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ALLAMA IQBAL OPEN UNIVERSITY, ISLAMABAD

Course: Foundation of Education (831) • Level: MA/MEd Programme

Credit Hours: 03

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Assignment No. 2 (Units 5–9)

SOLVED ASSIGNMENT GUIDE

(For Study & Reference)

Note: This guide is prepared for study and reference purposes. Students are advised to read the relevant units of the course book, understand the concepts, and then write the assignment in their own words. Copying this guide word for word is not recommended.

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Total Marks: 100 • Pass Marks: 40

Question 1: Goals and Objectives; Levels of the Cognitive Domain (20 Marks)

Q. No. 1: Differentiate between goals and objectives and discuss the different levels of the cognitive domain of the taxonomy of educational objectives. (20)

Introduction

Teaching without direction is activity without purpose. Educators therefore express the intended results of education at several levels of generality, and two terms that are constantly used — and constantly confused — are goals and objectives. Goals state the broad, long-range purposes of education; objectives state the precise, short-range outcomes that a lesson, a unit or a course is to produce in learners. To plan teaching, to select content and methods, and above all to evaluate results honestly, a teacher must know how these terms differ and must be able to write objectives at every level of thinking. This answer first differentiates between goals and objectives, and then discusses the six levels of the cognitive domain in Bloom's taxonomy

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of educational objectives, the famous classification published in 1956 under Benjamin S. Bloom and revised by Anderson and Krathwohl in 2001.

Goals and Objectives Differentiated

A goal is a general statement of educational intent. It is broad in scope, long in time, idealistic in tone and usually set by society, the state or the institution rather than by the individual teacher: for example, 'to develop patriotic and responsible citizens', 'to promote scientific temper', or 'to produce graduates capable of serving the health needs of the country'. Goals give education its direction and its justification; they express values. An objective, by contrast, is a specific statement of what the learner will be able to do after instruction, stated in observable and measurable terms: who will do it, what behaviour will be shown, under what conditions, and to what standard of accuracy or quality. 'At the end of the lesson, the students will be able to solve, without a calculator, at least eight out of ten two-digit multiplication problems within ten minutes' is an objective. Between the two lie intermediate statements — aims of a course, and objectives of units — forming a ladder from the most general intention to the most concrete classroom action.

Table 1: Goals and Objectives Compared

Point of Difference	Goals	Objectives
Scope	Broad and general; cover the whole programme or stage.	Narrow and specific; cover a lesson, unit or topic.
Time	Long-term; achieved over years.	Short-term; achieved in a lesson or a few weeks.
Who sets them	Society, state, institution, curriculum policy.	The teacher (within the framework of goals).
Language	Abstract and value-laden:	Behavioural and observable:

	develop, promote, appreciate.	state, solve, classify, construct.
Measurability	Not directly measurable; judged over long periods.	Directly measurable; basis of tests and evaluation.
Function	Give direction and purpose to education.	Guide daily planning, method selection and assessment.
Example	Develop responsible citizens.	List five duties of a citizen and give an example of each.

The distinction matters practically. A teacher who possesses only goals cannot plan Monday's lesson or construct a fair test, because 'developing understanding' does not say what the pupil must do to show it. A teacher who possesses only objectives, without goals, may drill hundreds of measurable fragments and never ask whether they add up to an educated person. Sound practice works in both directions: goals are broken down into course aims and then into instructional objectives, and the objectives achieved are periodically checked against the goals to ensure that education has not degenerated into test technique. Objectives are conventionally classified, following Bloom and his colleagues, into three domains: the cognitive (knowledge and intellectual skills), the affective (attitudes, values and feelings) and the psychomotor (physical skills). The remainder of this answer discusses the cognitive domain in detail.

The Cognitive Domain: Its Six Levels

1. Knowledge (Remembering)

The lowest level is knowledge — in the revised taxonomy, remembering — the recall or recognition of facts, terms, definitions, dates, rules, classifications and theories exactly as they were learned. The pupil defines, lists, names, identifies, states and recalls. This level is sometimes despised as 'mere memorisation', yet it is the indispensable foundation of all higher

thinking: no one can apply a rule he cannot recall or analyse an argument whose terms he does not know. Its limitation is only that education must not stop here, as unfortunately examination systems driven by recall alone encourage it to do.

2. Comprehension (Understanding)

Comprehension means grasping the meaning of material: the pupil can explain an idea in his own words, give examples of it, summarise it, translate between words, diagrams and symbols, and draw simple inferences from it. Verbs include explain, describe, illustrate, summarise, interpret and predict. The difference from knowledge is the difference between a student who can recite a definition of evaporation and one who can explain why wet clothes dry faster on a windy day. Teaching for comprehension requires paraphrase, analogy, questioning and examples and non-examples, and assessment must ask for explanations in new wording, not repetition of the textbook's sentences.

3. Application

Application is the use of learned material — rules, methods, concepts and theories — in new, concrete situations. The pupil solves unfamiliar problems, applies a formula to real data, uses a grammatical rule in his own writing, or carries out a procedure in the laboratory. Verbs include apply, solve, demonstrate, use, compute and construct. Application is the first level at which learning proves its usefulness outside the chapter in which it was acquired, and it is the level industry and the professions principally demand. It can only be developed by varied practice on problems the student has not seen solved before.

4. Analysis

Analysis is the breaking of material into its parts and the detection of the relations between them: distinguishing facts from opinions and conclusions, identifying assumptions, recognising the structure of an argument, separating causes from effects and relevant from irrelevant evidence. Verbs include analyse, differentiate, compare, contrast, categorise and examine. A history student analysing the causes of an event, or a science student examining which variables affected an experiment, works at this level. Analysis underlies critical thinking, and it depends on all the lower levels: one cannot analyse what one does not know, understand and know how to use.

5. Synthesis (Creating)

Synthesis — placed at the very top, as 'creating', in the revised taxonomy — is the putting together of elements to form a new whole: writing an original essay or story, designing an experiment, planning a project, composing, proposing a solution to an open problem. Verbs include create, design, compose, formulate, plan and produce. Here the pupil is no longer reproducing the teacher's product but generating his own, and assessment must therefore allow originality, using criteria of coherence, feasibility and quality rather than a single correct answer.

6. Evaluation

Evaluation is the making of judgements about the value of material and methods for a given purpose, using explicit criteria and standards. The pupil appraises an argument, judges the reliability of a source, chooses between rival solutions and defends the choice, or criticises a poem, a policy or a design. Verbs include evaluate, judge, justify, appraise, criticise and argue.

In the original taxonomy evaluation stands highest because it presupposes all the other levels and adds the responsibility of judgement; a student who can evaluate has become, in that area, an independent thinker rather than a recipient of conclusions.

Three features of the taxonomy should be noted. It is cumulative and hierarchical: each level builds on those below it, so teaching and testing that skip the foundations collapse. It is a tool for alignment: objectives, teaching activities and test items should all be pitched at the same level, and a question paper can be audited against it to expose the common fault of claiming higher objectives while examining only recall. And it is incomplete by itself: the affective and psychomotor domains govern attitudes and skills, and a balanced scheme of objectives draws on all three.

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Conclusion

To conclude, goals and objectives differ in scope, time, measurability and function: goals are broad, long-term statements of educational purpose set by society and institutions, while objectives are specific, observable and measurable statements of learner outcomes set by the teacher, and effective education translates the first into the second without losing sight of either. Within objectives, the cognitive domain of Bloom's taxonomy arranges thinking in six cumulative levels — knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis and evaluation. A teacher who masters this ladder can plan progressively, question intelligently at every level of thought, and evaluate learning in a way that develops not only memory but understanding, capability and judgement.

Question 2: Historical Development of Education in Pakistan, 1947–1971 (20 Marks)

Q. No. 2: Discuss the historical development of education in Pakistan in any period that appeals to you most. Support your answer by mentioning significant educational events of this period. (20)

Introduction

Of all the periods in Pakistan's educational history, the period from independence in 1947 to 1971 appeals most strongly, because it is the founding period in which a new nation had to decide, under the hardest possible conditions, what education was for. In 1947 Pakistan inherited a thin and uneven colonial system: literacy stood at roughly one person in ten, schools and colleges were concentrated in a few cities, the administrative machinery had been divided, and millions of refugees were arriving in a country whose treasury was nearly empty. Yet it was also a period of extraordinary founding energy, in which the direction of national education was debated at the highest level, the first institutions of planning and research were created, and the basic structure of the system Pakistan still has — its stages, its boards, its universities and its unresolved tensions between ambition and resources — was laid down. This answer traces that development through its significant events.

The Starting Point and the Pakistan Educational Conference, 1947

The defining event of the period, and arguably of Pakistan's whole educational history, is the Pakistan Educational Conference held in Karachi from 27 November to 1 December 1947, presided over by the Minister of Education, Fazlur Rahman, and addressed by the Quaid-e-Azam himself. In his message to the conference, Muhammad Ali Jinnah declared that education

was a matter of life and death for the nation, that there was 'no time to lose', and that the system must be remodelled on the lines of the nation's own history, culture and values while keeping pace with the progress of the world. The conference recommended free and compulsory primary education, the promotion of adult literacy, technical and vocational education suited to a developing economy, the reorientation of curricula to national ideals, and special attention to women's education. Almost every later policy document in Pakistan repeats these themes, which is why 1947 remains the benchmark against which performance is measured — and found painfully behind the founders' timetable.

Consolidation in the 1950s: Plans and Institutions

The 1950s were spent converting resolutions into machinery. A Council of Technical Education and advisory bodies for curriculum were established; the Advisory Board of Education provided a standing forum between the centre and the provinces. The First Five-Year Plan (1955–60) was the first attempt to treat education as a sector of planned national development, with targets for enrolment, teacher training and school construction, though education received a modest share of resources beside defence and development of infrastructure. Universities expanded from the inherited University of the Punjab (1882) and the young University of Karachi (1951) to include the University of Peshawar (1950), the University of Sindh's growth at Hyderabad, the University of Rajshahi's counterpart in the eastern wing, and specialised institutions such as the University of Engineering and Technology, Lahore. Boards of Intermediate and Secondary Education were progressively separated from the universities — the Lahore Board being established in 1954 — so that universities could concentrate on higher education while boards conducted the vast secondary examinations. Teacher training colleges and institutes were

expanded, and the textbook boards were beginning to be organised to produce standard national textbooks.

The Commission on National Education, 1959, and the Second Plan

The second landmark event of the period is the Commission on National Education, appointed in 1959 under the chairmanship of S. M. Sharif, whose report remains one of the most comprehensive documents in the country's history. The Sharif Commission examined every level of the system and recommended, among much else, the extension and improvement of compulsory primary education, a three-year degree course after intermediate, the strengthening of teacher education with improved status and training for teachers, the integration of religious and moral education with national purpose, expansion of technical and agricultural education, reforms of examinations, and greater attention to science. Many of its recommendations fed directly into the Second Five-Year Plan (1960–65), a period of comparatively strong economic growth in which educational enrolments expanded considerably, new universities and colleges were founded, the University Grants Commission's predecessor machinery for higher education coordination was developed, and institutions such as the Institute of Education and Research at Lahore (1960) gave educational research a permanent home. The Academy for Educational Planning and Management's forerunners and curriculum bureaus in the provinces also belong to this drive to professionalise educational administration.

The Later 1960s: Expansion, Discontent and the Noor Khan Proposals

Expansion, however, outran quality and equity. The Third Five-Year Plan (1965–70) was disrupted by the 1965 war and economic strain; classrooms were overcrowded, trained

teachers were in short supply, drop-out at the primary stage remained massive, and regional disparities — above all the growing sense of deprivation in East Pakistan — became politically dangerous. Students emerged as a powerful political force, and educational grievances formed part of the wider movement of 1968–69. In response, the government appointed a Commission on Students' Problems and Welfare and, most significantly, the proposals associated with Air Marshal Noor Khan in 1969–70, published as the New Education Policy of 1970. This policy promised free education up to class X in stages, a massive literacy campaign, reorientation of education toward the ideology of Pakistan, science and technology, and the removal of disparities. Much of it remained unimplemented when the country was overtaken by the political crisis and the separation of East Pakistan in 1971, which closed the period with the loss of the eastern wing and a further re-founding task for the education system of the remaining Pakistan.

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An Assessment of the Period

Judged fairly, the period's achievements are substantial. Enrolments at every level multiplied several times from the tiny base of 1947; literacy, though still low, rose; a complete institutional skeleton — ministries, boards, universities, training institutions, planning machinery — was created where almost none had existed; and the founding documents articulated aims, in national purpose combined with modern science, that still command respect. Its failures are equally instructive: targets for compulsory primary education were announced repeatedly and missed repeatedly; expenditure on education remained around one to two per cent of national income, far below need; quality, teacher status and rural provision lagged behind expansion; and the system continued to privilege a narrow academic, examination-bound stream

producing clerks and graduates for government service rather than the technicians, farmers and entrepreneurs the economy needed. The gap between policy rhetoric and implementation, which the period established, remains the central problem of Pakistani education.

Conclusion

In conclusion, the period 1947–1971 appeals as the heroic and instructive founding age of education in Pakistan. Its significant events — Jinnah's address and the Pakistan Educational Conference of 1947, the first development plans of the 1950s, the Sharif Commission of 1959 and the expansion under the Second Plan, the founding of universities, boards and research institutes, and the reform proposals of 1969–70 — created the framework within which all later development has occurred. To study this period is to understand both the nobility of the original aims and the persistent reasons for their incomplete fulfilment: insufficient resources, weak implementation and the neglect of quality and equity. Those lessons speak directly to the educational problems of Pakistan today.

Question 3: Trends in Education and Preparation for the World of Work (20 Marks)

Q. No. 3: Describe briefly different trends in education and suggest ways and techniques that education can be used for preparing students effectively for the world of work. (20)

Introduction

Education is one of the fastest-changing of all social institutions, because it stands at the meeting point of knowledge, technology, economy and culture, all of which are themselves changing rapidly. A teacher trained even twenty years ago faces classrooms, learners and

labour markets quite different from those for which he was prepared. This answer describes briefly the major current trends in education — among them the spread of information and communication technology, lifelong and distance learning, competency-based and outcome-based approaches, inclusive education, privatisation and globalisation — and then suggests concrete ways and techniques by which education can prepare students effectively for the world of work, the destination toward which, for most learners, the whole journey is directed.

Different Trends in Education — Briefly Described

- **Technology and digital learning:** Computers, the internet, learning management systems, recorded and live online classes, educational applications and now artificial intelligence have moved learning beyond the classroom wall and the fixed timetable. Blended learning mixes face-to-face teaching with online study; open educational resources and massive open online courses make high-quality material nearly free.
- **Distance and open learning:** Institutions on the model of Allama Iqbal Open University itself, and virtual universities, enrol students who are employed, remote or unable to attend conventional institutions, using print, broadcast and digital media with tutorial support.
- **Lifelong learning:** Because knowledge and occupations now change within a single working life, education is no longer finished at graduation; refresher courses, professional development, short certificates and recognition of prior learning allow adults to re-enter education repeatedly.
- **Competency- and outcome-based education:** Programmes are increasingly designed backward from defined outcomes and competencies, with assessment demonstrating what the learner can actually do, rather than merely certifying time spent in class.

- **Student-centred and active learning:** The emphasis shifts from the teacher's lecture to the learner's activity — discussion, projects, problem-based learning, inquiry and cooperative work — with the teacher as designer and facilitator of learning.
- **Inclusive and equitable education:** Policy increasingly requires that girls, rural learners, the poor, linguistic minorities and children with disabilities be included in mainstream provision, with the support their inclusion requires.
- **Privatisation and public–private partnership.** A large and growing share of enrolment, at every level in Pakistan, is in private institutions, and governments increasingly contract, subsidise or partner with private and community providers.
- **Globalisation and internationalisation:** Curricula, qualifications frameworks, accreditation and student mobility increasingly follow international patterns, while English and internationally recognised certifications carry a premium in the labour market.
- **Technical, vocational and STEM emphasis:** Governments are attempting to correct the historic bias toward general academic education by expanding technical and vocational training and science, technology, engineering and mathematics, and by introducing entrepreneurship education.

These trends converge on one demand: education must produce adaptable people. The specific jobs of twenty years hence cannot be known, but the capacities they will require — literacy and numeracy of a high order, digital competence, communication, problem-solving, teamwork, integrity and the ability to keep learning — can be developed now. That is the bridge to the second part of the question.

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Preparing Students Effectively for the World of Work: Ways and Techniques

Align the Curriculum with Work

First, curriculum must be continuously connected with the labour market. Institutions should conduct regular employer consultations and labour-market surveys, sit industry representatives on curriculum committees, and revise syllabi so that occupational content is current — the accounting student learns the software offices actually use, the agriculture student the methods progressive farmers actually practise. Alongside subject content, a deliberate programme of employability skills should run through every course: spoken and written communication, workplace English and Urdu, computing, numerical problem-solving, time management, teamwork, customer dealing and work ethics including honesty, punctuality and responsibility. These soft skills are consistently what employers report missing in otherwise qualified graduates.

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Use Work-Based and Active Techniques

Second, preparation for work must itself be active and experiential. Internships, apprenticeships and industrial attachments should be built into programmes and properly supervised, so that students experience real deadlines, hierarchies, quality standards and customers before they graduate. Project work commissioned by real clients, simulations and role plays of interviews, meetings and negotiations, case studies of actual firms, visits to workplaces, and talks and mentoring by practitioners all shorten the distance between classroom and job. School and college enterprises — a student-run shop, repair workshop, farm plot or design service — teach production, costing and marketing in miniature. Career guidance must accompany these experiences: occupational information, help in choosing subjects,

training in preparing a curriculum vitae and facing interviews, and honest advice about the requirements and prospects of different careers, so that choices are made on evidence rather than fashion or family pressure alone.

Strengthen Technical Education and Multiple Pathways

Third, the system must honour more than one route to a respectable livelihood. Technical and vocational institutions need modern equipment, instructors with industrial experience, and certification that employers trust; and their graduates must be able to progress to higher levels of qualification so that the vocational stream is a pathway, not a dead end. Entrepreneurship education deserves a central place in a country where formal jobs cannot absorb all entrants: teaching students to identify opportunities, prepare a simple business plan, obtain small finance, keep accounts and market a product converts job-seekers into job-creators. Finally, institutions should maintain living links with alumni and employers — placement cells, job fairs, tracer studies of graduates — and treat the feedback from the world of work as data for improving teaching, closing the loop that this part of the question describes.

One further technique deserves emphasis because it costs little and changes much: assessment should itself rehearse the world of work. When students are assessed through portfolios, presentations, practical demonstrations, group projects with real deadlines and reflective reports on their internships, they practise exactly the communication, reliability and self-presentation that employment requires, and they leave with evidence of capability richer than a marks sheet. Employers invited to exhibitions, demonstrations and final-project presentations meet prospective recruits in action, students receive informed feedback from the field they are

about to enter, and the institution publicly commits itself to outcomes beyond its own examinations.

Conclusion

To conclude, the leading trends in education — digital and distance learning, lifelong and competency-based provision, student-centred methods, inclusion, privatisation and globalisation, and a renewed emphasis on technical and STEM education — all point toward flexibility and demonstrable capability. Education prepares students effectively for the world of work when it aligns its curriculum with real labour-market needs, teaches employability and entrepreneurial skills deliberately, uses internships, projects, simulations and guidance to make learning experiential, and keeps vocational pathways strong and respected. A system that does these things sends out graduates who are not merely certificated but employable — able to obtain work, to perform it well, and to adapt when, as is now certain, the work itself changes.

Question 4: Modes of Education; Formal and Non-Formal Education (20 Marks)

Q. No. 4: Briefly describe different modes of education. Discuss the strengths and weaknesses of formal and non-formal education. (20)

Introduction

Human beings learn in more ways than one, and only a fraction of what any person knows was learned in a classroom. Educational thinkers, following the classification popularised by Coombs and his colleagues in the study of world education, distinguish three modes of education according to how organised, systematic and institutionally controlled the learning is: formal,

non-formal and informal education. Every country, Pakistan included, actually relies on all three, though its budgets and its statistics attend mainly to the first. This answer describes the three modes briefly and then discusses in some detail the strengths and weaknesses of formal and non-formal education, the two organised modes between which educational policy constantly has to balance.

Different Modes of Education — Briefly Described

Formal Education

Formal education is the highly institutionalised, chronologically graded and hierarchically structured system of schools, colleges and universities, running from primary school to the university, with prescribed curricula, trained and certified teachers, fixed timetables, examinations and recognised certificates. It is planned by the state or by recognised private bodies, attendance follows rules, and progression from class to class and level to level is regulated. Its essence is system and certification: society agrees that its credentials stand for defined learning, and employers and institutions act on that agreement.

Non-Formal Education

Non-formal education is any organised educational activity outside the formal system's framework, designed for particular groups and purposes: literacy classes for adult women, agricultural extension for farmers, health education for mothers, vocational short courses for out-of-school youth, mosque and community programmes, and distance and refresher courses for workers. It has defined objectives and organised teaching, but it is flexible in age of entry, timing, place, duration and curriculum, and it usually does not lead to the formal system's certificates — though equivalency arrangements increasingly allow its learners to cross over.

Informal Education

Informal education is the lifelong, largely unplanned process by which every person acquires knowledge, skills, attitudes and values from daily experience: the family, play, work, friendship, media, religious life and the observation of others. It has no curriculum and no teacher by appointment, yet it teaches the mother tongue, manners, faith, occupational lore and social attitudes — much of the most durable learning of life. Wise formal and non-formal programmes build on it rather than pretend it does not exist.

Strengths and Weaknesses of Formal Education

The strengths of formal education are considerable. It provides systematic, sequenced learning in which complex bodies of knowledge — medicine, engineering, law, advanced science — can be built step by step under expert guidance, something no casual arrangement can achieve. Its certificates are publicly recognised currency: they allow employers, professions and foreign institutions to trust a standard without re-testing every applicant, and they make large-scale planning of manpower possible. It socialises children into common values, a common language of public life and shared national knowledge, and it concentrates resources — libraries, laboratories, specialist teachers — that scattered learners could never assemble alone. For the individual it remains the most reliable ladder of social mobility.

Its weaknesses are equally real. Formal education is expensive per student and slow to change: curricula are revised at long intervals while knowledge and labour markets move quickly, so schools regularly teach yesterday's content for tomorrow's jobs. It is rigid in age, time and place, and therefore excludes or expels those who cannot conform — the working child, the married girl, the remote villager — and its examination pressure narrows teaching to what is

tested, encourages rote learning and brands the drop-out as a failure even when the failure is the system's. In developing countries its academic bias produces graduates for jobs that do not exist while practical needs go unmet, and its credentials can inflate: as more people acquire a degree, the degree buys less, without learning necessarily increasing.

Strengths and Weaknesses of Non-Formal Education

Non-formal education's strengths are the mirror of formal education's weaknesses. It is flexible: classes meet in the evening, in the village, in the mosque or the factory, at hours and seasons fitted to learners' work, and entry is open to any age. It is directly relevant, because its curriculum is built around the participants' immediate needs — reading a notice, keeping accounts, improving a crop, caring for a child — so motivation is high and learning is applied the same week. It is cheap: it uses existing buildings, part-time and community instructors and short courses, reaching far more learners per rupee than formal schooling. And it is the only mode that effectively reaches the adults and out-of-school children whom the formal system missed, which is why literacy and population, health and agricultural programmes everywhere depend on it.

Its weaknesses must also be faced. Because it lacks the formal system's certification, its learning often carries little weight with employers and cannot, without special arrangements, lead onward to higher qualifications; learners may invest effort and receive no portable proof of it. Quality is uneven: instructors are frequently under-trained and under-supervised, materials are thin, funding is short-term and project-based, and programmes collapse when a donor or an enthusiastic officer departs. Coverage is patchy and hard to plan nationally, drop-out is high where attendance is voluntary, and evaluation is weak, so claims of success are difficult to

verify. Non-formal education is a superb supplement and second chance; treated as a complete substitute for schooling, it risks becoming a second-class education for the poor.

Table 1: Formal and Non-Formal Education at a Glance

Aspect	Formal Education	Non-Formal Education
Structure	Graded, hierarchical, institution-based.	Organised but flexible; outside the graded system.
Learners	Children and youth in age grades.	Any age; particular target groups (adults, drop-outs, workers).
Curriculum	Prescribed, uniform, long-term.	Need-based, local, short-term.
Certification	Recognised degrees and certificates.	Usually none, or local certificates; equivalency possible.
Chief strength	System, standards and recognised credentials.	Flexibility, relevance, low cost and outreach.
Chief weakness	Rigidity, cost, examination pressure, exclusion.	Weak certification, uneven quality, unstable funding.

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In Pakistan the balance between the two modes has practical urgency. The formal system cannot, at present rates of building and recruitment, absorb every child and adult who needs education, and non-formal programmes — literacy centres, community schools, home schools and distance provision such as that of Allama Iqbal Open University, which in organisation stands between the formal and non-formal patterns — carry a large share of the national effort. Policy therefore increasingly seeks bridges between them: equivalency certificates that let non-formal learners enter formal classes at an appropriate level, recognition of prior learning, and shared curricula for basic competencies, so that a learner's route matters less than what he has genuinely learned.

Conclusion

In conclusion, the modes of education — formal, non-formal and informal — are best understood not as rivals but as the three channels through which a society learns. Formal education offers system, depth and recognised certification at the price of rigidity and cost; non-formal education offers flexibility, relevance and outreach at the price of weak certification and uneven quality; informal education underlies both with the learning of everyday life. A mature educational policy therefore funds and connects all three: it strengthens the formal system for children and for advanced knowledge, uses non-formal provision to give the missed and the adult a genuine second chance with bridges back into formal qualifications, and respects the family and community learning on which everything else depends.

Question 5: Short Notes — Universal Primary Education, Female Education, Special Education (20 Marks)

Q. No. 5: Write brief notes on any three of the following: (a) Universal Primary Education (UPE) (b) Environmental Education (c) Female Education (d) Special Education (e) Human Resource Development. (20) — Notes are given below on (a), (c) and (d).

Introduction

This question requires brief notes on any three of the five listed topics. The three selected here — Universal Primary Education, Female Education and Special Education — are closely connected: each concerns a great population whose right to education was historically neglected, and each tests whether a country's declarations about equal opportunity mean anything in practice. Each note defines its subject, explains its importance, states the main

obstacles in a country like Pakistan, and indicates the measures by which progress is being and can be made.

(a) Universal Primary Education (UPE)

Universal Primary Education means that every child, without distinction of sex, wealth, region or ability, actually enrols in primary school, attends regularly and completes the primary cycle with basic literacy and numeracy. It has three dimensions that must not be confused: universal provision (a school within reach of every child), universal enrolment (every child admitted), and universal retention and completion (every child staying and learning to the end of the cycle). A country may approach the first two and still fail the third, which is why drop-out, not admission alone, is the true test of UPE.

Its importance is foundational. Primary education is the base on which all further education and training rest, and its benefits — literacy, numeracy, health knowledge, civic capacity — spread to the whole population, including those who go no further. International commitments from the World Conference on Education for All at Jomtien (1990) through the Dakar Framework (2000), the Millennium Development Goals and the Sustainable Development Goal 4, and constitutional guarantees such as Article 25-A of the Constitution of Pakistan, which obliges the state to provide free and compulsory education to all children aged five to sixteen, all recognise it as a right, not a favour.

The obstacles in Pakistan are well documented: poverty and child labour, distance to school especially in rural and mountainous areas, shortage of schools and of female teachers, poor buildings without water, toilets or boundary walls, weak teaching and corporal punishment that

drive children away, and low perceived value among parents who themselves never attended school. The remedies follow from the diagnosis: building and upgrading schools where children actually live, recruiting and posting teachers — particularly women — locally, abolishing fees and providing free textbooks and, for the poorest, stipends and school meals, enforcing compulsory education legislation with community support and monitoring completion and learning, not enrolment alone. UPE remains unfinished business, but it is the single highest-yield investment in the whole system.

(c) Female Education

Female education is the education of girls and women at all levels, from primary schooling to higher, professional and adult education. For most of history and in many communities still, it was restricted by custom, by early marriage, by the belief that a daughter's work is confined to the home and that investment in her schooling benefits another family after marriage. The result, visible in Pakistan's statistics, is a persistent gender gap: fewer girls enrol, fewer complete each stage, and adult female literacy lags far behind male literacy, with rural women worst served of all.

The case for female education is among the best established in all of development research. An educated woman earns more, marries later, has healthier and better-nourished children, is far more likely to send her own children — especially her daughters — to school, uses health and family planning services more effectively, and participates more fully in household and public decisions. Economists summarise this by saying that the social returns to girls' education exceed those of almost any other public investment, and teachers observe the mechanism directly: the mother's education is the strongest single predictor of a child's schooling. Female

education is therefore not one sector among others; it is the multiplier of the whole system across generations.

Obstacles include poverty, which rationing families resolve against daughters first; distance and unsafe travel; absence of separate toilets and boundary walls; shortage of women teachers, whose presence reassures parents; early marriage; and household labour expected of girls. Effective measures are correspondingly practical as well as persuasive: girls' schools and female teachers in every locality, stipends and conditional cash support for girls' attendance, safe transport, facilities that respect privacy and dignity, second-chance and literacy programmes for women who missed schooling, and sustained engagement with parents and religious and community leaders to present girls' education — as Islam's own emphasis on knowledge for every Muslim requires — as a duty and an honour, not an imported fashion.

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(d) Special Education

Special education is the specially designed instruction, support and services provided to children whose physical, intellectual, sensory, emotional or learning differences prevent them from benefiting fully from ordinary classroom teaching. Its population includes children with visual and hearing impairments, intellectual and physical disabilities, speech and language disorders, specific learning disabilities such as dyslexia, emotional and behavioural disorders, autism and multiple disabilities — and, in the wider definition, gifted children whose needs ordinary provision also fails to meet. The philosophy beneath it has moved historically from exclusion and mere custodial care, through separate special schools and institutions, toward integration and the modern policy of inclusive education, in which the child is educated with his peers as far as possible, with the support he needs brought to him.

Its importance is a matter both of rights and of realism. Children with disabilities are entitled to education on the same constitutional and human grounds as any other child, and the Constitution and Pakistan's commitments under the UN Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities recognise this. Realistically, uneducated disability usually means lifelong dependence, while appropriate education — Braille and mobility for the blind child, sign language and hearing support for the deaf child, functional and vocational training for the intellectually disabled child — converts dependence into self-reliance and contribution, to the relief of families and the benefit of society.

Provision requires early identification and assessment, trained special educators, individualised educational plans, assistive devices and accessible buildings, and close cooperation between school, family and health services. Pakistan has federal and provincial special education departments, special education centres and complexes in the major cities, and training programmes for specialist teachers, but provision reaches only a small fraction of the children who need it, is concentrated in cities, and suffers from social stigma that keeps many disabled children hidden at home. The direction of good policy is clear: identify children early, train ordinary teachers to recognise and refer, resource inclusive classrooms, expand specialist services beyond the cities, and attack the stigma, so that special education becomes what its name promises — education fitted to the child, for every child.

Conclusion

In conclusion, the three notes describe one obligation viewed from three sides. Universal Primary Education demands that schooling reach every child and keep him to the completion of the basic cycle; female education demands that the half of the population historically excluded

be educated, with benefits that multiply across generations; and special education demands that children whose differences place them furthest from ordinary provision receive teaching designed for them. A system that advances on these three fronts simultaneously can credibly claim to provide education for all; one that neglects any of them leaves its finest declarations unfulfilled.

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