reflector of developmental policies of the government and if it does not fulfill the aspirations of the common man or majority then the government will lose the confidence of the masses which may result in premature departure of the government. Therefore, while a competent and intelligent finance minister may boost up the image of the entire executive a wrong chain can tarnish its public appeal due to excessive or wrong taxation or financial allocations. In present times, financial liquidation may result even in states disintegration as in the case of former USSR.

iv. *Legislative Functions*

Though law-making is the executive domain of the legislature but effective

legislation is impossible without coordination and cooperation of the executive, because only the executive may observe the flaws in legislation during the implementation stage and recommend amendments, alterations in prevailing statutes, as well as guide the legislature for necessary and new legislative proposals for different departments of the state. In parliamentary and presidential systems of government, there are different roles the executive has to play in the field of legislation. In a parliamentary form of Government the executive directly participates in law-making process but in a presidential system, the executive may influence through its favourites and by sending messages to the legislature. The executive's right to reject the bills by veto or by avoiding giving assent is also an executive measure to compel the legislature to agree on a suitable piece of legislation. The executive power to summon, adjourn, prorogue or dissolve the legislature is also used for relevant law-making. The delegated legislation and power to issue ordinances is an executive power to meet emergencies.

v. *Defence or Military Functions*

Executive is responsible for the defence and security of the state and to achieve this objective, it may declare war or enter into defence alliance with any other state. It is the foremost duty of the defence ministry to train, control and organize the armed forces i.e. Army, Navy and Air Force, keeping in view the defence requirements of the country. In most of the state structures, the executive is fully authorised to declare war and prosecute it successfully in the best interest of the state and nation. It may declare emergency or impose martial law during war. Security of the country requires proper handling of internal disturbances and external aggressions. Defence Minister is responsible for all duties and functions relating to security and integration of the state. During war or emergency, the executive also assumes the responsibilities of the legislature.

Judicial Functions

The head of the state has a right of pardon, remission, reprieve and clemency in cases of judicial convictions. He can also convert a punishment from severe to simple and death sentence into life imprisonment. This is a semi-judicial function which is being used traditionally under different reasons. This power is generally exercised due to political expediency as courts decide cases only on merit. It is also useful to rectify the errors in the administration of justice. Proclamation of general amnesty is also the prerogative of the head of the state which is ordinarily used in the public and national interest. Delegated legislation has empowered the executive to use judicial discretion to implement various statutory provisions.

vii. *Administration of justice*

Administration of justice is the executive function which is exercised by making appointments of judges of the superior courts as well as subordinate judiciary. The Executive influences judiciary by making appointments of their favourites under political considerations. Authority and jurisdiction of course are controlled regulated by legislature under the directions and guidance of the executive. Therefore executive is responsible to make arrangements for administration of justice in the state.

viii. *Other Miscellaneous Functions*

In addition to above mentioned functions, the executive regulates all sectors of present day life i.e. business, trade, commerce, industry, agriculture, education, health, transport, environments, research and development, communication, planning, economy etc. All aspects of our social life are being regulated by a modern government. The concept of a welfare state covers all the national and international aspects of our life. State is responsible for the security and protection of her subjects everywhere and makes mutual and bilateral arrangements at international level. Executive also arranges propaganda and publicity campaigns to make changes in the moral and political ideas of the peoples. In a modern state, the executives functions have enormously increased and the presence of the executive may be felt everywhere in the state territory. Due to inter-dependence, every subject is controlled and guided in his life by statutes, rules and orders issued by the executive to regulate day to day public life.

2.4 The Judiciary

Judiciary is the third organ of the government which is responsible for the administration of justice according to the law of the land enacted by the executive and made by the legislature. The concept of the welfare state is directly linked with social justice with impartiality and expeditiousness. An efficient judiciary is necessary for a good governance as it protects the individual rights of people in their public life. An efficient administration of justice maximizes the responsibility of a citizen in a state. If there is no effective judicial system, then there will be no law at all and the principle of "Might is right" will prevail. Severity of punishment does not but certainty of punishment does compel the offenders to abide by law. In ancient times, the executive and judicial function were combined in the monarch and he was considered as the fountain head of justice, but the overall result of this concept was absolute tyranny. Today's modern and welfare state is conceivable only with the separation, independence and impartiality of the judicial system so that it may protect the citizens from the excesses of the executive. Judiciary is entrusted with the function of doing justice to all in the light of the universal principles of justice with equal protection to everyone and equal penalty for all those who violate it. Punishment protect society from criminals. Historically, the status of judiciary

has always been very high even in tribal societies. Social structure of a society cannot be maintained without peace and harmony which is possible only with the enforcement of rule of law. An ideal social order is impossible without an independent impartial judiciary which guarantees equal protection of law to all. Excellent judicial performance and is dependent on good and equitable laws made by legislature and interpreted by an honest and impartial judiciary. In democratic states, judiciary protects citizens' rights and freedoms. It interprets laws and written constitutions and also plays an advisory role to the executive. In this way, it makes case laws in the form of judicial precedents and fills unlegal flaws by interpretation. In dictatorships, the independence of judiciary is shackled and it only legalises the orders of the autocratic rulers.

2.4.1 *The Rule of Law*

The Rule of Law is a very important legal principle universally recognised by all modern democratic states which declares the supremacy of law and equality before law amongst the citizens of a state. It guarantee the right to be dealt in accordance with common laws of the land by providing a chance of fair trial by proper hearing and rights of defence in a court of law as well as the right to appeal. No arbitrary action of any authority should infringe upon the inherent rights of the citizens. The dictates of law should be followed rather than the will of the government or of some individual ruler. The concept of public interest and state interest is subject to this fundamental principle of common law. Any excesses done by the state functionaries are subject to the scrutiny by the courts of law. This controls the arbitrary attitude and behaviour of the government officials and provides a system of checks and balances by making them responsible and answerable before the ordinary courts of law. It ensures liberty and security to all citizens of a state on the basis of legal equality irrespective of their social status. Though the Rule of Law is a fundamental principle of English Constitution and law, it also provides and fulfills the requirements of natural justice according to universal human values. The true spirit of democracy may only be demonstrated by the actual application of this principle everywhere in the world. The general will of the people can prevail only in the presence of such a principle of natural justice. If otherwise, it will be tempered and biased and reflect only the opinion of a particular class of people.

"The Rule of Law" A.V. Dicey gave three different meanings to this term in his book namely "The Law of the Constitution" which are as under:-

1. "It means, in the first place, the absolute supremacy or predominance of regular law as opposed to the influence of arbitrary power, and excludes the existence of arbitrariness, of prerogative, or even of wide discretionary authority on the part of government. Englishmen are ruled by the law and by the law alone; a man may, be punished for a breach of the law, but he can be punished for nothing else."
2. "It means, again, equality before the law, or the equal subjection of all classes to the ordinary law of the land administered by the ordinary law courts."

3. "The Rule of Law', easily may be used as a formula for expressing the fact that with us the law of the constitution, the rules which in foreign countries naturally form part of the constitutional code, are not the sources, but the consequences of the rights of individuals, as defined and enforced by the courts, It means the main principles of the constitution such as the right of personal liberty or of public meeting, have been set up on the foundation of the old common law and not as thing derived from any general constitutional theory."

A deep study of explanation of the Rule of Law reveals how influenced the English constitution which is based on common principles of law and the judicial decisions during the passage of time.

The Rule of Law has its limitations as well. With the gradual progress of democratic system of government and with the ever increasing state intervention in individual life in the present day changed socio-political environment, application of the rule of law has been restricted. The skeleton legislation by the parliaments or legislatures has to some extent, manipulated the rule of law negatively, because minute details of the law fall within the discretionary power of the executive or administration. However, open violation of the rule of law is not possible even through discretionary powers or delegated legislation. During the implementation state, the administrative authorities make decisions without following the Rule of Law and the procedure prescribed for judicial decisions, although they make judicial decisions but without interviewing or according hearing to the party concerned while their decisions have judicial authority. At times even the right to appeal is not granted. Some immunities and special privileges granted to authorities as well as active restrictions imposed against challenging some illegal actions, have also impaired the validity of the rule of law. Penalty on citizens if they fail to prove ill will on the part of a public authority or prohibition on discussion of the conduct of judges are relevant examples in this regard. Social and economic barriers also stand in the way of equal access to the courts of law. The result is non-redressal of poor peoples grievances as due to their poverty they cannot pay heavy fees of legal experts and attorneys. Administrative Courts in some democratic states which try their state functionaries and public authorities for breach of law on their part, are also deviation from the rule of law as the same provide a separate system of legal trial.

2.4.2 Organization of the Judiciary

Organization of the judiciary is different in different states according to judicial requirements of each state. The structure of judiciary is very vast in each state consisting of a network of courts with differing jurisdictions and judicial powers to administer justice for common people. Judiciary is totally separate and independent in some states while in some other it is combined to some extent with the executive. In federal states, there are two structures i.e. one for the federation or the central government and the other for the units or provinces, such as the U.S. judicial system. However, judicial

systems ordinarily differ in parliamentary and presidential forms of government as well as in federal and unitary systems; but still there are limited similarities in different systems. Mostly judicial organisations and structures are different in different countries with basic variations but the functions of the judicial organisation are similar in all states except the former USSR. Nowhere judicial organisation is final but it is subject to change by statutory provisions for reforming the systems from time to time. The British judicial system is based on customary law generally known as the English Common Law, consisting of common law, statute law, equity and case law; but recently a new source of law, namely the community law based on common laws for the entire European Community has been added. American judicial organisation is unique in nature and is the first ever federal judicial system, based on the principles of separation of powers, judicial supremacy and judicial review. In America, there are two establishments of the judicial system i.e. Federal Courts and State Courts; but constitutionally the federal courts are superior to state courts. In Pakistan, there is single judicial organisation despite federal system of government. The judicial systems adhere to similar principles for their organizations in the modern world. These systems are based on lower courts or the courts of first instance at the bottom with limited powers and jurisdiction but the courts of appeal or high and supreme courts at the top with exclusive jurisdiction to decide all matters at appellate level and of constitutional nature. The courts of the following types are found in different systems:

1. Civil Courts;
2. Criminal Courts;
3. Special Courts;
4. Administrative Courts

Civil Courts are those courts which deal with litigation in civil matters i.e. when civil rights of a citizen are infringed upon by another citizen or sometimes the state. But in criminal cases, the cause of action arises from the breach or violation of state laws by individual or a body of individuals e.g. breach of peace, violence against life or property of a person etc. At lower level civil cases are tried by civil judges or other judges but criminal cases are tried by Magistrates or criminal courts of first instance. But appellate and final courts have jurisdictions in both civil and criminal cases.

Special courts are established for special and particular matters which are excluded from ordinary courts. In some cases they follow a different procedure. These special courts are generally set up for military, industrial sector, taxation, labour, customs and excise etc.

Administrative Courts are also special courts in nature which are established for trial of public servants and state functionaries according to special administrative laws. Courts are also classified as Constitutional and Legislative courts. Constitutional courts are generally established in such states whose systems are governed by written constitutions providing for the creation of such courts with particular jurisdiction and

powers e.g. American Supreme Court and Supreme and High Courts of Pakistan etc. These courts have powers to interpret constitutions. Legislative Courts are the creation of various statutes/ acts of legislatures. These courts are completely regulated by legislative and statutory provisions.

2.4.3 *Functions and Powers of the Judiciary*

The main purpose of the judicial organization is the administration of justice, and settlement of disputes either between citizens/individuals or between citizens and state. It fulfills the requirements of justice by open, impartial and fair trial of the persons accused under various charges. Courts sort out and investigate the facts and punish those persons who have violated the state laws and also declare and determine the rights in civil matters. In modern states, courts perform numerous functions but their important functions and powers are as under:-

- i. Administration of justice;
- ii. Settlement of disputes;
- iii. Interpretation of Constitution and statutes;
- iv. Judicial Reviews;
- v. Advisory Jurisdiction;
- vi. Preventive justice
- vii. Safeguarding fundamental rights;
- viii. Administrative Functions;
- ix. Misc. and non-judicial functions.

The first and foremost function of the judiciary is to administer justice in the state because "There is no better test of the excellence of a government than the efficiency of its judicial system, for nothing more nearly touches the welfare and security of the average citizen," as written by Lord Bryce. Thus Administration of justice is the basic duty of the judicial organization and without it chaos will be the over all result. Judiciary settles disputes between individuals as well as between individuals and the state according to the state laws. It protects the innocent from usurpers and evil elements through process of laws. In cases of ambiguity and authority flaws, the judiciary interprets laws according to the intentions of the law-makers by fair and equitable use of discretion in interpretation. These are judicial precedents commonly known as judge-made laws or case-laws which have the force of law for all subordinate courts. Interpretation of constitutions in case of written constitutions, is also an important function of the judiciary which decides disputes of constitutional nature. Judicial review is the power judiciary had acquired through constitutional interpretations while implementing constitutional provisions. The judiciary controls the legislature and the executive through judicial review and declares ultra vires and unconstitutional such orders and laws which are considered beyond constitutional limits. Advisory jurisdiction is also provided in some constitutions for the smooth running of administrative affairs by consulting the supreme courts for guidance of the executive on points of law in cases of ambiguity. Preventive

justice is beneficial to the citizens in cases of threat of breach of law and violations of rights. Courts may issue directions on writs and record restraining orders or injunctions where necessary and desirable. In modern constitutions, judiciary is the guardian and guarantor of fundamental rights of citizens against personal or state excesses or against any other threat to these rights. It also performs miscellaneous functions of judicial and non-judicial nature which are not clearly defined, such as appointments of receivers, guardians and administrators etc.

Administrative affairs of judicial departments are also controlled by the superior courts. The terms and conditions of service, appointments, cases of misconduct and corruption and removal from service of subordinate judicial officers and magistrates are also handled by judiciary itself. Such administrative control protects the subordinate judiciary from the interference and influence of the executive & thus secures its independence and separation. In Pakistan, provincial High Courts are responsible for such Administrative functions.

2.4.4 *Independence of the Judiciary*

Democracy and independent judiciary are inter-linked and interdependent. Democracy guarantees equality and liberty of individual as well as his fundamental human rights. The concept of fundamental rights is ridiculous without a fair free and independent judiciary which can guarantee justice against all types of infringements of rights. A perfect and just legal system can ensure justice if the laws are applied and implemented by honest, fair and impartial judges without any fear or favour while deciding the cases of litigating parties. A judge should be un-biased, free of social pressure and expert in legal interpretation with sound knowledge of jurisprudence. His integrity, dignity and impartiality during judicial office should be above-board and unquestionable. A bad legal system can become the worst in the presence of incompetent, politically motivated, corrupt and partial judges and as a result of this, law seems tortuous, inhumane and repressive, mitigating the liberty of citizens and giving the state authority, despotic and dictatorial character. Independence is directly related to impartiality. Independent judiciary cannot be created by laws but it seems to perform its functions with free will and independence while delivering justice. Judicial discretion, interpretation of laws during the administration of justice and standard of trial, should be uninfluenced and open so that nobody can object that the trial is one-sided and he is punished un-heard. Rule of Law is not possible without an independent and impartial judicial system. In modern states, independent judiciary is considered the symbol of a democratic and popular government. The objective of a welfare state are not unachievable without judicial independence and activism. In democracy, the rights of minorities can be secured from the tyranny of the majority only with the help of independent judiciary. Judiciary is the only check on all branches of executive to contain them within their own perimeters while exercising their administrative powers. The great law of humanity is unwritten but inherent in human instinct in the form of morality, ethics and good sense

and up-holding the universal standard of truth. There are only men of character, wisdom and high intellect who restore the confidence of people in a judicial organization and not merely the presence of a good statutory system of justice. Mode of appointment judges, their judicial tenure, security during office, commensurate salaries and high legal qualifications are also necessary conditions for an independent and free judiciary.

In different countries, there are different methods for selection and appointment of judges, but the three methods generally in practice are appointment by the executive; appointment by election by the legislature; and appointment by election by the people.

Appointment by the executive is the most common method for selection of judges in different countries which being free from many defects such as party affiliation, incompetence and lack of required qualification and experience is the most successful. Subordinate judiciary is appointed through competitive examinations. Judges of the higher courts are nominated by some experienced persons in judicial field and approved by executive authority after thorough verification of their credentials, or they are recommended and nominated by the executive in consultation with the head of the judicial organization and approved by some committee or house of the legislature. Appointment through election by the legislature is not an appreciated method due to its inherent defects like political bias, party candidature or affiliation and violation of the principle of Separation of Powers. It is just like an election of a party candidate for a political office, such judges are presumed to give political and party titled decisions and not the judgements based on merit and fairness. Appointment of judges through an election by the peoples is the most defective method. In this method judges consider themselves responsible before their electorate. So they find it difficult interpret law without fear and favour and protect the rights and liberties of the individuals independently, honestly, impartially and in a dignified manner. They have to accommodate, appear and please their voters so as to get elected for another term. They have to act like politicians and not like and in this way independence of judiciary remains a dream.

Term of office or guaranteed judicial tenure is an important condition which can make judges free, fair, impartial and independent. In most democratic states, judges of superior judiciary are provided a fixed tenure of office upto a particular age of retirement which is ensured during their good behaviour and fair judicial conduct. They are provided complete security in all respects after having been appointed to judicial office. There are many safeguards and privileges to provide the judiciary an environment free from fear, political and executive influence, and full independence to interpret law according to their good conscience and integrity. They cannot be removed during their good behaviour and conduct. Removal is only possible in case of corruption, inefficiency or physical mental infirmity and incapacity. Procedure for their impeachment and removal is the most difficult and they are given full opportunity of defence against any such charges or allegations. In all democratic states impeachment of judges is almost impossible and there are very few examples of impeachment. All such cumbersome procedures are designed only to secure the independence of judiciary. Lastly, the salary,

allowances and other privileges of the judges are quite handsome and adequate according to their status and high office. Clearly, a low-paid judiciary will find it difficult to provide justice and can be tempted to be involved in dubious behaviour, corruption and bribery. It is an established fact that when judges are under-paid and their remuneration is not commensurate with their office and status, then justice can become a saleable commodity as may be seen in the corruption-ridden states of the present world. Hence, to ensure the independence and prestige of judiciary, the judges are well paid and respected persons. Adequate pension is ensured after their retirement to enable them to maintain a respectable status in the society.

2.4.5 Separation of the Judiciary

In modern democratic states, separation of the judiciary from the executive a prime requirement for the future of democracy, good governance and for achieving the objectives of a welfare state. Though the Theory of Separation of Powers is impossible to implement in absolute terms, however, it is emphasized that the judiciary should be separate from the executive and legislature so that it may be protected from the direct influence of these two organs of the state so as to ensure its independence. It is not desirable that the same person should be a judge as well as a prosecutor which is contrary to the established norms of justice. If executive and judicial functions are combined in the same person, then he may interpret and implement laws according to his sweet will, capriciously and even dishonestly without any fear of accountability. In such a case executive may deprive the people ruthlessly of their rights and liberties only to strengthen the hands of an autocratic and oppressive ruler and as a result a corrupt and suppressed society will emerge. The magistracy will become a tool in the hands of cruel rulers as was the case in ancient times. Every voice demanding justice will be suppressed in the name of national or public interest. Freedom and liberty are ensured by law and justice & not by personal caprices of the rulers. Keeping in view the arbitrary behaviour of government officials and the executive, Montesquieu had insisted on Separation of Powers for equal and separate existence of all three branches of the government to ensure maximum rights and liberty of citizens, without any interference in each other's affairs. Now, this concept has been accepted and implemented in all democratic states and it is rightly said that it is impossible to imagine a democratic and welfare state without separation of powers and especially without a judiciary free from all external interference in its smooth functioning.

3. SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. Describe the different branches of the Government and their inter-relationship.
Key Note: Branches of the government: the legislature, the executive the judiciary and explanations. See at 1.
2. Is the legislature more important than the executive and judiciary? Explain the

merits and demerits of unicameral and bicameral legislatures.

Key Note: See 2.1 The legislature and at 2.3 for merits and demerits.

3. Explain the salient features of a unicameral legislature.

Key Note: More democratic and avoid duplication of functions, suitable for unitary and small states, functional characteristics may be discussed. See also 2.3.

4. Discuss the different functions of the legislature in detail.

Key Note: See at 2.4

5. Is it necessary to divide the functions of government in three branches?

Key Note: Separation of the Powers, Independence and Separation of the Judiciary, and the Rule of Law.

6. Define the Executive and its role in governmental affairs.

Key Note: Explain the executive as in 3.2; role of the executive may be discussed as in its functions and duties

7. Describe the Rule of Law as expounded by Dicey.

Key Note: The Rule of Law and Dicey's meanings as in 4.2

8. Write different kinds of the Courts and their jurisdictions.

Key Note: see at 4.3 Organisation of the Judiciary.

9. Explain the Difference between independence and Separation of the Judiciary. Is the independent judiciary inevitable for a true welfare state?

Key Note: Independence and separation of the judiciary as described in 4.4 and 4.5.

10. Does any system of checks and balances exist amongst the three branches of a democratic government?

Key Note: Carefully study and elaborate the legislature, the executive and the judiciary. During the course of study, you will observe that each institution is intervening in the affairs of the other unseemingly. The legislature controls the executive and judiciary by defining their powers by its acts. The executive checks the legislature by its acts. The executive checks the legislature by the threat of dissolution and advice, or by refusing assent to bills. It also checks the judiciary by curtailing its powers and exercising its powers by subordinate legislation and rule making. The judiciary checks the executive by declaring its acts illegal and unconstitutional and the legislature by judicial review and interpretation of laws.

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THE PROCESS AND FUNCTIONS OF GOVERNMENT

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1. OBJECTIVES

After reading this unit along with the suggested readings, you should be able to:

1. Explain a pressure group, its kinds and their role in molding public opinion;
2. Discuss the importance of political parties, their role and need in democracy and stability of the country;
3. Narrate the process and importance of election in a democratic society;
4. Analyse advantages of two party and disadvantages of Multi party system; and
5. Differentiate different approaches to suffrage and representation.

2. SUMMARY OF THE MAJOR TOPICS

2.1 Pressure Groups

A pressure group may be defined as a group of individuals organised for promoting their special economic or some other interest by influencing the government or a public officer. The means used by pressure groups to apply pressure or influence on the government, legislators, administrators, political parties are agitation, persuasion, 'political snipping', public opinion-mongering or even bribery.

Pressure groups are of various kinds. Most of them are organised for the protection or promotion of economic interests e.g. of trade unions or trade and industry chambers; some are for educational, social and religious purposes or reform. They are all interest groups. A few of them are set up for promoting some humanitarian or philanthropic purposes, e.g. the CND (the Campaign for Nuclear Disarmament or the Greenpeace). Some pressure groups may consist of one or two individuals, while others are large in size and numbers.

2.2 Important Pressure Groups

Pressure groups exist in most of the present societies, but due to the well-knit organisation and effective techniques employed by American pressure groups, the researchers have focused mainly on the study and research specifically of these groups. The present discussion has also been focused mainly on the nature and functioning of American pressure groups. Moreover, the study is limited to an appraisal of the groups that are active on the national level.

2.2.1 Business

An important kind of pressure groups working in the field of business are the ones that represent business community in general. They try to influence public policy relating to the taxation and governmental expenditure so as to minimise the amount involved. Pressure groups of this type generally discourage government's interference in commercial activities and encourage on the other hand, the imposition of restraints on trade union activities. American Chamber of Commerce, British Federation of Industries, British Chamber of Commerce are regarded the most powerful pressure groups in the field of business. Chambers of Commerce and Industry in Pakistan, are also becoming important after the introduction of the privatization policy of the government in 1990's.

The second category of this type of groups, relates to different industries and trades, in which each represents the interest of its respective field. Activities of such pressure groups mostly reflect conflicting interests. In America, the functioning of Petroleum Institute and that of Iron and Steel Federation in Britain, are the examples of this type. Some owners of newspapers have also formed such pressure groups in Britain. In the Third World, pressure groups of this type, are also emerging rapidly along with the industrial development and economic mobilization.

2.2.2 *Labour*

The clash of interests between the industrialists and the wage-earners, has always been on such issues as the fixation of working hours, proper wages, conditions of work and control of industrial policy, etc. This type of conflict is found very often in the countries having free market economy. Working classes organise themselves into trade unions. In the Asian societies, such trade unions, of course, can be included in the category of interest groups, but in America, since they employ pressure techniques as well, therefore, they can be called 'pressure groups'.

In order to win the sympathies of both the parties during the elections, the American trade unions help them and donate liberal funds. It is to be noted that these unions are not under the influence of Socialist ideas whereas their counterparts in most of the Third World societies, have socialistic leanings. In some European countries too trade unions of the working classes also act as pressure groups.

2.2.3 *Agriculture*

In the developed democratic societies, peasants are organised into two types of pressure groups. Some of these represent the agrarian class in general and their aim is to give protection to the farm's production and influence the government for giving protection to domestic agricultural production against the importance one. Similarly they stand for the welfare of agricultural community and want to get maximum privileges from the government for this class. But there exist certain pressure groups in this field, especially in America, that stand for the protection of certain agricultural products and the interests of the growers.

2.2.4 *Professions*

In most of the democratic countries, persons belonging to such professions as medical practitioners, engineers, teachers, scientists, lawyers, etc. form their associations for the promotion of their professional values and to get maximum facilities for their respective professions. Most organised type of such associations, successfully influence public policy-making in their interest. While chalking out a policy relating to a specific branch of social life, modern governments also consult the concerned pressure groups so as to integrate public policy with the actual requirements.

Different types of pressure groups have mushroom growth in the developed systems, though there are many that are comparatively less important than the aforesaid pressure groups. Some religious associations in the Western countries, are also engaged in pressure politics for the propagation of their faith and their basic stress is on such issues as promotion of religious education, regulations for movies, press and literature, etc. likewise, some minorities organise themselves into pressure groups to serve their interests through supporting certain political parties during elections, both financially and in other ways.

2.2.5 *Protest Groups*

The aforesaid pressure groups also fall under the category of pressure groups, as they react against undesirable governmental policies. Strictly speaking, protest groups are those who always present themselves as the most oppressed and deprived class of the society. They are also extremists as far as the use of pressure techniques is concerned. They stage demonstrations, resort to pamphleteering and even do not hesitate to pressurise through civil boycott or other disruptive activities. Groups of this type are very active in American Blacks and the students. Blacks have their separate groups of this type which remained very active in opposition to Viet-Nam War. It may, however, be noted that the protest groups may not necessarily have leftist leanings.

2.3 **Pressure Groups in Pakistan**

In the formulation of public policy, the pressure groups in Pakistan also perform their due role. Thus Chambers of Commerce and industry are given importance and their opinion paid due heed in respect of the formulation of policies relating to economic activity. Similarly, other professional associations also try to influence political and economic decision-making.

2.4 **Political Parties - Its Features and Functions**

2.4.1 *Kinds of Political Parties*

In general, there may be at least four types of political parties, for there can be at the most four kinds of opinions, viz., the reactionary, the conservative, the moderate or liberal and the radical or revolutionary.

1. *A Reactionary Party* consists of such people who wish to revert to the old order, whether it actually existed in the past or is only imaginary. Jan Sangh and Hindu mahasabha in India, the Nazi Party in Germany, or the Fascist parties in Italy and Japan before the World War II are the examples of reactionary parties.
2. *Conservative Party* is like the reactionary one, but with one difference. While the reactionary party seeks to revert to an old order which is long dead and gone, but the conservative party seeks to preserve the status quo. Reactionary parties usually exist in countries whose achievements and glories lie in the past, which they try to revive once again, while conservative parties usually exist in countries which are still great and prosperous and do not want further chaos in society or politics lest they lose their prosperity and greatness. The examples of conservative parties are innumerable, such as the British Conservative Party, both the Republican and Democratic parties in USA, the Congress Party of India, etc.
3. *Liberal or Moderate or Progressive parties* are those which advocate social change, progress and freedom.

4. *Radical or Revolutionary Parties* stand for radical changes and outright progress in social and political life and organization. In present times, the number of such parties is fairly large, such as the socialist, communist and other extremist parties. It must, however, be noted that in practice it is not often possible to make a clear-cut distinction between some parties. They sometimes mix up with each other. A conservative party may not be much different from a reactionary one, while a liberal party may be really conservative; and a radical party may be so only in name, as for example the Radical Socialist in France is neither radical nor socialist but is really a moderate party of the Centre.

Since the great French Revolution (1789-99), it is also customary to describe political parties as the parties of the Right, the Centre or the Left. The reason was that the conservative and radical parties were accidentally so seated on the right and the left in the French National Assembly in 1789 during the great French Revolution. Those parties which are reactionary or conservative are now said to be the parties of the Right; while the radical or revolutionary parties are called the parties of the Left; and those which stand between these two extremes are called the parties of the Centre. Parties of the Left are sometimes called Extremists for they advocate an extreme or revolutionary transformation of society and state, such as the revolutionary, socialist, or the communist party. Usually every political party includes several points of view; for unanimity or homogeneity of opinion never exists in a party. In such a case it may consist of two wings, the left and the right wing. For instance, the British Labour Party has two wings; its left wing is more socialistic than its right wing.

2.4.2 *Basis of Political Parties*

Parties are formed for different purposes in different countries and ages. They may be formed on the basis of religion, economics, form of government, nationality, class interests or other general questions of vital interest to the state or people. Religious basis creates communal or religious parties which are usually reactionary, conservative and revivalist or fundamentalist. They are, for example, the Hindu Mahasbha, the Akali Party, etc., in India, the Jammāt-e-Islami, the Ahrar, and the JUI or JUP in Pakistan or the various Catholic and other Christian parties in several European countries. But religious basis is not a sound principle for political parties. It arouses hatred, divides the nation, obscures political issues and prevents a rational solution of political, social and economic problems of a nation. It is opposed to progress and development of human life and society. Racial and national differences also create various parties, especially where racial and national minority groups exist. In the 19th century, parties existed to advocate different forms of government, such as the monarchist and the republican parties, one favouring a monarchical and the other a republican form of government. Class parties also sometimes exist, such as the party of the landlords or of the industrialists or of the workers. In present times, however, parties are usually organised on the basis of political and economic programmes and policies.

2.4.3 *Importance of Political Parties*

Political parties have always existed in all forms of governments and states. But some forms of government favour their growth and development more than the others. In absolutist and unconstitutional monarchies, for instance the parties were no more than cliques and coteries. In the direct democracies of antiquity they were really transient and unorganized collection of persons around a prominent leader or orator. It is only in modern representative democracy that they have fully developed into mass-organisations of leaders and followers, based on definite principles and programmes of public welfare and national interests. They are, indeed, indispensable for the working of a democratic government. It is rightly said that they are the building blocks of democracy. Without political parties, writes MacIver, "there can be no unified statement of principles, no orderly evolution of policy, no regular resort to the constitutional device of parliamentary elections, nor, of course, any of the recognised institutions by means of which a party seeks to gain or maintain power". The rise of political parties was much criticized by old writers and statesmen as undemocratic, for they came in between the people and the rulers. But, as Lowell says, "The conception of government by the whole people in any large nation is, of course, a chimera; for whenever the suffrage is wide, parties are certain to exist and the control must really be in the hands of party that comprises a majority or a rough approximation to a majority of the people". Without political parties, there will be factions and cliques. The people will have no means of influencing the government except by appeals and petitions to the government to redress their personal or sectional grievances, as was the case under the kings and other despotic rulers. In fact, wherever there is government by discussion and public opinion, there must be political parties, for there can be no unanimity in public affairs. In dictatorship, however, political parties cannot exist in the same way as in a democracy. Dictatorship does not tolerate difference of opinion. Hence there is only one party in a dictatorship, — the government party, which has the monopoly of political power and decision making.

2.4.4 *Functions of Political Parties*

a. *They Organise Public Opinion and Formulate the General Will.*

The problems facing the modern state are many and complex. People have ordinarily all sorts of opinions and views about one and the same issue. The first function of political parties is to organise these myriads of opinions by educating the people. Every party selects those issues which are of fundamental importance or are likely to appeal to the voters. It then formulates its own views, policy and programme about it and popularises it among the voters by means of the press, party platform and other means of propaganda. Thus it explains these problems to the people. At the same time other parties put before them their own views and policies and thus enable them to judge these issues by themselves. In this way they act, as Lowell puts it, as brokers of ideas. As Bryce says, they bring order out of chaos of opinions and views. If there were

no political parties in the modern state, politics would be a sheer babble of tongues. A disorganised mass of people can neither formulate principles nor agree on policy. Thus political parties organise public opinion, express the will of people or the General Will. By serving, as Gettel says, as the motive force in crystallising public opinion, they make democracy workable over large areas of the modern nation-states.

b. *They Select Candidates for Public Offices.*

The second function of political parties is to select candidates for election, to plan, organise and run election campaigns and to win them by winning majority of votes for their own candidates. This is their essential and very useful function in a modern democratic government. As elections are expensive affairs, and some candidates are too poor to bear them, the party defrays the election expenses of such candidates from the party funds, contributed by its members and supporters. Moreover, the voters cannot know the candidates or choose them. The parties select them and acquaint the voters with their qualifications and merits and thus convince the voters of the superiority of their own candidates over those of the rival parties. They are launching pads or spring-boards for new leaders to capture government power. They provide opportunities for leaders to emerge and come to power.

c. *They Endeavour to Capture Government by Constitutional Methods.*

The primary aim of a political party is to obtain control of government. Hence political parties Endeavor to capture governmental power by peaceful and constitutional methods of winning elections. In modern politics ballot had replaced bullets, and heads are counted, not broken. The party which wins majority in elections, becomes the ruling party. For this purpose the parties announce their party programmes on the eve of the general elections, select their Candidates and launch election campaigns and undertake nation-wide election campaigns.

They spend huge sums to win elections. They dramatize politics and keep the nation politically awake. The majority party becomes the party-in-power and puts its party programme and policy into practice. For this purpose, it makes new laws and amends or repeals the old ones which are not in harmony with its programme or policy.

d. *They also Criticise the Government.*

The party or parties which are returned in minority to the legislature, form the Opposition which performs no less important and useful a function than that of running the administration. The opposition parties keep the ruling party in check, point out its weaknesses, and prevent it from becoming despotic or negligent of national interests. They expose corruption and favouritism and scandals of the ruling party. The Opposition is, therefore, aptly described as the

watchdog of democracy.

e. *Their Control their Members in the Legislature.*

Lastly, the political parties perform an important function of holding together their members in the legislature. This is particularly so in the parliamentary system, in which the majority party in the legislature also forms the cabinet. If it is to remain the ruling party and preserve its power, it must remain a majority party in the legislature. Hence the party organization is strict and party discipline and solidarity rigid. The party is, therefore, a unifying agency between the executive and the legislative departments of government. In the presidential form of government, the parties ring about harmony between the executive and legislative organs of the state and make them a working whole.

2.4.5 *Two Party System Versus Multiple-party System*

Certain countries have established two-party system according to which one party, after getting clear majority votes at the polls, forms the government while the other one assumes the role of opposition. This practice has been working well in Britain and America. It needs to be pointed out that two-party system does not imply the absence of other parties from the political scene, but it means that only two parties have dominant position in the party politics while other parties are less important. As a result of elections, alternative government is formed by either of the two parties. In America, for example, no other party except the Republicans and the Democrats, has ever won the elections to any important political office.

In the countries having multiple-party system, any one or two parties rarely get sweeping majority in the elections. In a parliamentary system, under such a situation, coalition governments are formed. In most of the European and the Third World countries, multiple-party system exists.

2.5 **Advantages of Two-Party and Disadvantages of Multiple-Party System**

1. *Stability*

Two-party system has definite advantage of stabilising the political system. As a result of elections, generally one party gets clear majority of votes and forms the government. Such government can fully concentrate on the implementation of its programmes and policy. It can undertake long-term planning and as such can maintain consistency in public policy. Whereas under multiple party system, coalition governments are generally formed, which are regarded comparatively weak, ineffective, and unstable governments. The policies of such governments do not reflect any consistency and reflect political bargaining. Due to the inconsistency in public policy, the administration has to face many difficulties and work under divergent political pressures. Before the formation of DeGaulle's Government in France in 1958, the major cause of political instability in France was ascribed to multiple-party system. It is to be noted,

that almost twenty ministries were formed in that country during the period 1946-58.

2. *Popular government*

It is under two-party system that people can directly form the government, i.e., a party winning majority at the polls forms the government. The laws enacted and the policies formed by such government, will have the sanction of public opinion. Under multiple-party system, as no single party gets clear majority, hence government can be formed through political manoeuvring and compromises within the legislature. Consequently, no single party is in a position to implement its programme within the coalition government.

3. *Effective Opposition*

Two-party system is most essential, especially for the success of the parliamentary system. It is under this system that not only a stable government can be formed but an effective Opposition can be organised. Criticism against government policies made from the opposition is based on a sense of responsibility as it has to form alternate government in case of the fall of ruling party. Under a multiple-party system, an organised and effective opposition does not exist as the opposition parties are themselves divided on policy matters.

4. *Political Bargaining*

Coalition governments are generally formed under multi-party system, as no single party gets sufficient majority to form the government. There is every possibility that a small but most organised and disciplined party may get much more share in the formation of cabinet as compared to its popular following, which is, undoubtedly undemocratic. Thus big parties may be exploited by small a party holding balance in respect of party division, may exploit its position to tame down the government. It is to be noted, that multiple-party system proves more harmful to the working of a parliamentary setup as compared to the presidential one. Moreover, responsibility of the policies of government can't be located in any one party under multiple-party system. In contrast to this, such shortcomings can be avoided under two-party system.

2.6 **Advantages of Multiple Party and Disadvantages of two Party System**

1. *Representative Character*

Multiple-party system is more realistic in ensuring representation to all shades of public opinion. The choice of the voters become limited in the presence of two-party system, as the people having divergent views have to merge their distinct views in the viewpoint of either of the two parties. It is the requirement of democracy that every school of thought should be represented through its own party.

2. *Political Affiliations*

Political allegiance becomes so strong and polarization so acute under two-party system that sometimes it may go against the national interest. Party discipline is firmly tight and political leadership so domineering that freedom of expression of common members suffers. But under multiple-party system, party hold is not so domineering. Party members develop an attitude of mutual respect while the leadership also pays due respect to party workers. All members work together with a sense of cooperation and fraternal feelings.

3. *Moderation*

Cabinet dictatorship is established under parliamentary system if it is based on two-party system. Cabinet enjoys absolute authority as it commands complete hold on political decision-making as well as on legislation. It so happens mainly due to the unconditional support of a majority party. In case of multiple party system, as coalition governments are comparatively less stable and are weak, therefore, the chances of autocratic trends on the part of government become remote.

Conclusion

Despite certain shortcomings of the two party system, it is still regarded comparatively better than its counterpart. It has played an important role in the successful working of Parliamentary democracy in Britain. In fact political stability is dependent, to a greater extent, on the effectiveness of two party system. Moreover, it is in consonance with the spirit of democracy, as the party that gets clear mandate at the polls can easily form the government, while the other party provides an effective opposition. Hence both parties operate as two wheels of the cart of democracy.

2.7 **Election Process**

2.7.1 *Election or Indirect Participation*

Modern states are large country-states with vast territories and great populations. It is physically impossible for the people in such states to assemble at one place for political purposes. They can take part in the business of the state only indirectly, that is, through their representatives whom they elect to make laws and policies and to decide other affairs of the state. Hence modern democracy is an indirect democracy, with representatives elected by the people who have the right to vote, called suffrage. This indirect mode of participation is known as election, which we may define as a form of procedure, laid down by the electoral laws, whereby some members of the public are chosen by the people to hold legislative or executive offices of authority in the state. In short, it is the way the ruled choose their rulers, i.e. their government.

2.7.2 *The Purposes of Elections*

Elections are the means of legitimizing the assignment of a person to an office of

authority in the state. John Austin once said that electoral procedure is like the procedure in a marriage ceremony: "Do you take this man (or woman) to be your lawfully wedded husband (or wife)?" "I do". So a vote asks the candidate: "Do you accept my demands as your own?" "I do", says the candidate. The point at which a candidate is elected is really not the moment of choice or decision by the voter: it was, in fact, much earlier, for a free voter decided much earlier to vote for a candidate of his preference. Really election is the point at which a voter's preference becomes a public act, a social and political commitment to the kind of laws or policies he prefers. It is a choice between two views or opinions about laws, policies and decisions of the government. "The qualification for voting is not wisdom or good sense but enough independence of mind to be able to state one's preferences or grievances". this is one side of the electoral process. the other is the authority or power of the government which the elected candidates would exercise, without which the individual preference or grievance would be ineffective. "Unless there is power behind the expression of grievances (of the people), the grievances are apt to be neglect". Thus Elections are the connecting links between the demands of the people and the decisions of the government. They are the first stage in the "conversion process" of a political system. But this is true only in a democracy. In a dictatorship, on the contrary, elections can be employed not for the expression of public opinion but for its suppression and for imposing the opinions and decisions of the dictator.

2.8 The Suffrage

2.8.1 *Suffrage of Franchise*

The right to vote is called the suffrage or franchise. It is one of the most important political rights of the citizens in a democratic state, in as much as it is the very foundation and essence of the representative democracy. By the exercise of this right the citizens not only elect their representatives but also express their opinion on the policy of the government.

When a citizen exercises his right to vote, he becomes a voter or elector. The actual choice or exercise of the right to vote is called voting. The act of voting is called polling. When the citizens as a whole exercise their right to vote to elect their representatives, it is called an election. All the citizens who at a particular time have the right to vote or franchise, are collectively called the electorate. The size of the electorate depends upon the law of franchise or representation, which differs from country to country.

2.8.2 *Two Theories of Franchise*

What is the nature of the franchise? Why should a citizen be given the right to vote? Two general theories answer these questions about the nature of the franchise or suffrage differently as under:-

1. *Individualistic Theory of Franchise*

According to this theory, franchise or the right to vote is the natural and inherent right of the individual. This theory was based on three doctrines which were prevalent during the 18th century: the doctrines of natural rights, equality of Man and popular sovereignty or General Will. Carried to its logical conclusion this theory implies universal suffrage. All citizens have the inalienable and sacred right to participate in the formulation of the law. "None can be deprived of this right on any pretext or in any government". Thus law, as the expression of popular sovereignty, is justified only when all citizens have the right to elect their representatives who make laws. The doctrine of the political equality also required that every citizen should have the right to vote. Law and government affected all, and should be influenced by all: "What toucheth all should be decided by all". In present times, Laski has given another justification for universal suffrage. History has demonstrated, says Laski, that those persons or classes who are excluded from a share in political power, are also excluded from its benefits and advantages and their interests are neglected when the policy of the state is formulated. Without franchise there could be no freedom. Unrepresented interests are likely to be neglected by the government.

2. *Collectivistic Theory*

The doctrine of natural rights is not acceptable in modern times. It is now said that franchise is not a natural right of the individual. If it is so, then we cannot refuse this right to such persons who cannot obviously exercise it, as, for example, the minors or the wicked. Reason and morality require that they should not be given the right to vote. Hence the right to vote is not attached to the individual by nature but is a privilege, a franchise or a social function, conferred on him by the state for the fulfillment of its aims and ideals. It cannot be granted to all citizens but to those whom the state considers fit for its proper exercise. Hence the Collectivistic theory favours a restricted franchise or suffrage. Certain sections or classes can be excluded from the right to vote on grounds determined by the law of the state as illiteracy, ignorance, etc. This theory has the support of several modern writers, such as Bluntschli, Lecky, John Stuart Mill and Sir Henry Maine. The Fascists and Nazis upheld it on grounds of racialism and nationalism, while the communists on grounds of Proletarian dictatorship. In practise, however, modern democratic states admit the need for universal adult franchise. Yet they do not go to the extremes of these two theories. The right to vote is now recognised not as a natural right but as a privilege. It is conferred by the state not on all citizens without discrimination but only on those who fulfil certain conditions which, however, differed from country to country. It must be remembered that franchise is at once an individual right and a social function. In this sense, it differs from the

personal rights of the individual. Hence its exercise must be justified on social grounds. The result is, as Garner says, that the electorate in every democratic state today "includes a fractional part of the population, varying from three fifths to one-half of the total population". Restrictions on franchise are of various kinds, such as age, sex, property, education, mental and moral fitness, etc.

2.8.3 *Representation*

When the elections are over, the successful candidates become the representatives of the electors. They sit in the legislature, make laws and run the government of the country. Several questions arise about the representatives, such as their term of office, their relation with their electorates, etc.

2.8.4 *Term of Office*

The control of the electorate over the law-making representatives is essential for the democratic working of the popular or representative government. If the legislature is to be responsive and responsible to the public opinion, its term of office should neither be too long nor too short. It should be remembered that "in all elective offices the length of term affects the power of the electorate". What should be the term of office of a representative? Obviously, a perpetual or a long term of office is contrary to the principles of representative democracy. There is, however, no precise rule of universal application; and the practice varies greatly from state to state. The members of the British House of Commons are elected for a term of five years; and so are the members of the National Assembly of Pakistan and of the House of the People in India. The members of the American House of Representatives are elected only for two years and of American Senate for six years. The membership of the British House of Lords is hereditary and therefore lifelong.

2.8.5 *Annual Elections*

It was once strongly pleaded in the 19th century that the legislatures should be elected for one year only, so that they might reflect public opinion faithfully. The supporters of annual elections even declared that "where annual elections end, tyranny begins". But practical experience has revealed the difficulties, inconveniences and even dangers of holding annual elections. One year's term is inconvenient for the representatives. They cannot learn anything about their duties in such a short time. The legislature becomes reluctant to undertake and pass important laws in so short a time. The executive cannot adopt a long-term policy and plans. The people become disgusted with too frequent elections, coming at the end of every year. Moreover, public opinion does change but not so frequently as to require "the censorship of the voters every year". Finally, there are several other means besides elections by which the legislature can find out the opinions of the people, such as the press, public platform or official

correspondence of the legislators. In short, annual elections are impracticable, inconvenient and troublesome. The length of office of a legislature was to be longer than a year.

2.8.6 *Frequently and time of Elections*

Although no hard and fast rule can be laid down, yet elections should be held often enough for the electorate to exercise effective control but not so often as to impair governmental efficiency by too frequent changes of men and policies. A term of four or five years is now considered as a fairly good period for the life of a legislature. It makes the government responsible to the people and responsive to public opinion. In a parliamentary government, this aim can be more frequently achieved by dissolving the legislature whenever it is felt that an appeal to the people to express their opinion on a question of national importance is necessary.

2.8.7 *Two Theories of the Relation Between the Representative and his Electors and Party*

What is the duty of a representative to his electors? There are two theories about it. One is known as the delegate theory or the theory of the instructed representation, and the other is known as the theory of uninstructed representation.

1: *Delegate or Mandate Theory or the Theory of Instructed Representation*

According to this theory, a representative is merely a Delegate of his electors; he is their mouthpiece. Therefore, his function is only to act according to the instructions received from his constituents. He is not to use his own discretion or judgement to decide the affairs of the state. If he fails to abide by the instructions received from his constituents, he can be recalled by them. Thus the duty of the representative consists in obeying the mandate or instruction of his constituents, the people with whom supreme power resides. This is the reason why this theory has been wittily termed as the "telephone theory of representations". The representative is at the receiving end of the telephone and faithfully communicates the voice of the people to the council chambers of the state. In other words, he is to play back his master's voice. The English writer, Edmund Burke, strongly criticised this theory, "It ought to be the happiness and glory of representative to live in the strictest union with his constituents. Their wishes ought to have great force with him; their opinion high respect; their business unremitting attention... Your representative owes you not his industry only but his judgment; and he betrays instead of serving you if he sacrifices it to your opinion."

Due to the rise of the strong and well-organised political parties in the present days, the Delegate is the spokesman not so much of the constituency he represents but of the party to which he belongs. He has taken a pledge before his election to support the party policy or "line" in the legislature. He cannot break his pledge or mandate, by either deserting the party after his election or

oppose its policy in the legislature. But this view is strongly criticised. For instance, Laski says, "A member is not the servant of a party in the majority in his constituency. He is elected to do the best he can in the light of his intelligence and his conscience. Were he merely a delegate instructed by a local caucus, he would cease to have either morals or personality."

2. *The Theory of Uninstructed Representation*

The theory of instructed Representation has been rejected by most of the writers. It is now held that the member is not a delegate but a trustee, a representative. He is chosen by his electors because, firstly, his views are in general accord with their view, and secondly, because his character and attainments are such as to enable him to join with other representatives in the legislature to make laws and policy for the good of the nation. He is not bound to decide every matter only on the instructions of his electors and consult them on every occasion. He can use his own judgment and reason to decide as he thinks best for them. Nevertheless, he must remain loyal to any pledge he has given at the time of his election. It is now generally accepted that a member is a representative not of the constituency from where he is elected but of the whole nation.

2.8.8 *Criticism of Instructed Representation*

The theory of instructed representation has been severely criticised and rejected by many writers due to its defects, difficulties and dangers as mentioned hereunder:-

1. *It Favours Ignorance Against Wisdom*

A representative is chosen for he is a person of superior wisdom and judgment among the people of his constituency. The theory of instructed representation would require that he must implicitly comply with the instructions and mandate of his constituents, which really in wisdom and knowledge. Really, as Gilchrist says, ~~it must be the representative~~ who gives instructions to his electors, being abler than most of them, rather than to receive from them. Prof. Lindsay writes, "We all recognize that expert and technical knowledge must come from specialists — that the ordinary man or woman is not capable of judging the details of legislative proposals. We say that the public decides upon broad issues (facing the people of country).

2. *It is Immoral*

For it demands that the representative should subordinate his opinion to that of others, even though they may not be his equal in wisdom and intelligence. "He is elected", writes Laski, "to do the best he can in the light of his intelligence and his conscience. Were he merely a delegate, instructed by local caucus, he would cease to have either morals or personality".

3. *It is Impossible to receive Instructions*

Even if the theory is accepted, it is impracticable. The constituents cannot give detailed instructions to their representative which can be acted upon for a long time by him. They are so many that no such instructions can be agreed upon among them, furthermore, neither the representative nor his constituents have time enough to consult each other on every new occasion or problem. Finally, most of the voters are neither interested nor do they understand many of the laws and matters discussed and adopted by the legislature. What instructions can they give to their representatives regarding such laws and problems? Obviously little or none.

4. *It disrupts the Legislative Process*

No legislature can perform its legislative functions if its members are bound to act only on the instructions of their constituents. It will really deprive it of real work of deliberation and adoption of laws. It will spilt the legislative process into two. Deliberation will be done by the voters in their millions, while adoption of laws by their instructed representatives. But such a process would reduce the legislative work to a farce, for those who will make the laws will not hear the arguments of those who discussed and debated upon them. The legislature will not remain a legislative body but will be reduced to the level of registration office, which records the decisions made outside its council-chambers. Moreover, such a long-drawn process would cause delays and obstructions in making new laws. The representatives will have to wait for instructions from their constituents before they discuss and pass a new bill.

5. *It will Reduce the Tone and Quality of the legislature*

For men of ability and talent would be reluctant to be elected to a body which has no power to decide anything.

6. *It Emphasises Local Interests and Local Opinion*

For an instructed representative regards himself as a delegate and custodian of the interests of the constituency he represents. Thus it will make the representatives to neglect the national interests. So the nation as a whole would be the loser. "Parliament", as Bruke said, "is not a congress of ambassadors from different and hostile interests ... but Parliament is a deliberative assembly of one nation, with one interest, that of the whole, where, not local purposes, not local prejudices, ought to guide, but the general good resulting from the general reason of the whole. You choose a member, indeed, but when you have chosen him, he is not a member of Bristol, but he is a member of Parliament."

7. *Instructed Representation is Obviously Meaningless in Modern Times*

For the constituents can reject a representative who is flatly against their interests by refusing to re-elect him. Really, the rise of strong and well-organised parties has strengthened the hold of the constituents over their

3. SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. Important Pressure groups in Pakistan are :-
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-
-
-
2. Important Functions of Political Parties are:-
 - a.
 - b.
 - c.
 - d.
 - e.
3. Two party system implies dominant position of two parties but not

4. Two-Party system has following advantages:-
 - a.
 - b.
 - c.
 - d.
5. Define Suffrage.
6. Explain the word Representation.

4. SUGGESTED READINGS

Political Science - Theory and Practise by Mazher ul Haque, 8th Edition, 1991, Caravan Press, Darbar Market, Lahore.

Introduction to Political Science by Dr. Muhammad Sarwar, 8th Edition, 1996, Al-Hij Printers, Lahore.

Principles of Political Science by A.C. Kapur, 16th Edition, 1987, S. Chand and Company (Pvt.) Ltd., Ram Nagar, New Delhi, India.

Introduction to political Sciences by Rodee Anderson, Christol Greene 4th Edition McGraw-Hill, Inc., New York 1983.

representatives, who are pledged to support their party in the legislature.

2.8.9 Conclusion

Although we have rejected the theory of instructed representation, we cannot go to the other extreme and conclude that representative is absolutely free to do whatever he likes, regardless of the wishes and convictions of his electors. A proper view of the duties of a representative towards his constituents is as follows:-

The representative is not a master, but he cannot disregard the views of his electors altogether. He is elected to confer and consult other representatives who come from other parts of the country as to what is best for the nation as a whole. He should be consistent in his views, and should not change them radically after his election. For instance, as Laski says, a representative who is elected as a free trader should not vote in the legislature for a protective tariff. "He must be decently consistent in opinion, and reasonably diligent in the performance of his duty". He must not only receive instruction from his constituents, but also be ready to guide them in understanding the problems of the nation, for he occupies a pre-eminent and prominent position among them. He must enlighten and liberalise their views and outlook. Lastly, the representative should be allowed freedom of judgment, that is, to act as he thinks best in the circumstances and to be guided by his experience of the legislative debates and discussions. Authoritative instructions, to be acted upon blindly and obeyed implicitly, would be contrary to the parliamentary system.

Conclusion

The exposure given to students on an important area of Political Science is, at best, rudimentary. It provides an introductory passage to the process and functions of government and is largely based on theoretical assumptions. Of course, historical development has played its part in the progressive evolution of institutions and certain areas like parties and pressure groups are more clearly understandable. However, to understand concepts like representation, suffrage and elections one has to dwell into history, particularly of modern states, to visualize how they came about and what are their true meanings in differing cultural contents. For this purpose, a wider consultation of history and politics would help immensely.