GENDER AND SPATIAL IMBALANCES IN HUMAN DEVELOPMENT

A CASE OF FEMALE LITERACY & EDUCATION IN HAZARA-PAKISTAN

BY

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DEPARTMENT OF GEOGRAPHY&
URBAN REGIONAL PLANNING
UNIVERSITY OF PESHAWAR
PAKISTAN

2008

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A THESIS SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY IN GEOGRAPHY

DEPARTMENT OF GEOGRAPHY&
URBAN REGIONAL PLANNING
UNIVERSITY OF PESHAWAR
PAKISTAN

2008

Controller of Exam° UOP
23/2/2012

APPROVAL SHEET

This dissertation titled "**Gender and Spatial Imbalances in Human Development: A case of Female Literacy & Education in Hazara–Pakistan**" presented by Mr. Muhammad Munir Akhtar, for the award of Ph.D degree is hereby approved.

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

*All praises are for Almighty **ALLAH**, the most beneficent, the most merciful, who bestowed upon me with the sight to observe, the mind to think, the courage to work and gave me the opportunity to complete this arduous task. I was in dark, and now by the grace of God my destination appears to be insight. I am hopeful that **ALLAH** will provide me chances to work more and more, and to learn more and more. Peace and blessings of **ALLAH** be upon His the dearest and the last Holy Prophet **HAZRAT MUHAMMAD** (PBUH), who exhorted his followers to seek knowledge from cradle to grave.*

*I am greatly honoured to pay my sincere and humble thanks and the heartiest obligations to my great and honourable advisor, **Prof. Dr. Amir Khan**. His valuable instructions, criticism, tendency of interpretation, and above all vast and splendid research experience helped me a lot in solving various problems relating to my research work. I found him a great teacher.*

*I am also indebted to my senior teachers Prof. Dr. Mehmud-u-Hassan Khan, Chairman, Department of Geography Urban and Regional Planning, Prof. Dr Amir Nawas Khan and professor Mumtaz Khan. Special thanks are here for Mr. Anwar Saeed Mr. Shakil Ahmed, **Mr. Janas Khan Khalil**, Mrs. Fahmida, Mazhar Shah, Rabi Azhar and the other teaching and the non- teaching staff of Geography Department of the University of Peshawar.*

*I must not forget the recent interest of **Major General Tahir Ashraf Khan**, General Officer Commanding 33 Division, Quetta, who inspired and insisted me to show him a copy of thesis when I submit it. I have also enjoyed the company of Colonel Saadat Saeed Bhutta, Leutinent Colonel Junaid Shamim, and the other staff of 33 Division. Here I am also indebted to the services of Colonel Dr. Muhammad Javed, Ph.D (IR) and Major Dr. Avais Jillani, Ph.D (Eng) of PMA Kakul Abbottabad. I am also indebted to my field survey team and many unknown personalities, who did a lot for me during my research but their names could not be mentioned here due to the shortage of time or my ignorance.*

The services of my brothers Ch. Muhammad Rafique and Ch. Abd-u-Rasheed will not be forgotten on any stage of my life from basic to the best education. Their efforts, all helps and affectionate love made it easier and easier for me what so ever I am today.

*Finally, my wife **Rukhsana Munir Akhtar** and sons Aanish Gulfam, Sauban and Aadil deserve special thanks and actual appreciations as they were mostly ignored but they showed a lot of courage and patience during my studies.*

MAJOR
MUHAMMAD MUNIR AKHTAR
29, February 2008, PESHAWAR

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Chapter # 1

Introduction

1.0 Introduction

Pakistan has a beautiful elongated geographical shape with plentiful natural resources and varying eco-systems, including world famous mountain systems, rivers, plains, deserts, plateaus, coastal areas, human settlements, rich culture and biodiversity. However, for a meaningful, equitable and sustainable socio-economic development, there is an urgent need for the initiation of a process through which provision of essential basic social services like education, health, nutrition, water supply, sanitation, population welfare, access and housing may be ensured for the uplift of the quality of life and well being of the people. It is recognized that in Pakistan, women in particular do not enjoy many of the rights given to them by Islam or laid down in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights.

Mainstreaming of gender, particularly in education sector of a nation, is a key to change and progress. Government has taken the initiative and adopted this sector as one of the pillars for poverty reduction and benefit of masses. National Education Policy 1998-2010 was formulated keeping in view the prevailing problems in the society. The government has initiated major administrative reforms, such as devolution of power and education sector reforms. Moreover, Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) and Education for All (EFAs) are the international policy concerns announced in 2000. In order to expand enrolment and provide access to the disadvantaged communities, education up to matriculation has been made free in all Federal and Provincial Government Institutions. The provincial governments have also provided free textbooks to elementary level students and propose to expand this facility up to matriculation; the overall literacy rate of 52 percent has also increased by about two percentage points (**Pakistan Economic Survey; 2004-05**). Like other provinces, the government of NWFP established Women Development Cell

(WDC) in September 2004 in the civil secretariat to monitor women development activities and various women-related plans like the National Plan of Action, National Policy for Development and Empowerment of Women (**Dawn, Sep 27, 2005**).

Despite all these efforts made by the government, most of the female population of NWFP, and particularly of the Hazara region -the study area, is still illiterate as compared to the rest of the country. The female population of the rural areas is more deprived as compared to the urban areas. Therefore, still there remains in Pakistan, the province of NWFP and particularly in Hazara region of northern Pakistan, a marked disparity and day-to-day reality in mainstreaming gender in human development. This study is an attempt to find out the factors widening the gender mainstreaming in literacy and basic education.

1.1 Human development and gender equality

Human development - an idea first popularised and clarified as recently as in 1990, in the UNDP's original *Human Development Report* –as conceived as "a process of enlarging people's choices". The concept was further elaborated by the late Mahbub ul Haq (1998) incorporating the improvements such as; equality of opportunity/ poverty reduction/ income equity; generational sustainability and empowerment, so people can participate in and benefit from development (**Thornley and Perera; 2000, Coates; Johnston and Knox; 1979**).

Gender equality demands women's empowerment, a process that leads to greater participation in social and political processes, greater decision-making power and to conscious action for social transformation that can only be achieved through education. Therefore, the main focus of the present study is on 'gender equity in the achievement of education' because it is firmly enshrined as a central tenet of the human development. Therefore, the gender and spatial imbalances in literacy and basic education are taken as inequality in human development.

1.1.1 UN and gender in Pakistan

The UN's approach to issues of gender was based on a number of internationally agreed commitments. The following are a few examples:

1. "...to reaffirm faith in fundamental human rights, in the dignity and worth of the human person, in the equal rights of men and women..." **(The United Nations Charter; 1945)**.

2. "...Everyone is entitled to all the rights and freedoms set forth in this Declaration, without distinction of any kind, such as race, colour, sex, language, religion, political or other opinion..." **(The Universal Declaration of Human Rights; 1948)**".

3. "...State parties shall take in all fields in particular in the political, social, economic and cultural fields, all appropriate measures, including legislation, to ensure the full development and advancement of women, for the purpose of guaranteeing them the exercise and enjoyment of human rights and fundamental freedoms on a basis of equality with men..."**The Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women; (CEDAW); 1979)**".

4. "...improving the status of women also enhances their decision-making capacity at all levels in all spheres of life..." **(International Conference on Population and Development; 1994)**".

5. "...Women's empowerment and their full participation on the basis of equality in all spheres of society, including participation in the decision-making process and access to power, are fundamental for the achievement of equality, development and peace..." **(Beijing Platform for Action; 1995)**".

Many other UN conferences and legal instruments embrace the same basic values. Thus, the full and equal participation of women in political, economic and social life at all levels of society, and the eradication of all forms of

discrimination on the grounds of gender, are priority objectives of the international community. The recently adopted Beijing Platform for Action constitutes a powerful global agenda for the empowerment of women and calls for the integration of a gender perspective in all policies and programmes. All these initiatives warrant for improvement of female education.

1.1.1.1 Pakistan's commitment

The Constitution of Pakistan (1973) guarantees this equality between women and men. It has the following provisions for affirmative action for women:

1. Article 25 states: *"All citizens are equal before the law and are entitled to equal protection before the law; there shall be no discrimination on the basis of sex alone; nothing in this Article shall prevent the State from making any special provision for the protection of women and children."*
2. Article 34 states: *"Steps shall be taken to ensure the full participation of women in all spheres of national life."*

Pakistan had also adopted several of the international commitments to protect basic human rights and gender equality. These include:

1. The Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948);
2. International Labour Standards and ILO Basic Human Rights Conventions, e.g. Freedom of Association and Protection of the Rights to Organise 1948;
3. Discrimination in Employment and Occupation 1958;
4. The Forward-Looking Strategies for the Advancement of Women (1985);
5. Education for All, Jomtien, 1990;
6. Convention on the Rights of the Child, (CRC) ratified by Pakistan in 1990;
7. Agenda 21, United Nations Conference on Environment and Development, Rio, 1992;

8. Vienna Declaration and Programme of Action, Vienna Conference on Human Rights, 1993;
9. The Programme of Action, International Conference on Population and Development, Cairo, 1994;
10. Platform for Social Development, World Summit on Social Development, Copenhagen, 1995;
11. Beijing Platform for Action, Fourth World Conference on Women, Beijing, 1995;
12. Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women, (CEDAW), Pakistan acceded in 1996;
13. Achieve universal primary education both for boys and girls;
14. Gender equity and empowerment of women by eliminating gender disparity in primary and secondary education preferably by 2005 and to all levels by 2015 (MDG's goals 2&3)

1.1.1.2 The situation in Pakistan

In Pakistan many women in particular do not enjoy many of the rights laid down in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. Despite the best efforts of the Government, many NGOs, and other womens' organisations, there remains in Pakistan a significant disparity between these statements of principle and day-to-day reality. Below are some human social indicators for females and males in Pakistan,

1. Literacy rates: Female 28% Male 51%;
2. Gross primary enrolment: Female 64% Male 80%;
3. Combined enrolment ratio: Female 25% Male 50%;
4. Maternal mortality: 340 per 100,000 live births;
5. Mortality rate (1-4 years): Females 12% higher than males;
6. Labour force participation: Female 11.39% Male 69.1%;
7. Earned income share: Female 20% (excluding house wives) Male 80%;
8. Seats in Parliament: Females 33%;
9. Top administrative/managerial jobs Females 3% **(Pakistan Economic Survey; 2004-05)**.

1.1.2 Education and gender equality in Pakistan

By global consensus, sustainable human development is the goal of international cooperation, and education is decisively important - not only as the prime tool, path or vehicle for reaching that goal, but for its own value in enriching and expanding what it means to be human (**Thornley and Perera, 2000**). Gender disparity can be seen, for example, through the lens of the Gender related Development Index (GDI)[1] and the Gender Empowerment Measurement (GEM)[2], introduced in 2006 UNDP Human Development Reports respectively. Pakistan's GDI ranking is 120th out of 146 countries and HDI ranking is 134th out of 177 countries whilst its GEM ranking is 66 out of 77 countries (**HDR, 2006**). Pakistan's overall record in promoting and delivering gender equality is weak. However, recently, the ratio of girls to boys at all levels of education has improved, the ratio of literate females to males has risen, the share of women in urban employment has also improved marginally and the role of women in national decision- making is better than previous.

But gender concerns are not fully mainstreamed in the overall educational planning and management. The situation of women living in and around cities is better as compared to women living in rural parts where parents are unable to afford the cost of education and access to schools is limited. Public expenditures tend to benefit boys more than girls. The lack of access to education is compounded by dogmatic attitudes and socio-economic factors that inhibit girls' education. The provincial governments are making substantial financial provisions on account of free textbooks and scholarships for girl students at the elementary level. This may lead to increase in enrolment and retention more likely in already advanced urban areas. In spite of all these efforts, no significant uplift of women's status is visible in the rural areas in general and especially the far regions such as the districts of Kohistan and Batagram of Hazara region. As education is universally considered to be an

[1] The GDI attempts to capture achievement in the same set of basic capabilities included in the human development index (HDI) – life expectancy, educational attainment and income – but adjusts the HDI for gender inequality

[2] The GEM measures gender inequality in key areas of economic and political participation and decision-making.

important tool of change for the overall social and economic development of a country, therefore, this research is focussed on gender and spatial imbalances in human development with special reference to literacy and education in Hazara region of Pakistan.

1.2 Scope of the study and relevance of the research

The literature and research publications, discussions with the officials of education and social welfare departments reveal that very few studies of this nature have been carried out on this problem. New horizon in Geography like the gender issues in geographical research is valuable subject of study and research for the modern-age geographers. This important branch of discipline has introduced, the gender perspective in geographic research i.e. like electoral geography, international sex tourism, marriage laws, safety and electrical commerce user trends, the women's status in developing countries i.e. in politics, enterprises and universities, the gender and human rights, education and resources use; and the gender in public space i.e. gender issues in offices, parks and schools (Akhtar; 2002).

1.3 Purpose of the study

There is now a global movement towards universalisation of education. In fact, 'Education For All' (EFA) has become the relying cry of all the people and stakeholders in the area of development. This global emphasis on education is aimed at not only expanding the base of education quantitatively but also enriching its quality. International agencies, such as UNESCO, UNDP, CIDA and even individual countries are striving hard to eliminate illiteracy. For this purpose, various education plans i.e., Five Year Development Plans and national education conferences/policies were introduced. However, in spite of all these efforts the country could not increase the literacy rate more than 45 % (males 56.5% and females 32.6%). The literacy rate is much less in NWFP, where, only 35.4% people are literate (males 51.4% & females, 18.8%), while, in rural areas only 14.7% females are literate respectively, which is lower than the national

figures and highly a matter of concern. In Hazara Region, though the literacy rate of Abbottabad district is 56.6% (males 74.5% & females 39.1%) that is quite higher than the national and the provincial figures. But in the least developed district of Kohistan, the literacy rate is still 11.1% (males 17.2 % & females, just 2.9%), the lowest one in the province (GOP 1998). These figures reveal that there are wide gender and spatial inequalities in the literacy and education rates amongst the females of Hazara Region. Therefore, the purpose of this study is to find out the causes and effects of the gender imbalances and to suggest the measures to overcome the problem of gender and spatial inequalities in human development; in sense of literacy and basic education; in Hazara Region.

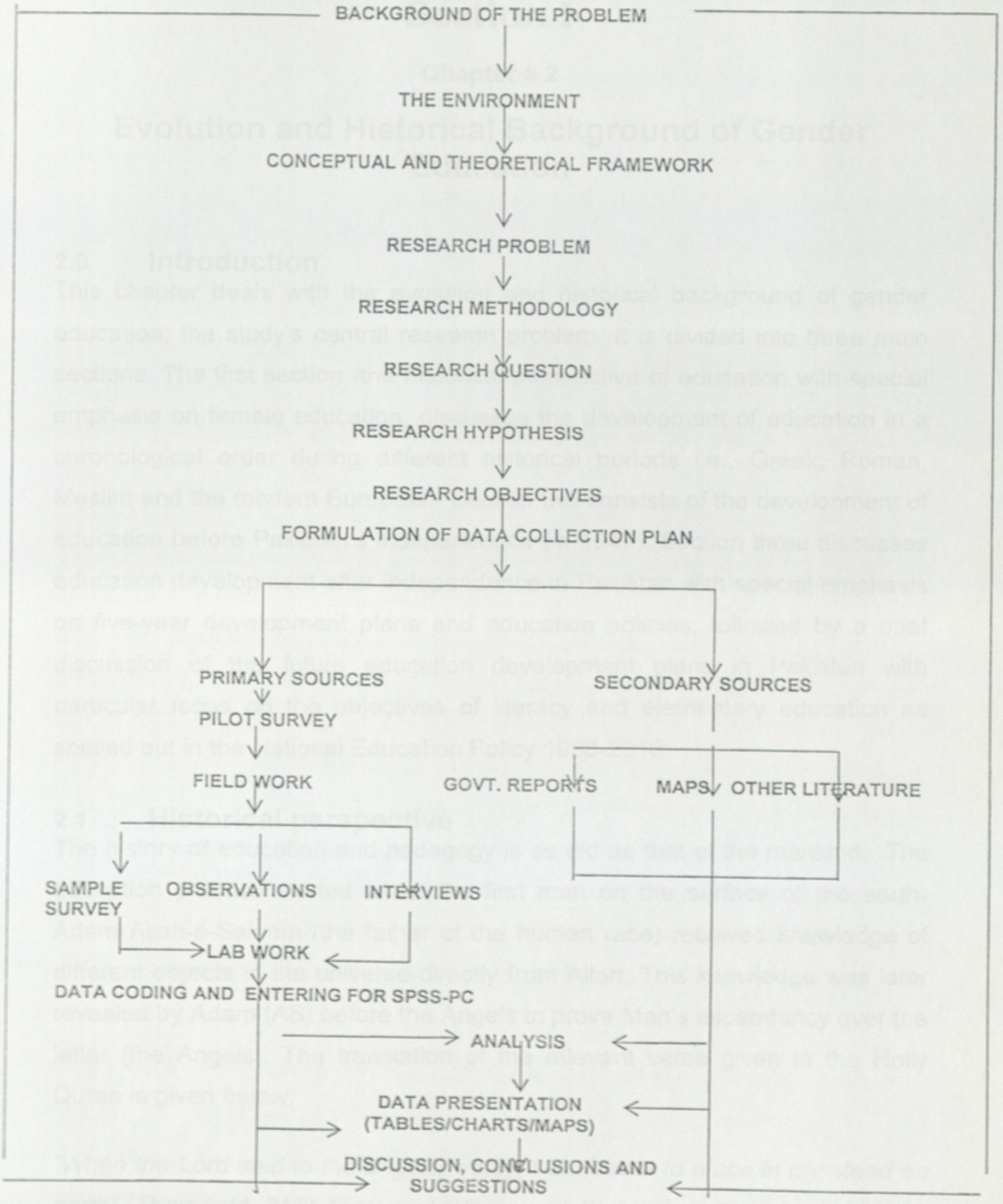
1.4 Study outlines and thesis structure

This thesis is comprised of three sections after a brief introduction; the study out line is shown in fig-1.1. The first section consists of three chapters. Chapter two deals with the evolution of education, female education, development plans and national education policies. Chapter three discusses the Physical and socio-cultural environment of the study area. After the conceptual and theoretical framework, a comprehensive relevant literature review is placed in chapter four.

The Second Section is comprised of five chapters, devoted to the research methodology and the data analysis. Chapter five sets out the research methodology, while chapters six, seven, eight and nine are devoted to the presentation and interpretation of the research findings.

The Final Section (Chapter Ten) consists of an overview of the main findings and discussion. The suggestions to improve female literacy and education are also given in this chapter. The bibliography and all the appendices etc. are attached at the end.

Fig- 1.1 Research Model of the Study



Section I

Chapter # 2

Evolution and Historical Background of Gender Education

2.0 Introduction

This chapter deals with the evolution and historical background of gender education, the study's central research problem. It is divided into three main sections. The first section -the historical perspective of education with special emphasis on female education, discusses the development of education in a chronological order during different historical periods i.e., Greek, Roman, Muslim and the modern European. Section two consists of the development of education before Pakistan's independence (in 1947). Section three discusses education development after independence in Pakistan with special emphasis on five-year development plans and education policies, followed by a brief discussion of the future education development plans in Pakistan with particular focus on the objectives of literacy and elementary education as spelled out in the National Education Policy 1998-2010.

2.1 Historical perspective

The history of education and pedagogy is as old as that of the mankind. The education process started when the first man on the surface of the earth- Adam Allah-e-Salaam (the father of the human race) received knowledge of different objects in the universe directly from Allah. This knowledge was later revealed by Adam (AS) before the Angels to prove Man's ascendancy over the latter (the Angels). The translation of the relevant verse given in the Holly Quran is given below:

"When the Lord said to the angels, 'verily, I am about to place in my stead on earth". They said, "Wilt Thou place there one that will do ill and shed blood,

when we celebrate Thy praise and extol Thy Holiness?" God said, "Verily I know what ye know not". And He taught Adams the names (of all things), and then set them before the angles, and said, "Tell me the names of these things if ye are endowed with wisdom". They (the Angels) said, *"praise is to Thee: We have no knowledge but what Thou hast given us to know. Thou art knowing; and wise". He said, "O! Adam, inform them of the names"! And when he had informed them of the names, God said," Did I not say to you that I know the hidden things of the Heavens and of the earth, and I knew that ye bring to light and what ye hide"?* **(Surah-II; Verses 30_ 33; Al-Quran)**.

The education process starts as soon as the child is born and the mother and the father of the child start tending, taking care of the child. The process continues life long in one form or the other, in informal way or formally. . There are found deep imprints of the ancient civilizations, like Hindus, Buddhist, Jews, Persians, Egyptians, and Chinese, on the face of education. Amongst the Hindus, the Brahmins and the priests had the exclusive charge of education. Women were in absolute subjection to men and had no share in the education process, as teachers, and had little participation as students. The main feature of the education of Jews in the earlier period of their history was that of its being basically of domestic orientation. Only boys, it is believed, learned to read and write. The girls were taught to spin, to weave, to prepare food, to superintend the work of the household and also to sing and to dance. The women, among the Jews, were mostly debarred from acquiring education. In the main education was administered so as to perpetuate class distinctions. There was no appearance of the concept of the education being a universal right and a universal good **(Thompson, 1874; Khalid, 1998)**.

2.1.1 The contribution of Greeks

In the ancient times, the chief characteristic of oriental education was the attempt to preserve and perpetuate the past by the suppression of the individuality. In contrast to this, for the first time, in the history of education, an opportunity was given in Greek education for the development of individuality.

Greek education can be divided into two periods; namely Old and the New Greek periods. The Old Greek period can be further divided into two; the Homeric age and the Historic age including both the parallel systems of Spartan and the early Athenian education. During this period emphases was on the social and institutional aspect rather than upon the individualistic aspect of life (Khalid, 1998).

2.1.1.1 The old Greek period (404-371 B.C.)

The education of Homeric period consisted of practical activities of life. Literary instruction did not exist at all. Training in the ordinary activities of life was given at home, and training for life's higher duties was provided in the council, in war and in expeditions. The council was like an educational institution at that time. The idea of Homeric education was the production of a man possessing both wisdom and power of action (Yasmin, 2001).

The social institution _the 'city state' dominated education in Historic period. The city-state provided the ideals and the basis for education. The family did the same job in Chinese education, but in the historic period of Greek education, the institution of the city-state replaced it. Membership in the city-state was at first limited to the members of the old ruling families who possessed wealth and worth. In time, there evolved another ideal of worth and nobility. The ancient concept of wealth and worth changed. Now property and birth status were not considered an essential elements of nobility. Instead, virtues in spiritual sphere were more emphasised. To produce this worth to result in good life became the aim of education (Ahmed, 2003).

Education in Spartan was typical of the old Greek education. The complete dominance of the state upon the individual was secured through education. The government held the entire control of education in order to preserve their national existence against several political threats around them. The aim of Spartan education was "to give each individual such physical perfection, courage and habits of complete obedience to the laws that he should make

the ideal soldier, unsurpassed in bravery and one in whom the individual was sunk in the citizen", Spartan education was dominantly physical and moral in nature. There was little scope for intellectual and aesthetic development. "The Spartan, unlike any other ancient people, gave women practically the same kind of education as that of men to produce good mothers of the warriors. Women and girls were also given gymnastics to make them capable of child bearing" (**Thompson, 1874; Khalid, 1998**).

The aims and methods of Athenian education were quite simple as those of Spartan, but in many other respects, the educational system of Athens was quite different from the former. The Athenians attached due importance to the family in their process of education in the upbringing of their children. They aimed at preserving it as a means of education and for developing the personality of their children. The Athenian boy attended two types of schools at that time, the music and the gymnastic schools. "Literacy elements of education_ reading and writing_ were also included in the music school at about 600 B.C." (**Khalid, 1998**).

2.1.1.2 New Greek education (479-338 B.C.)

The achievement of the Old Greek Education during the fifth century B.C. was a brilliant period of personal achievement and national progress, which had no parallel in the history of education. The life of the New Greek period of education made greater demands upon the individual and offered greater opportunities for personal achievement. During this period greater emphases was laid upon individual development rather than upon service to the city-state. The New Greek education emerged in its Transitional Period. The Transitional forces influenced the educational system also as it affected many other spheres of life (**Yasmin, 2001**).

The period of transition extended over almost a hundred years, and it ended by the middle of the third century B.C. The chief characteristics of the education in this period were two-fold. The first one was the 'individualistic tendency' and the second was 'formalism in education' that is to say that

education became an intellectual training with the purpose of developing intellect. The Greeks were influenced by the customs of the east. Greek schools, Greek theatres and Greek institutions of every type were found in the cities of then east. Through the work of the Greeks during this period, education became universal; it was no more denied to any section of the people. New types of educational institutions came into existence. Among them the 'Rhetorical' school, the 'peripatetic' school, and the 'stoic' were the three prominent types. Academy and the Lyceum were the institutions of higher education. The University of Athens and University of Alexandria were founded in this period. A vast collection of Greek, Jewish, Egyptian and oriental manuscripts were secured for their huge libraries. After the roman conquest of Greece, even the Roman conquerors accepted and adopted Greek culture. The Greek educational theories and practices were carried on and continued by the Romans (**Thompson, 1874; Khalid, 1998**).

The period of Greek education is a brilliant and golden chapter of the history of education due to the contributions of the Greek educationists and philosophers as given below.

2.1.1.3 Socrates (469-399 B.C.)

. Socrates recognised that the education of the Old Greek period was unable to meet the needs of the New Greek period. Therefore, it needed suitable changes and modifications in it. He also pointed out the problems of the conflict between the social and individual interests and presented solutions for it. He accepted the view of Sophists that "man is the measure of all things "; therefore, man's primary duty is to know these. Socrates believed that 'knowledge is virtue'. Knowledge guides the conduct and by gaining knowledge man lives a virtuous life. He was of the opinion that intellectual development cannot take place by providing an individual with readymade knowledge. Therefore, the aim of education according to him was not verbal instruction, but to enable the individual develop in him the power of knowing and appreciating truths (**Yasmin, 2001**).

2.1.1.4 Plato (427-347 B.C.)

Plato prescribed the same kind of education for women as that for men. Women were to have some training in music and gymnastic and in the art of war, which they must practice like men. Women should undergo the same gymnastic and military exercises as men and boys. While they are yet girls; they should have practised dancing in arms and the whole art of fighting, and when grown up, they should be groomed in taking up arms. He expected of women to fight off the invaders and defend themselves and their youngsters with full force and to that end equip themselves with the needed education and training (Khalid, 1998).

The system of education presented by Plato was supposed to discover the potentialities of an individual and to develop the qualities for the membership in that class for which nature has best fitted him. Development of the personality according to the potentialities of the individual is an aim of education set by modern educational psychology.

2.1.1.5 Aristotle (384-322 B.C.)

To Aristotle the aim of education is the attainment of 'happiness or goodness'. There are two kinds of 'goodness'- "goodness of intellect and goodness of character". The former is the product of training and experience and can be produced or increased. The latter is the result of habit, and it can be attained by the formation of good habits. Aristotle also defined education as 'creation of a sound mind in a sound body'. Thus to him education was the welfare of the individuals so as to bring happiness in their lives (Khalid, 1998).

It must be said in conclusion that the education of which Plato and Aristotle dreamed was restricted to a small minority, and was even made possible only because the majority was excluded from it. In the century of Pericles, at the most glorious period of the Athenian republic there were nearly four hundred thousand slaves to do the bidding of twenty thousand free citizens (Compayre, 1909). In the *Republic*, it was evident that the theory of compulsion in both its phases: the state must provide an education suitable for

state needs; and the young must accept this education because the state has ordained it. For the first time in the history the state appears distinctly and avowedly as an educator.

2.1.2 The contribution of Romans (509-31 B.C-476 A.D.)

In Greece, there were two essentially different systems in use: at Sparta, a one-sided education, wholly military, with no regard for intellectual culture; at Athens a complete education, which brought into happy harmony the training of the body and the development of the mind. Rome in the long course of her history followed these two systems in succession. Under the republic down to the conquest of Greece (509-31 B.C.), preference was given to education after the Spartan type; while under the emperors, (31 B.C-476 A.D.) Athenian education was dominant. Education was exclusively physical and moral or rather military and religious. Besides this there was the study of the Twelve Tables that was of the Roman law (450 B.C), (**Thompson, 1876**). At Rome woman was held in higher esteem than at Athens. She became almost the equal of man. She was the guardian of the family circle and the teacher of her children.

2.1.2.1 Plutarch (50-138 A.D.)

In his essay entitled 'Conjugal Precepts', which recall the Economics of Xenophon, Plutarch restored to the wife, her place in the household. He associated her with the husband in the material support of the family, as well as the education of the children. The mother to nurse her offspring, "Providence", he naively says, "hath also wisely ordered that women should have two breasts, that so if any of them should happen to bear twins, they might have two several spring of nourishment ready for them. The mother shall also take part in the instruction of her children, and so she must her-self be educated. Plutarch proposes for her the highest studies, such as mathematics and philosophy. But he counts much more upon her natural qualities, than upon the science that she may acquire. With women "he says, tenderness of heart is enhanced by a pleasing countenance, by sweetness of

speech, by an affectionate grace, and by a high degree of sensitiveness" (Compayre, 1909).

In contrast to Greek education, which was intellectual, Roman education may be called practical. Greece and Rome had thus furnished the world with two distinct type of education and their modern representatives were seen in our classical and scientific courses respectively. In the Morals of Plutarch, there was first formal treatise on the education of children, while in the later period of Roman education, there was a higher appreciation of women and a nobler conception of the family life.

2.1.3 Christianity and female education (325-597 A.D.)

The letters of Saint Jerome on the education of girls form the most valuable document of the first centuries of Christianity. They have excited high admiration. Erasmus knew them by heart, and Saint Theresa read selections from them everyday. According to him the body is an enemy that must be subdued by fasting, by abstinence and by mortifications of the flesh. "Do not allow Paula to eat in public, that is, do not let her take part in family entertainments, for fear that she may desire the meats that may be served there. Let her learn not to use wine, for it is the source of all impurity" (Letters to Laeta on the education of her daughter Paula, 403 A.D). The ideal of the Saint Jerome is a monastic and cloistered life. The heart is human also and everything human is evil and full of danger: "Do not allow Paula to feel more affection for one of her companions than for others; do not allow her to speak with such a one in an undertone". The Doctor of the Church concludes thus: "Let her be educated in a cloister, where she will not know the world, where she will live as an angel, having a body but not knowing it, and where, in a word, you will be spared the care of watching over her. If you will send us Paula, I will charge myself with being her master and nurse; I will give her my tend rest care; my old age will not prevent me from untying her tongue, and I shall be more renounced than the Philosopher Aristotle, since I shall instruct,

not a mortal and perishable king, but an immortal spouse of the heavenly king" **(Letters to Laeta on the education of her daughter Paula, 403A.D).**

The fundamental characteristic of Middle Age education was the domination of religious conceptions. The training was for the life to come, rather than for this life; it was almost exclusively religious and moral; was based on authority and included the whole human race. The supreme importance attached to the Scriptures made education literary; made instructions dogmatic and arbitrary exalted words over things and made learning a process of memorizing rather than a free inquiry. The inclusion of the whole world in one Christian Commonwealth, led to the intellectual enfranchisement of women and to the rise of primary education proper. The general tendency was towards harshness in discipline, coarseness in habits and manners and contempt for the amenities of life.

2.1.4 The contribution of Muslims (571-1406 A.D.)

The Holy Prophet Hazrat Mohammad (Peace Be Upon Him) was an embodiment of all the best qualities of character. Even before he became the prophet, he was called '*Saadiq'* the truthful one and '*Ameen'* the honest one by his people. Although illiterate himself, but addressed with the 'great gift of education', when he received first verse of the Holy Quran that says: "Read: in the name of your lord Who created, Read, for your Lord is the Most Beneficent, Who taught by the pen, Taught man, what he did not know" **(Surah, 96; Verses-1, 3, 4, 5; Al Quran)**. The Holy Prophet recognized the importance of truth and knowledge in the life of the human beings and laid great emphasis on the acquisition of knowledge. He preached that فريضتة على كل مسلم و مسلمة طلب العلم (acquisition of knowledge is obligatory upon both Muslim male and female irrespective of the sexes). He even acknowledged the importance of travelling in enriching one's experiences and advised all Muslim men and women to acquire knowledge if it is available even in for off places by saying, "seek knowledge though it be in China". After *Hijrat* (migration) from Mecca to Medina the first mosque, 'Masjid-e-Nabvi', became the first '*madrassa'*

(school), where arrangements were made for the propagation of knowledge. People used to gather around the platform of '*Suffa*' and the Holy Prophet (peace be upon him) honoured them with the guidance of Allah (**Yasmin, 2001**).

2.1.4.1 Muslim women in education

While Islam was extending its sway in distant part of the world, Hazrat Ali (the dearest cosine and son-in-law of the Holy Prophet PBUH) was endeavouring in Medina to give an intellectual turn to the newly developed energy of the Arab race. In the Masque at Medina, Hazrat Ali and his cosine Abdullah bin Abbas, delivered weekly lectures on philosophy and logic, the traditions, rhetoric and the law. Muslim women at that time moved freely and attended these lectures. Hazrat Fatima (the dearest daughter of the Holy Prophet, PBUH) also delivered sermons and her virtues gained her the title of 'Our Lady of Light'. Hazrat Ayesha (the wife of the Holy Prophet) held lectures on Hadis and jurisprudence. Syeda Sakina, the daughter of Hazrat Imam Hussain of Karbela, was regarded first amongst the women of her time. Her residence was the resort of poets, *fakihs* (wise) and the learned and the pious people of all classes. Ummul Banin, the wife of Walid-I of the ummeyads, was a very famous learned woman of her time (**Khalid, 1998, Yasmin, 2001**). As said earlier, acquisition of knowledge is appreciated in Islam on the part of both the men and women. Women showed scholarly efficiency and offered patronage to the scholars. Queen Zubaida, the wife of Harun-u-Rashid, was a gifted women and an accomplished poetess. The mother of Muktadir was an intelligent lady and she presided at the High Court of Appeal, listened to applications and passed her judgement. Zainab Ummal Muwajjid was one of the most famous lady jurists in the 6th C.H. (12 A.C.). She got the diplomas of proficiency from the prominent scholars of the age, thus licensing her to teach the laws (**Khalid, 1998, Yasmin, 2001, Ahmed, 2003**).

The Muslim rulers did all what they could for the betterment and welfare of the people. Educated women of the community offered early education to boys and girls. The rich engaged women teachers or elderly ulema to teach the

girls. Muslim rulers were keenly interested in the education of the princess. Gulbadan Begum the daughter of Baber was interested in the study of history. She wrote 'Gulbadan Nama' and 'Humayun Nama', the latter containing an account of the life of his brother Humayun and the events of his period. Saleema Sultana, a wife of Akbar, was a poetess. Nur Jahan, the wife of Jahangir, was a scholar of Persian and Arabic. Mumtaz Mahal, the beloved queen of Shah Jahan, composed verse in Persian. Jahan Ara Begum, the eldest daughter of Shah Jahan was also a highly educated lady. Zaibunnisa, the daughter of Aurangzeb, learnt Arabic and Persian and possessed a great skill in calligraphy (**Khalid, 1998**).

2.1.4.2 Imam Ghazali (1058-1111A.D.)

Abu Hamid, Mohammad Bin Mohammad, surnamed Al-Imamul-Jalil and Zainudin was born at Gazala near Tus in 450 A.H. (1058 A.D.) His early approach towards education and life was philosophical and logical in nature. To him the aim of education is the character and personality development of the learner. Education should aim at the inculcation of desirable traits of behaviour in the child. The child is born well by nature. People lead him on the path of virtue or vice. Education should enable him to distinguish between the true and false, the good and the bad, the right conduct and the evil doings. He realized that religious instructions help in promoting the goodness of character hence he advocated the inclusion of religion in the curriculum. He added further that basic principles of religion, such as commands and tenets, Quran and Sunnah should be taught but the 'controversial topics' should be left out so that there should not be any confusion in the mind of the learner. It is interesting to note that the church in the 19th century adopted the same policy in the teaching of religion (**Khalid, 1998; Ahmed, 2003**).

Imam Ghazali interprets the saying of the Holy Prophet (peace be upon him) 'acquisition of knowledge is the duty of both man and woman' to mean that it is the duty of both man and woman who carry on a profession to gather knowledge about that profession in order that they might keep away from all

possibilities of going wrong. As the duty of a woman is keeping the house and looking after the children, her education should be such as to make her more efficient in the discharge of her duties. It is interesting to see that Rousseau, later on presented the similar view (Khalid, 1998).

2.1.4.3 Ibne Khaldun (1332-1406 A.D.)

Waliudin Abu Zaid, Abddur Rehman Bin Mohammad Ibne Khaldun, commonly known as Ibne Khaldun, one of the greatest thinkers of medieval Islam, was born in Tunis in 1332A.D. He was a man of remarkable knowledge and had deep insight into the problems of history, politics, sociology and education. Perhaps he was the first scientific historian of the world and pioneer of historiography and sociology. Basically a historian, he was not an educationist in the limited sense of the words. However, the last chapter in his *'Muqaddamah'* includes his comprehensive views upon the problems of education with their solutions. Ibne Khaldun expresses the view that education consists of the intellectual and moral training of the mankind through which their hidden potentialities are developed, traits of character are built and the knowledge and culture of people is conveyed to the coming generations. The educational system of a society should be formulated in accordance with the ideology of that particular society. The Muslims have to follow the guidance of Allah, taught by the Prophet Mohammad (Peace Be Upon Him). The knowledge of the Holy Quran and *Sunnah* is necessary for all the Muslim men and women (Ahmed, 2003). He counts the power of thinking and reasoning as very important and valuable as it is the criterion distinguishes mankind from other animals. To him education should aim at the development of this ability of logical thinking and reasoning to its maximum (Khalid, 1998).

2.1.5 The Renaissance and the European contributions

Modern education begins with the Renaissance. From the sixteenth century, education is in possession of its essential principles. The education of the Middle Age, over-rigid and repressive, which condemned the body to a regime too severe, and the mind to a discipline too narrow, is to be succeeded, at

least in theory, by an education broader and more liberal; which will give due attention to hygiene and physical exercises; which will enfranchise the intelligence; which will call into play the moral forces, instead of repressing them; which finally instead of developing but a single faculty, the reason and instead of reducing man to a sort of dialectic automaton, will seek to develop the whole man, mind and body, taste and knowledge heart and will (**Compayre, 1909**).

2.1.5.1 The instruction of women

The scholars of the Renaissance did not exclude women from all participation in the literary treasures that a recovered antiquity had disclosed to them. In the book called '*Christian Marriage*', Erasmus (1492-1540 A.D.), a Spanish teacher, Banter, instructed young ladies who learn only to make a bow, to hold the hands crossed, to bite their lips when they laugh, to eat and drink as little as possible at table, after having taken ample portions in private. More ambitious for the wife Erasmus recommended her to pursue the studies which will assist her in educating her own children, and in taking part in the intellectual part in the life of her husband. In his book '*Wives*', Erasmus expressed analogous ideas on the education of women and had recommended young women to read Plato and Seneca (**Book 1 chaps. xiv. xv).**

2.1.5.2 The education of women in the 17th century

The education of women in the seventeenth century reflects the sentiment of the age as to their relative position in society, their rights and their destiny. Woman was still regarded as the inferior of man, in the lower classes as the drudge, in the higher as an ornament. in her case, intellectual culture was regarded as either useless or dangerous; and the education that was given her was to fit her for a life of devotion or a life of seclusion from society. The education directed by Madame de Maintenon is the beginning of rapture with tradition. It was a movement towards the secularisation of woman's education and towards the recognition of her equality with man, with respect to her grade of intellectual endowments, her intellectual culture, and to her participation in

the duties of real life. The type of the higher education was still monastic, both for men and women. No one was able to conceive that both sexes might be educated together with mutual advantage (**Ahmed, 2003**).

Table 2.1, Great Philosophers and Educationists of the Renaissance.

Sr.No.	Name	Period (A.D.)	Concepts/major contributions
1.	Rousseau	1712-778	His concept of education was naturalistic; against a system of traditional or formal education and he emphasised on the development of the child's inner disposition.
2.	Johann Heinrich Pestalozzi	1746-1827	a. He favoured education for all without making a distinction between the rich and the poor. b. He formulated a practical scheme of education suitable for all, and laid the foundation of elementary school system. c. He believed in the regeneration of a small community by means of education by the noble efforts of a pious woman.
3.	John Dewey	1859-1952	a. The most famous philosopher and educationist of the 20th century, who gave a new concept of education. b. To him education is a necessity of life and life long process and education is not for the future life but it is life itself. c. He regarded education as a continuous interaction between the individual and the society and insisted on applied sciences, industrial arts and on the social factors. d. He was the prophet of democratic principles and values, who advocated freedom of thought and action. e. Modern education is grateful to Dewey for his gigantic contribution towards education.

Source: Field Survey, 2006.

2.1.5.3 Women's education by women

The important part which women, by their abstract reflections or by their practical efforts, take in the progress of pedagogy is not less remarkable. In the history of education, the nineteenth century will be noted for the great number of its women who were educators, some of whom were real philosophers and distinguished writers and others zealous and enthusiastic teachers. The most distinguished of these were Madam Capman, Madam de Remusat and Madam Necker De

Saussure, whose concepts and contributions are briefly given in Table 2.2.

Table 2.2, Great Female philosophers, educationists and writers of 19th century.

Sr.No.	Name	Period (A.D.)	Concepts/major contributions
1.	Madame Campan	1752-1822	a. She appreciated the advantages of maternal education and said," There is no boarding-school, however well it may be conducted, there is no convent, however pious its government may be, which can give an education comparable to that which a young girl receives from a mother who is educated, and who finds her sweetest occupation and her true glory in the education of her daughter". d. She desired that the government should take under its supervision private institutions, and contemplated for women as for men a sort of university, which might replace the convents and the colleges.
2.	Madame De Remusat	1780-1821	a. She believed that woman was the companion of man upon the earth, who was inferior but not subordinate. b. She desired for women an education serious and grave. c. She said, "I see no reason for treating women less seriously than men, for misrepresenting truth to them under the form of a prejudice, duty under the appearance of a superstition, in order that they may accept both the duty and the truth". It is no longer a question, then of training the women and the man for themselves, for their individual destiny. They must be educated for the public good for their duties in society (**Yasmin, 2001**).
3.	Madame Necker De Saussure	1765-1841	She recommends that the marriage of young girls be delayed, so that they may have time to become enlightened spirits and intelligent creatures; so that they may acquire, not an assortment of all petty knowledge, but a solid instruction, which prepares them for the duties of society and of maternity, which make of them the first teachers of their children, which, in a word, starts them on the way towards that personal perfection which they will never completely attain, except by the efforts of their whole life (**Vinet, 1847; Paris, 1855; Compayre, 1909**).

Source: Field Survey, 2006.

2.2 Education development in the Sub-continent before Independence

2.2.1 The contribution of the British in the sub-continent

During Mughals reign, just before the beginning of the British rule, a network of schools and colleges existed in the sub-continent where education was imparted entirely free. The primary schools called *Maktabs* and *Patshallas* were attached to mosques and temples respectively. Education in India was neglected in the beginning of the British period, because the East India Company had no interest in the education of the Indians (**Malik, 1999**).

The Portuguese at Goa and the French at Ponditury made the first efforts at education. The Missionaries opened schools for Indian children and brought out books in the Tamil language. The East India Company Charter Act of 1698 is the first document about education, but it dealt solely with the establishment and maintenance of schools for European children living in different garrisons. The famous missionary Schwartz arrived in 1760. The English Society employed him for Promoting Christian Knowledge. The missionaries including William Carey and Joseph Marshman continued to translate the Bible into different vernaculars with the ultimate goal of large-scale conversion of the population to Christianity. During the same period, Lord Hastings took some interest in promoting education, and a madrassa for the education of Muslim boys, with Arabic as medium of instructions was established in 1784 (**Iqbal, 1981**). In 1800, Lord Wellesley, opened a college at Calcutta, which came to be known as Fort William College. The purpose of this college was that the newly appointed civil servants of the Company may spend three years at the college, complete their western education and acquire knowledge of Indian languages, law and history (**Phillips, 1834**). The charter act of East India Company was renewed in 1853 and as a result of this decision the three universities of Bombay, Calcutta and Madras came into being in 1857. The University of the Punjab in Lahore started in 1878. These universities had a chancellor a vice-chancellor and a senate. These were not residential universities, but only held examinations (**Iqbal, 1981**).

2.2.2 The Muslim contributions in the sub-continent

After the death of Aurangzeb (the last Mughal Emperor), the Muslims were in a state of decay and gradual decline; this was naturally reflected in their education as well. The War of Independence of 1857 and its aftermath left the Muslims of the sub-continent completely shaken. They did not know the directions in which to move; this applied in case of education as well.

Table 2.3, Great Muslim educational institutions in the Sub-Continent in the 19th Century.

Sr.No.	Institution/ Founder	Year (A.D.)	Major contributions
1.	Deoband/ Maulana Mamluk Ali	1866	a. Deoband Academy laid emphases on imparting religious instructions according to the *Hanfi* school of thought. b. Deoband failed in their objective of providing leadership to the Muslim masses because it was divided into two factions; that of Deobandi and Bareilly.
2.	*Ali Garh College/* Sir Syed Ahmad Khan	1877	a. Sir Syed realized that it was not possible for the Muslims to through out the new rulers in the immediate future. b. In Sir Syed's view the only remedy lay in taking up western education so that the Muslims do not remain behind in the race for advancement. c. After establishing Aligarh College in 1877, Sir Syed Ahmad Khan established Muslim Education Conference in 1886. d. The annual sessions of the Mohammadan Educational Conference were held in different cities of the sob-continent. e. Anjuman Himat-e-Islam, Lahore came into existence and Sahibzada Abdul Qayyum Khan founded Islamia College Peshawar in 1913 under the influence of the Aligarh Movement.
3.	*Nadwah/* Maulana Shibly	1896	a. A faction of Muslims split from the Aligarh College in 1896 under the leadership of Maulana Shibly and formed Nadwah-tul Ulema Academy to give importance to Arabic. b. Shibly wrote the biographies of the Holy Prophet (Peace Be Upon Him), Hazrat Omar and Al-Mamoon. c.The Nadwah-tul-Ulema, in fact attempted to combine the study of religious and secular subjects but Shibly's ideas and hopes remained unfulfilled.

Source: Field Survey, 2006.

Muslims were on the march towards the wider fuller education. They had completely freed themselves from their averseness to western knowledge. They had joined the universities in large numbers and many of them went abroad to receive higher education. Every middle class Muslim family sent their children to high schools, and inspired to give them a university education this was the state of Muslim education in the sub-continent when Pakistan was established in 1947 (**Mujeeb, 1971 Malik, 1999**).

2.3 Future of education development in Pakistan

In Pakistan the overall strategy, during the period from 1947 to 1997 has remained one of expansions of the existing system and efforts have been directed solely to the establishment of more of the existing type of formal institutions. Thus, more and more replications of the existing model have been the major approach to the solution of the problem of education sector.

The basic and universal primary education, though reflected in most of the education policies and plans, (attached as **annex-E**) was practically neglected for the sake of higher education. The Jomtien Conference in 1990 gave a major boost to external support for attaining the goal of basic education as "Education for All" (EFA) (**Haq, 1998**).

2.4 Summary and Conclusion

In addition to Greeks, Romans, Christians and Muslims, there were great impacts on the face of education of the ancient civilizations like Hindus, Buddhist, Jews, Persians, Egyptians, and Chinese. Though; the period of Greek education was a brilliant and golden chapter of the history of education but at Rome woman was held in higher esteem than at Athens. If the Greek education was intellectual, Roman education might be called practical. In Christian period; the inclusion of the whole world in one Christian Commonwealth, led to the intellectual enfranchisement of women, however, there was harshness in discipline, coarseness in habits and manners and contempt for the amenities of life.

Chapter # 3

Environment of the Study Area

3.0 Introduction

A region can be an area with common characteristics that set it off from other areas. It may be a part of the city, country, state province, nation or the world. A region generally has no distinct geographical or political boundaries but is known by its characteristics. It may be known by its mountains, rivers, climate, soils, minerals, forests or crops. Regions are human creations for the purpose of analysis, synthesis and planning. Social Regions are made to study geographically, the human characteristics, customs, religions and traditions, as well as their style of living with environmental suitability or unsuitability. In this way similarities and differences are discussed about different societies.

In addition to gender differences in literacy, this thesis also discusses the spatial variation of education in the Hazara region of Pakistan. Therefore, this chapter is divided in two main sections-the physical and the human environment of the study area. In section one- the physical environment, the location, physical features, topography, rivers, streams and climate are described. In section two-human environment, the ethnography, central places and educational institutions are described.

3.1 Physical environment of Hazara

Physical environment includes name and location; scenery and the study of physical features and topography.

3.1.1 Name

The name of the study area, 'Hazara' is enigmatic. It has been identified as *Abisara*, the mountain Chief of this area at the time of Alexander's reign. Dr. Stein regards it as derived from Urasha, the ancient name of Pahli, which still survives in the Orash or Rash plain. In 1399 A.D., Timur, after his invasion of India, made the region over to a number of Karlugh (settlements) Turks and to

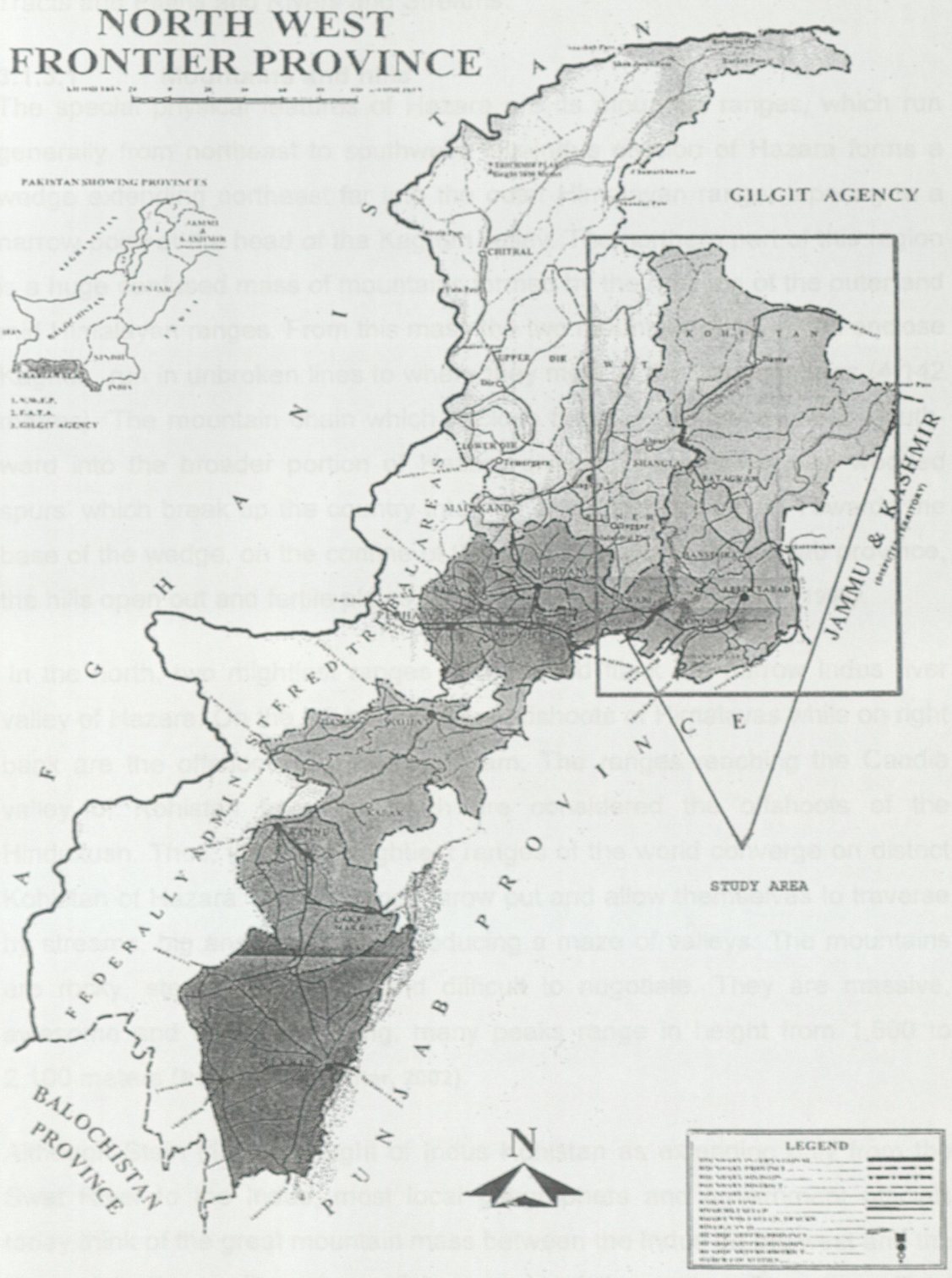
this settlement of Turks the name Hazara is probably given. Hazara or 'thousand' in local language, is a translation of the Turkish word *Ming*, meaning a regiment of a thousand men and Hazara is, therefore, the country of the Turkish *Ming* or regiment (GOP, 1961, GOP, 1998).

3.1.2 Location

The Hazara region lies between 33º-45´ to 35º-02´north latitudes and 72º-36´ to74º-09´east longitudes. It consists mainly of a narrow wedge of territories lying between the Indus and the Jhelum rivers, shaped like an ox-tongue with its base to the south and its apex to the north. Murree, Islamabad, Rawalpindi and Attock districts bound it, in the south. On the western boundary's southern half, there is Swabi district, separated by river Indus and in the northern half; there lie districts of Shangla and Buner. On the north lies Gilgit Agency of the northern areas of Pakistan, while in the east, is Muzaffarabad, the capital of AJK (Azad Jammu and Kashmir) and in the southeast, there is river Jhelum. Presently, the region consists of five districts namely; Haripur; Abbottabad Mansehra; Batagram and Kohistan (GOP, 1961; GOP, 1998).

The region of Hazara is like a door to heaven, opening up to visitors a world replete with natural beauty. It was a famous gateway from the plains into Kashmir during Mughal, Durrani and Sikh rule. It has a large area, some 10,000 square kms. The world famous Karakoram highway starts from Jarikas and ends in the northern end of Kohistan. The mighty river Indus or Abasin flows through entire length of Hazara. Hazara is strategically located between the northern areas, Azad Kashmir, Punjab and the rest of the NWFP. Hill stations collectively known as '*Galiat*' *(*mean valleys) and the Kaghan valley are the best known parts of Hazara. Pakistani and foreign tourists throng its cool and serene valleys during sizzling summer. Thandiani, Nathiagali, Dongagally, Ayubia, Balakot, Shogran; near Kaghan are the important resorts in Hazara region (GOP, 1998).

Map 3.1 Location of the Study Area in NWFP and Pakistan.



3.1.3 Physical features and topography

Physical Features and Topography includes the study of Mountains and Hills; Tracts and Plains and Rivers and Streams.

3.1.3.1 Mountains and hills

The special physical features of Hazara are its mountain ranges, which run generally from northeast to southwest. Cis-Indus division of Hazara forms a wedge extending northeast far into the outer Himalayan range, tapering to a narrow point at the head of the Kaghan valley. The northern part of this region is a huge confused mass of mountains formed by the meeting of the outer and mid Himalayan ranges. From this mass the two mountain walls, which enclose Kaghan, run in unbroken lines to where they meet at the Babusar pass (4,142 metres). The mountain chain which enclose the Kaghan defile sweep southward into the broader portion of Hazara division, throwing off well wooded spurs' which break up the country into numerous isolated glens. Towards the base of the wedge, on the confine of the Attock district of the Punjab province, the hills open out and fertile plains takes of the terraced hills (**GOP, 1998**).

In the north, two mightiest ranges of the world flank the narrow Indus river valley of Hazara. On the left bank are the offshoots of Himalayas while on right bank are the offshoots of the Karakoram. The ranges reaching the Candia valley of Kohistan from the north are considered the offshoots of the Hindukush. Thus, the three mightiest ranges of the world converge on district Kohistan of Hazara. These ranges throw out and allow themselves to traverse by streams, big and small, thus producing a maze of valleys. The mountains are rocky, steep, precipitous and difficult to negotiate. They are massive, awesome and very intimidating, many peaks range in height from 1,800 to 2,100 meters (**PCDP, 1995, Akhtar, 2002**).

Although Stein (1942) thought of Indus Kohistan as extending only from the Swat River to the Indus, most local geographers and government officials today think of the great mountain mass between the Indus on the west and the Kaghan to the south-east as all being part of this region. Even the official

record of the British Army expeditions in the area as early as 1884 A.D., referred to this region as being Cis-Indus Kohistan, 'the name applied to the country to the south and west of Chilas, between the Kaghan glen and the river Indus (**Paget, Lt.Col, 1884**). Of the southern limits of the region the only mention that is made by anyone who has done any work in the area comes from Barth, who talks about it as being somewhere near, where the mountains starts receding from its banks (Indus) as its enters Buner (**Barth, 1956, Akhtar, 2002**).

In general, it is said that the north-eastern Hazara follows the typical pattern of regions in their youthful stage of physiographic development. This is evident from the region's characteristically steep-sided, v-shaped valleys and fast rushing streams. The fact that the angle of the slope of the 'V' is controlled by the rate at which the rainfall, local drainage and slip can remove the sides compared with the rate at which the river deepens the bed itself, is extremely significant (**Gresswell, 1958; Akhtar, 2002**).

On the east of Hazara region, the main chain is a long ridge that flanks the right bank of the Kunhar and the Jhelum rivers and terminates in the hills of Murree and Khanpur. At the northern end its peaks attain a height of over 4,500 meters; near the centre; where it is known as the Dongagally range, it varies from 2,100 to 3,000 meters; and at the Khanpur end Sribang, the highest summit is about 1,712 meters. Separating from then above range, another chain flanks the left bank of the Kunhar River and forms part of the boundary between Hazara and Kashmir. Here, the highest peak is *Mali-ka-Parbat*, which is over 5,150 meters. The western ridge diverges from the eastern one at the *Musa-ka-Mussala* peak (4,054 meters). Skirting the north end of the Bogarmang and Konsh valleys, and sending down a spur to divide the two, it encircles Agror, its western chain forming the for-famed Black Mountain (2,400 meters). Then breaking up into numerous spurs and offshoots, it becomes the maze of hills constituting the Tanawal Tract, through which the river Siran forces its way to join the Indus. The highest peaks here

are *Bhigara* (2,576 meters) and *Billiana* (1,876 meters). The end of range is formed by the Gandgar hills, which lie along the Indus to the south west of the Siran and attain a height of little more than 1,200 meters (**Abbasi, 1991**). The locations and characteristics of principal tracts and plains are shown in table3.1.

Table-3.1, Hazara, location and characteristics of principal tracts and plains.

Sr. No.	Tracts and Plains	Location and characteristics
1.	**The Khanpur Panjkatha**	It is a well watered plain lying in the south-eastern corner of the Haripur district, where, the Harroh emerges from the Khanpur hills. Khanpur dam is built, which supply water to Islamabad and also meets the needs of local irrigation.
2.	**The Khari Tract**	It is a narrow level strip of land between the Gandgar range and the Indus. Now Ghazi Brotha power channel is built here. North of this is Tarbela Dam; in which the Siran river joins the Indus. This entire tract was submerged under the reservoir of the Tarbela Dam.
3.	**Dhan Basin**	The Nara hills enclose an elevated basin called the "Dhan", with a moist and marshy soil. On the Dhand branch of the Upper Harroh lays the Lora tract, an open valley somewhat broken by low hills.
4.	**Chatter Plain**	Last come the small but level Chatter plain up at the head of the Konsh valley, in the northwest portion of the Mansehra, with a height from 1,500 to 1,800 meters.

Source: Field Survey, 2006

3.1.3.2 Rivers and streams

The important rivers of the region are Indus, the Siran, the Dor, the Harroh and the Kunhar. The Indus, which passes through the middle of northern Hazara (district Kohistan), skirts the rest of Hazara on the west for 30 meters and the Jhelum on the east for 25 meters (GOP, 1961, Ahmed S.A., 1986, Abbasi, 1991).

The Siran River rises in the north of the Bogarmang valley, flows through the western portion of the Pakhli then dives into the Tanawal hills and flowing through the former states of Phulra and Amb, emerging in the Haripur plain and turns north-west to join the Tarbela Dam Lake near Thapla. Its total course is from 112 kms to 128 kms and it irrigates substantial areas in Mansehra and Abbottabad districts. The Dor River rises at the northern end of

Dongagally range, flows through the Haripur Plain and joins the Tarbela Lake near Haripur. Its length is about 40 meters and it irrigates a little area in Abbottabad and a large area in Haripur district. The Harroh River rises at the southern end of Dongagally range, where it has two main branches, namely, Dhund and Karral Harroh. The two streams unite at the head of the Khanpur tract and the river debouches on the Khanpur Panjkatha, where a dam is constructed. The Kunhar River rises from the Lake called Lalu Sar at the head of the Kaghan valley and after a generally turbulent course of 176 kms joins the Jhelum River south of Muzaffarabad. It flows through deep mountain gorges from its source up to Balakot, from where it enters a broader plain, down to Garhi Habibullah, below which, it again flows through deep gorges until it joins the Kishanganga River, which further joins the Jhelum (**GOP, 1961, Abbasi, 1991**).

These rivers have innumerable tributaries, some with a permanent flow, and other with a scanty trickle from a spring in the bed. They are known as *Kathas* as distinct from *Kassis*, which are dry ravines. In a hilly region like Hazara, the dry nullahs or ravines are numerous with wide stony beds and many of them testify to the occasional violence of their floods.

3.2 Climate

The climate of the region is very varied too on account of the variety of its topography. The heat of the lower hills sometimes is very severe and the temperature often goes above110f in Haripur during June and July. In the Rash and Pakhli plains the climate is cooler, and the summers are generally cool although during years of scanty rain, July and August can be unpleasantly hot. The winter in these tracts is much more severe than down at Haripur. Frost is frequent and the snow falls at times in the month of January, but it is very small in quantity in the plains though the snowfall is heavy in mountains. The months of December, January and February are extremely cold and are made much colder by the winter rain. But the climate during the spring and summer is sufficient compensation for the drying winter. The most elevated

tracts of the region are uninhabitable in winter owing to snow and cold. But in summer; their coolness affords a welcome change from the sultriness of the plains and the bracing air of the Galis in the Abbottabad district makes it one of the most delightful summer stations to which many people come to escape the heat of plains (GOP, 1961, Abbasi, 1991). The comparative climatic data recorded at Balakot of Mansehra district and Kakul of Abbottabad districts is given respectively in table-3.2.

Table-3.2 Balakot and Kakul: Mean Monthly Temperature, Precipitation and Relative Humidity

Months	Mean Temperature (°C)				Precipitation (Millimetres)		Relative Humidity (%)
	Maximum		Minimum				
	Balakot	Kakul	Balakot	Kakul	Balakot	Kakul	Balakot
January	14.0	12.6	2.0	1.8	94.9	64.8	67.1
February	15.4	13.4	3.9	2.9	153.5	113.6	63.4
March	19.5	17.8	7.6	6.9	188.6	142.3	59.9
April	25.3	23.3	12.6	11.4	134.3	111.8	54.3
May	31.0	28.2	17.2	15.5	77.0	81.6	43.3
June	35.3	32.4	21.0	19.7	98.4	85.3	42.2
July	32.3	29.6	21.3	20.1	359.4	258.3	67.3
August	31.3	28.2	20.6	19.3	292.5	261.3	75.1
September	30.9	27.8	17.1	16.8	100.8	96.9	65.8
October	27.5	24.9	11.5	12.0	44.7	56.9	58.9
November	21.9	20.1	6.2	7.2	45.9	31.9	62.1
December	16.0	15.0	2.9	3.4	81.2	61.5	68.5
Annual Average	25.1	22.8	12.0	11.4	167.9	113.9	60.7

Source: Pakistan Meteorological Department, Karachi.

3.3 Ethnography

People of various races and tribes inhabit Hazara. The population of Abbottabad city is rather heterogeneous, as people from outside have settled down here in connection with trade and commerce. The indigenous population of Hazara is not of Pathan origin except for a few tribes. The locations of principal tribes of Hazara are shown in table3.3.

Table-3.3, Hazara, Locations of principal tribes.

Sr. No.	Tribe	Main occupied areas
1.	Awan	They are concentrated in Sikanderpur, Changi Bandi and most of the villages located along side river Dor.
2.	Gujjar	Gujjars are scattered throughout Hazara and particularly they are concentrated in Kot Najibullah, Mang, Chamba Pind and villages surrounding Khanpur in Haripur district.
3.	Jadune	Jadunes have occupied the Mangal tract, the Rash and the Rajoia plains, in addition to central Abbottabad district.
4.	Mishwani	They are mostly inhabitants of Srikot and Baso Mera villages of Haripur district.
5.	Pathan	They are inhibited mostly in the areas of Nara, Amazai, Baitgali and Ghazi.
6.	Syed	They are scattered throughout Hazara region.
7.	Tanoli	They are inhabitants of upper and lower Tanawal.
8.	Tureen	They are inhabited in the villages of Derwesh, Rehana and Pandik of Haripur district.
9.	Tarkheli	They are concentrated in Ghazi tehsil of district Haripur.
10.	Turk	They are found in few scattered villages of Hazara region.

Source: Field Survey, 2006

3.4 Central places and education institutions

Hazara Region consists of five districts; namely; Haripur; Abbottabad; Mansehra; Batagram and Kohistan respectively. The gender wise state of educational institutions of each district is shown in table 3.4.

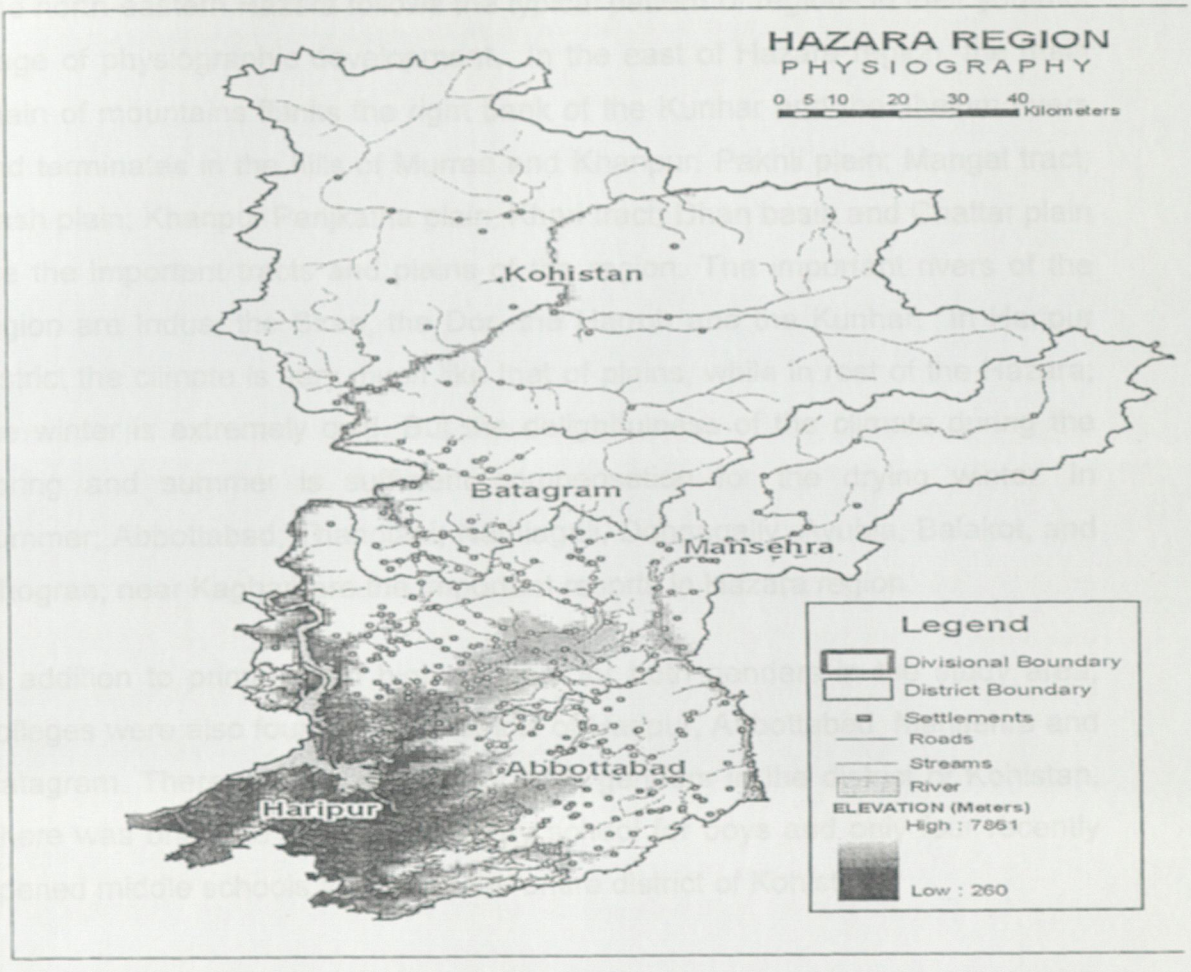
Table- 3.4 Hazara, Central places and gender wise state of educational institutions

Sr. No.	Central place	Education institutions
1.	Haripur It was founded in 1822 A.D. by Hari Singh Nalva, a Sikh General of Ranjit Sigh's army. The district is situated at 33°-44' to 34°-22' north latitudes and 72°-35' to 73°-15' east longitudes, about 610 metres above the sea level.	a. There were only one Govt. Post Graduate College, Inter College; Govt. Polytechnic Institute; Commerce College and Elementary College for boys and a Degree College for both genders. b. There were 4 Higher Secondary Schools for boys and 3 for girls; 63 High Schools for boys' and15 for girls; 56 Middle Schools for boys and 27 for girls; 656 Primary Schools for boys and 251 for girls respectively.
2.	Abbottabad	a. There were only one Ayub Medical College for co-education and also one Govt. Post Graduate

	It is named after the founder James Abbot, Hazara's first British Deputy Commissioner. The district is the central place of Hazara region. It is at a distance of 121 kms from Islamabad. Its height is 1220 metres from sea level. The district lies from 33°-50′ to 34°-23′ north latitudes and 72°-35′to73°-31′east longitudes.	College, Inter College; Govt. Polytechnic Institute; Commerce College and Elementary College for boys and a Degree College for girls. b. There were 7 Higher Secondary Schools for boys and 3 for girls; 62 High Schools for boys and 24 for girls; 68 Middle Schools for boys and 40 for girls; 523 Primary Schools for boys and 455 for girls respectively. c. There were 405 Mosque Schools; 14 Maktabs Schools for boys; 4 Community Model Schools for girls and one Japan Model School for both genders.
3.	Mansehra The district derives its name after Man Singh, the Governor General under Ranjit Singh in 1825 A.D. The town is at a distance of 145 kms from Islamabad and 24 kms to the north of Abbottabad. The district lies from 34°-14′ to 35°-11′ north latitudes and 72°-49′to74°-08′east longitudes.	a. There were only one Govt. Post Graduate College, Govt. Polytechnic Institute; Commerce College and Elementary College for boys and three Degree Colleges. b. There were 11 Higher Secondary Schools for boys and 2 for girls; 70 High Schools for boys and 26 for girls; 115 Middle Schools for boys and 45 for girls; 883 Primary Schools for boys and for girls respectively. c. There were 599 Mosque Schools; 21 Maktabs Schools and one Japan Model School for boys.
4.	Batagram The beautiful valleys of Batagram district are located at latitude 34° - 40′north and longitude 73°- 01′ east. Its Headquarters is at Batagram town at a distance of 210 kms from Islamabad; 99 kms from Abbottabad and 75 kms from Mansehra respectively on the Silk Highway.	There was only one Degree College for boys. b. There was only 1 Higher Secondary School for boys; 20 High Schools for boys and 1 for girls; 25 Middle Schools for boys and 9 for girls; 338 Primary Schools for boys and 166 for girls respectively. c. There were 157 Mosque Schools; 3 Maktabs Schools and one Japan Model School for boys and non for girls.
5.	Kohistan The district 'Kohistan', which means mountains, lies between 34° 54′ to 35° 52′ north latitudes and 72° 43′ to 73° 57′ east longitudes.	There was only 1 Higher Secondary School for boys; 10 High Schools for boys; 56 Middle Schools for boys and 4 for girls; 732 Primary Schools for boys and 147 for girls respectively

Source: Data Collected from the Offices of the District Coordinating Officers in the study area.

Map 3.2 Hazara Region: Physiography and Settlements.



3.5 Summary and Conclusion

The north-eastern Hazara follows the typical pattern of regions in their youthful stage of physiographic development. In the east of Hazara region, the main chain of mountains flanks the right bank of the Kunhar and the Jhelum rivers and terminates in the hills of Murree and Khanpur. Pakhli plain; Mangal tract; Rash plain; Khanpur Panjkatha plain; Khari tract; Dhan basin and Chattar plain are the important tracts and plains of the region. The important rivers of the region are Indus, the Siran, the Dor, the Harroh and the Kunhar. In Haripur district the climate is very much like that of plains, while in rest of the Hazara; the winter is extremely cold. But the delightfulness of the climate during the spring and summer is sufficient compensation for the drying winter. In summer; Abbottabad; Thandiani; Nathiagali, Dongagally, Ayubia, Balakot, and Shogran; near Kaghan are the important resorts in Hazara region.

In addition to primary and high schools for both genders in the study area; colleges were also found in the districts of Haripur, Abbottabad, Mansehra and Batagram. There was no college for both genders in the district of Kohistan. There was only one higher secondary school for boys and only four recently opened middle schools for girls in the entire district of Kohistan.

Chapter # 4

Theoretical Framework and the Literature Review

4.0 Introduction

In the previous chapter, the physical and the socio-cultural environment of the study area was discussed in detail, while this chapter deals with the theoretical, conceptual framework and the literature review related to the research problem. The chapter is divided into three sections. The section one is theoretical framework regarding the human development and gender development, which is further divided into women and development; rural women; geography and development; the parameters of human geography and the geography of social inequality and uneven development. Section two consists of the concepts of development; and is further divided into subsections: education and development; literacy and development and the gender view of development. The last section deals with the literature review of the present study.

4.1 Theoretical Framework

4.1.1 Development

Development, as a process or action, in its simplest sense, means bringing about change for the welfare of the common man of the society (**Iqbal, 1981**).The First Regional Conference of Ministers of education of Asian Member States (April, 1962), viewed development not just as economic growth; rather it comprehended 'opportunities to all people for better life', with man 'as the end of the development and the instrument' (**Singh; 1986**).

The new paradigm of development subscribes to the principle of "participatory" development i.e.; development from the grass roots with the full participation of the people for their cultural, economic and educational growth, and where there will be no classification of superior and inferior (**Adeel U.K.; 1994**). The alternative development paradigm is that development should not be delivered from above. Development being endogenous, it is not possible with somebody else's thinking and knowledge, nor is a relation of equality possible if one feels

that knowledge essential for one's development rests with others (Rehman, 1991). The developing countries of the third world have as their common goal the improvement of conditions of their citizens. There is a sense of urgency to develop their resource potential at a very fast pace in order to catch with industrialized and developed nations of the world. These aspirations are thwarted by a number of factors and make the task extremely difficult. Such factors include the problems of population explosion, unemployment, poverty and a large scale illiteracy. Under these trying conditions, there is an urgent need to fix priorities for development. The main emphases in Pakistan should be laid on the uplift of rural areas by creating the sense of self-responsibility through the newly established local governments.

Human development is viewed in two different ways. According to one view, development is a process of economic growth, a rapid and sustained expansion of production, productivity and income per head. According to the other espoused by the UNDP's annual Human Development Report and by many distinguished economists, development is seen as a process that enhances the effective freedom of the people involved to pursue what ever they have reason to value (Khalid,1998;Yasmeen, 2001).

Various indicators of the quality of life have been suggested such as longevity, good health, adequate nutrition, education and access to the world's stock of knowledge, absence of gender-based inequality, political and social freedoms, autonomy, access to power, the right to participate in the cultural life of the community and in important decisions affecting the life and work of the citizens and so forth. Clearly any set of quantitative indicators is bound to be less rich than the concept of human development. But these are things that matter according to the second view of development-which focuses on increasing the capabilities of people and enlarging their choices, not just the enlargement of material products.

4.1.2 Parameters of Human Geography

The study of the subject of Geography has been divided into two main disciplines, the Physical Geography and the Human Geography. Physical Geography deals with the study of variations in the physical make up of the earth, while Human Geography deals with 'man,' being the central excel in the natural phenomena and the main inhabitant on the surface of the earth. In France, a flourishing school of Human Geography examined and sought to explain the multiple relationships between man, his activities and the environment. Some geographers have considered Human Geography too broad in scope, globing as it does the geographical study of economies, societies, settlement, transport and political units (**Clarke, 1969**). Basing on this concept and the growing emphases upon man as the principal inhabitant of the planet a vital branch of Human Geography emerged as Population Geography, concerned with the study of spatial variations in the distribution, composition, migrations and growth of populations. Trewartha (1953), who provided a vital framework for geographical studies of population, viewed that "numbers, densities, and qualities of the population provide the essential background for all geography". He concludes that the list of human characteristics of practical interest to the population geographer may be equated with "those appearing in the census enumeration schedules and vital registration systems of the more statistically advanced nations". The human characteristics fall into following groups:

1 Absolute Numbers.
2 Physical Characteristics: age, sex, race, morbidity, and intelligence.
3 Social Characteristics: marital status, family, household, residence literacy, education, language, religion, nationality, ethnic group and gender role.
4 Economic Characteristics: industry, occupation, and income.
5 Population Dynamics: fertility, mortality, migration, and change (**Clarke, 1969**).

The present study is focussed on some of the physical; social and the economic characteristics. The emphases are made on the brightest indicator of the human development i.e., the spatial and the gender participation in the attainment of literacy and basic education.

4.1.3 Geography of social inequality and uneven development

Identifying the spatial component of social inequalities is crucial not only to the study of human geography but also to the improvement of social conditions within society as a whole. Unfortunately geographers have traditionally ignored social problems preferring to study the production of goods and services and the distribution of resources rather than the conditions in which people live. It is fact that geographers, in comparison with sociologists and political scientists, have paid little attention to social inequalities, nevertheless, the focus of geography is surely spatial differentiation (**Smith, 1972**).

There are many parameters and aspects of development, such as- access, development and exploitation of various natural resources, provision of basic needs and requirements. Quite naturally, Geographers have played a prominent role in the proliferating literature concerned with diagnosing, explaining and prescribing for the regional problem. Their view has been that the qualities itself hold one of the keys to explaining uneven development. Rich's (1980) 'locational hypothesis', argued that all regions in any given economic system are competing for a share of the total economic activity, but by virtue of their location, some posses relative advantages and are therefore able to attract an over large share of people at the expense of other regions. In order to measure this form of locational advantage, Clark (1968) has applied the concept of population potential and more recently, Keeble (1982) has used the derived index economic potential, (which substitutes GDP for population) and derive a threefold classification of Expended European Community (EEC) regions into central, intermediate and peripheral. Regional growth is cumulative and self-perpetuating, therefore, if large central agglomerations are attractive to people then by attracting, they become even

larger and still more attractive. This self-expanding 'snowball effect' is one of the classic principles of regional development theory and has been noted under the various labels of 'agglomeration economies' (**Weber, 1909**), 'cumulative causation' (**Myrdal, 1957**) and 'regional multiplier' (**Isard, 1956**) by which, accumulative growth in some locations occurs at the expense of others. It means that agglomeration in some regions produces de-agglomeration in others and development in some regions brings about under development in others.

These theories provide bases for the present study. In Hazara region of N.W.F.P, there are comparatively agglomerated, well-developed districts of Abbottabad, Haripur and Mansehra, causing de-agglomeration not only in the far flung mountainous localities of the same districts but also in the least developed districts of Kohistan and Batagram in the sense of Human Development.

4.1.4 Education and development

The concepts of different thinkers about education and literacy have already been given in chapter-2. Therefore, intention here is not to go into a philosophical discussion. The purpose is simply to present a few contemporary definitions.

Education-according to International Dictionary of Education means, "The total process of developing human ability and behaviour". It is "a special process in which one achieves social competence and individual growth, carried on in a selected controlled setting which can be institutionalised as School or College. The term education is also used in the sense of theory of education or disciplines of education". (**Terry G. 1991**).

Education and development are linked in a variety of ways. Education is a human right, the exercise of which is essential for individual development and fulfilment. The individual's capacity to contribute to societal development is made possible and enhanced by his or her development as an individual. In

this sense, education is also a basic need, by means of which other needs, both collective and individual, are realized. Education is the instrument by which the skills and the productive capacities are developed and endowed (Singh, 1986). There is a universal consensus on the fact that education and development reinforce each other. The old model of development or economic growth through modernization and industrialization has reversed. The idea behind that economic model for development was to raise the income of the people. That model of development could not achieve its objective to eliminate poverty. On the other hand, it destroyed the balance between population and natural resources in the process of industrialization (Adeel U.K., 1994). Educational development is undoubtedly instrumental in increasing the level of productivity in an economy, in developing human capabilities and in improving the quality of life of individuals. Pakistan has shown slow progress in the education sector due to a low priority given to the development of the social sectors in the past (Naushin, M., 1999).

The new model of development which is slowly replacing the earlier is known by different names such as, people centred development, or participatory development i.e., development which could be achieved through participation of the people at the gross root level. The old paradigm of development measured the degree of progress in terms of the level of production. However, the economic benefits of such development have not even trickled down to the vast majority of the people and most of the countries are honoured by being referred to as 'developing' (Rehman, 1991).

4.1.5 Literacy and development

According to UNESCO, "A person is literate who can with understanding both read and write a short simple statement in his everyday life. Thus literacy is related with reading, writing and simple calculation". It is with this in view, that in order to assess literacy in 1998 and 1981 population census of Pakistan, the question was asked whether a person could read a newspaper and write a simple letter in any language. In the1972 population census, it was asked

whether a person can read and write with understanding (GOP, 1998). Literates can be divided into two groups because there is a distinction between functional and organic literacy.

1 **Functional literacy**. It is a level of literacy necessary for the pupil to function normally and effectively in a society and literacy has to be made really functional. It tends to focus upon adherence to conventions of spelling, punctuation, sentence structure etc (Terry G. 1991).

2 .**Organic literacy**. It refers to the ability to put one's signature on the registers, documents or application forms. It is often done mechanically just for signature purpose and the individual cannot read and write very simple sentences (Mohanty, 1994).

The International Literacy year (1990) provided an opportunity to renew their commitments for ensuring a fully literate world. The two principal messages of the year were:-

1 That literacy matters and it matters greatly and,

2 That the provision of education is, above all, a public responsibility but there is a role for everyone including private sector, Non Governmental Organisations (NGOs), Community Based Organizations (CBOs), and other allied organizations to ensure the basic human right (NEP-1998-2010).

Literacy is a fundamental need of an individual or a society, besides fundamental needs such as food, habitat, clothes, health and then education at its minimum conceived of as literacy. Literacy is also instrumental to the satisfaction of these needs, for example, reading receipts for increasingly industrialised food making, signing a contract for leased or contracted buildings, knowing the numbers and letter of a quarters to locate one among the similar looking ones, purchasing clothes after clearly understanding the advertisements or reading instructions of hygiene from any publicity materials,

medicine bottles and food packets (**Mohanty, 1994**). Adult Literacy aims at enabling an individual to read and write short simple sentences and workout sums and calculations. It helps the adult learner to improve his standard of living through participation in various development programmes. Many such programmes have been specifically designed to improve lot of the poor and the deprived sections of the society. Most of the adult learners usually belong to these sections. Education enables individuals to actively participate in the development programmes, so that not only their socio-economic and politic conditions are improved individually but also the national progress and prosperity are enhanced as a whole.

4.1.6. The Gender perspective of development

There is a global movement towards universalisation of education. Indeed, 'Education for All' (EFA) has become the rallying cry of all workers in the area of development. According to the new model, development could be achieved only through active participation of all the members, male, female and children of a community; village or area. This type of community effort towards a better life could be achieved only and only through education. Under the new model of development, women are integral part of society, family and community cannot be neglected in the tasks related with growth. Without women's active participation in education, no development can be achieved, neither a better family can be created nor a better society. Someone has said "to educate a women is to educate a family". This is very true because mother is the first teacher or educator of a child. Educated mothers can nourish better children and better citizens. The female literacy and education are essential for active participation of the people in development process. It is mostly mothers and wives who motivate and support their children and husbands to contribute to the process of development (**Humala, 1994**).

Education is regarded as a panacea of most of the cultural maladies_ sexual discrimination, prejudices, superstitions, and ill will that have been passing through centuries in many developing countries. With a view to equalising the

status of women with men and removing the disparities and prejudices, the Constitution of Pakistan (1973) Article 25 and 34, provides for equal rights and privileges for men and women and also special provisions for their development. As for as the development of a family is concerned women is the most crucial component because she is the guardian of the family health, hygiene, food, nutrition etc. This role she plays irrespective of the fact whether she is educated or not. Generally, she does that in the best possible manner with her traditional or conventional knowledge. But if she is given some basic education she could do the same job more effectively within less time and efforts by raising her children according to the need of time, making them aware of what is happening around them in the world, and by taking interest in their education. Therefore, women need at least basic education to root out the fundamental problem of illiteracy especially in rural areas of Pakistan. The educational development in Pakistan is characterized by large disparities in literacy rates by gender and urban rural residences. Therefore, the education is given an important place in the developmental system and structure for eradicating the existing disparities and deficiencies and increasing the empowerment of women and equality between both the sexes.

4.1.7 Factors responsible for gender disparities

In the developing countries in general and in the rural areas of Pakistan in particular the girl child is born into indifference and inferiorities. She is caught in a web of cultural malpractices and prejudices that devoid her of her individuality and mould her into a submissive as-well-as a self-sacrificing individual weather as a daughter or a sister or a wife or a mother. She is reared through sheer neglect and discrimination. Her tireless exertions ensure the survival and well being of her family, but rob her of not only her innocent childhood and also her rightful womanhood. She continues to suffer from malnutrition, hunger, diseases and ignorance. We expect tomorrow's woman to become the pivot of social change and development, yet today we deprive her of her rightful share of food, schooling healthcare and employment (HRD, 1992).

In Pakistan, education has been regarded as a catalyst that would give the girl child and woman the equality, justice and dignity they had been denied. During the past fifty-nine years after independence, the educational infrastructure has grown by leaps and bounds, but 68% of Pakistan's female are still illiterate, compared to nearly 43% males (**GOP, 1998**). In remote areas like Kohistan District female literacy rates are even lower than 1% (**Akhtar, 2002**). The reasons for such mass illiteracy among women are not far to seek. Disparities in school attendance between boys and girls are mainly due to the age-old discriminations as mentioned earlier.

Cultural values in traditional and backward societies like Kohistan and Batagram districts go against the girl child and women in respect of education. If the school is far away, she has to be escorted and not allowed to continue there for long, at best she may be withdrawn from that school around the age of puberty. Her education is also too often cut short by early marriage. Child marriage although prohibited by law is still prevalent in less developed rural areas of Pakistan. Parents are keen to wash off their hands by getting her married as early as possible. Marriage of girls is a determining factor in their education, particularly early marriage in rural Sindh, Balochistan and in certain areas of NWFP.

Irrelevance of curriculum is found to be largely responsible for higher rates of dropouts amongst the girls. The decision to send a girl to school or keep her at home is influenced by relevance and utility of education, as it is available today. The low value attached to literacy and abstract knowledge for its own sake, particularly in relation to girls pose problems for girl's education. Today's girl is tomorrow's citizen who should be empowered with adequate knowledge and skills about nutrition, sanitation, childcare, animal husbandry, modern farming and embroidery, housekeeping and counting. She needs to be given basic competition in handling pumps, tube wells, farm machinery, market economy and distribution system, banking and loan facilities, cooperative and citizen ship practices.

4.2 Literature Review

The very important section of literature review consists of International Studies including South Asia and National Studies with emphasis on gender education profile of NWFP.

4.2.1 International studies

In the world today a great gulf divides the economically developed nations from the developing nations. In 1958 the United States with only 6 percent of the world's population, produced about 35 percent of the world's economic goods and services; the more developed nations, with only 32 percent of the world's population, produced about 82 percent; the less developed nations, containing 68 percent of the world's population, produced a mere 18 percent. The extreme gap between the most developed and the least developed nations is illustrated by the per capita product in United States, which was some thirty times higher than that in Pakistan, India or China. The contrast between the developed and the less developed nations might be tolerable for the latter if they were completely isolated from the developed nations. Because of modern means of communication and transportation, however, the poorer nations are now more aware than ever of the economic performance of the wealthier nations. This awareness has incited the people and government of the poorer nations to intensely desire rapid economic development what have been called the "revolution of rising expectations" **(Simon Kuznets, 1994; Rehman, 2005)**.

A very different relation between population growth and capital investment obtain in the poor nations of the world. Relative to the developed nations, the less developed nations have on per-capita bases very small amounts of capital. One of their major needs, therefore, is for additional investment. Capital is needed for highways, railroads, communication systems, electric-power generators, irrigation pumps, factories and machinery. Equally needed is further investment in human beings. A literate populace is necessary even to apply existing technology; a still higher average level of education is necessary before a nation can adapt current technology to special local

conditions; and a higher level yet before a nation can be instrumental in pioneering the development of new technology (**Ansley and Hoover, 1998; Shahina, 2004**).

Half of the world's population today is less than 25 years old. One adult in three is illiterate and the other two need continually to bring their knowledge up to date. Education has a tremendous task to coop with, yet it is still treated like a poor relation: every year mankind spend on more than an average of $7,800 for each soldier, but devotes on less than an average of only $100 to each pupil. Four centuries ago Martin Luther protested: 'If, every year, so much money is spent on buying machines of war, making roads and building bridges and a thousand and one other objects of public utility, why should not much more, or at any rate as much be used to provide for school masters, active and intelligent men capable of bringing up and teaching our young people (**Chabaud, 1990; UNESCO, 1995; Malik, 2000**)?

The Muslim world today feels forced to reassess the role and status of its womenfolk in different sphere of activities. To put things in perspective, Article 26 of the Vienna Declaration says states must bring their domestic laws in harmony with treaties to which they are signatory. Another highly important agreement, the Convention on the Elimination of All forms of discrimination against women (CEDAW) also asks for the same. For example article 1 of CEDAW says the term "discrimination against women" shall mean any distinction, exclusion or restriction made on the basis of sex, which has the effect or purpose of impairing or nullifying the recognition, enjoyment or exercise by women, irrespective of their marital status." The irony, however, is that these agreements and conventions are juxtaposed at several points to the constitutions and fundamental laws in the Muslim countries. The Beijing plus 5 conference held in New York in 2000 is a case in point, when certain Muslim countries, such as Pakistan, Iran and Malaysia, were severely criticised for blockading the agenda of conference, which asked for a more open and free sex society the world over. Given this, each time they have to concede some

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ground to the opponent forces on these contentious issues. To turn things round, to devise a holistic approach to discuss these issues, both individually as well as from the platform of the Islamic Canon Law Council established as a part of the OIC's 10-year Action Plain to serve as the competent authority in controversial religious issues (**Sayyid, 2006**).

Equality of access to education for girls and women is a priority subject of concern to UNESCO in the field of education. Its long –term programme of action to promote this equality forms its contribution to the efforts of the United Nations aimed at the advancement of the women and the elimination of all forms of discrimination against them. The General Conference of UNESCO at its fifteenth session (1968) proposed equality of access to education for girls and women as one of the twelve major subjects for reflection and action on the part of member states when the General Assembly of the United Nations proclaimed 1970 as International Education Year (**Yasmin, 2001**).

The development of a society is determined to a great extent by the place, which women occupy in it and the part they play in the life of nation. It is easy to establish a striking parallelism, at all stages of development, between the theoretical rights of women, coupled with those they really enjoy. In recent decades many women has shown that the struggle for national independence went hand in hand with the struggle for their emancipation. A country's accession to independence is accompanied by the right of women to take part in elections. This movement, which began in Norway in 1910 and received a new impetus in 1945 with women's participation in the Second World War and the United Nations proclamation of faith in 'the equality of men and women', has spread to almost every country of the world (**UNESCO, 1990; Chabaud, 1995; Malik, 2000**).

Islam never brought a woman to the critical condition, where she had to fight economically and socially as our western sister had to bear. The woman has all rights in Islam to choose life partner, to get education, and to get and

extend her property. It should always be remembered that the man and woman are two different sexes, so they have their different duties. The man is stronger physically, so it is his duty to do hard working, and the woman has quality of motherhood, so it is her duty to care for children, as we see in every creature sexes. This is not equality to do unnatural jobs, and to wear jeans and shirts never equalizes a woman to man. Why a man does not wear a skirt? In fact he does not want to become a joke. The basic reason of the destruction of western family structure is neglecting of natural duties. There is uproar of women rights in Pakistan raised by them who is not doing anything for the salvation of women from the feudal system, illiteracy, etc. as for as our society is concerned man and woman both are suffering. Our problem is not women rights but human rights (**Farooq, 2005**).

The prejudices and the weight of tradition are long lasting. They are aggravated by the fact that women's education lags seriously behind, that women are not aware of their rights and also by the obligation of family life which fall on mothers, who are all too little helped by their husbands and have not enough collective equipment and facilities. This difficulty was pointed out in the Swedish report to the Council of Europe: 'Faced with the choice of going in to a profession or going into politics, women tend to choose the first, which gives them and their family a higher living standard. To do both is a very difficult task, at least for married women with a family' (**Zucconi, 1968; UNESCO, 1990; Ghayur, 1998; Yasmeen, 2001**).

To achieve gender equality; gender mainstreaming has also been adopted as a global strategy. Gender mainstreaming demands integration of a gender perspective at the policy, planning, and programming and resource allocation levels. It is ironic that the gap between policy commitments and practice not only exist at local and national levels but equally at the international level.

4.2.1.1 South Asia

South Asia's share in human deprivation is twice as high as its share of the developing world's population. South Asia is fast emerging as the poorest, the

most illiterate, the most malnourished, and the least gender sensitive, indeed the most deprived region in the world. Women are deprived of education in rural Bangladesh compared with men. Sending girls to school is expected to reduce gender inequality in education, and thus the enrolment of girls in school is considered an indicator of women's position (Hadi, 2001).

The modern nations of South Asia have sometimes held women back at home, but they have happily pushed them onto the political stage. Look at the list of ladies who marked South Asia: the late Indira Gandhi; the current Sri Lankan President, Chandrika Kumaratunga, as well as her mother Sirimavo Bandaranaike, who was the first woman in the world to be elected Prime Minister; Pakistan's twice elected former Premier, late Benazir Bhutto; Bangladesh's current and past premiers, Sheik Hasina Wazed and her rival, Begum Khaleda Zia (**Lewis; 2005**).

Indira Gandhi, (1917-1984) one of the best-known women of the 20th century, was Prime Minister of India from 1966 to 1977 and from 1980 to 1984, daughter of Jawaharlal Nehru, mother of Sanjay and Rajiv Gandhi, mother-in-law of politician Sonia Gandhi. She was assassinated in 1984. Being a political ruler for a long time could not prove herself a women reformer in the largest country of South Asia (**Lewis; 2005**).

Benazir Bhutto, daughter of Zulfikar Ali Bhutto, educated at Harvard University and Oxford. She served as Prime Minister of Pakistan 1988-1990 and 1993-1996. Being first female leader of a Muslim country in the modern world could not bring any revolutionary reform for women of Pakistan and Hazara (**Johnson; 2005**).

Sirimavo Bandaranaike, three times Prime Minister of Sri Lanka, was the first woman in the world to hold the office of prime minister. Her daughter later became President then Prime Minister of Sri Lanka (**Jone; 2006**).

Chandrika Bandaranaike Kumaratunge, whose mother was the first female prime minister in the world (1965), and whose father and husband were both assassinated, was elected President of Sri Lanka in 1994 after serving a short term as Prime Minister (**Jone; 2006**).

Frankly speaking; in spite of all political exaggerations; manipulations and even being from the same gender; these ruler women could not bring any significant revolution for the development of half population of women in their countries.

Widespread poverty remains South Asia's most persistent and urgent problem. The region has a population of 515 million out of the global population of 1.3 billion people who live in absolute poverty (below $1 a day). There are more people living in absolute poverty in South Asia than in Sub-Saharan Africa, East Asia (excluding China), the Arab States, Latin America and the Caribbean region, all taken together. The bulk of South Asian poverty is concentrated in Bangladesh, Pakistan, the Eastern and Central Indian states, and Nepal. South Asia has the largest number of people in the world living in absolute poverty. About 43 percent of the total population in South Asia lives in absolute poverty, compared to 14 percent in East Asia (excluding China), 24 percent in Latin America and the Caribbean and 39 percent in Sub-Saharan Africa. According to the latest World Bank estimates, 53 percent of the population in India, 12 percent in Pakistan, 29 percent in Bangladesh, 4 percent in Sir Lanka and 53 percent in Nepal subsist in absolute poverty (UNDP, 1997a) The role of education in reducing poverty is decisive. Many studies carried out in 1980s concluded that rising level of education in a society were often accomplished by a sharp decline in absolute poverty (**Field, 1980; Woodhall, 1985; Talak, 1989; Mohanty, 1995; Akhtar 2002**). A great deal has been written in recent years about the contribution of human capital to economic growth, principally by the Noble Prize winning economists Theodore Schultz and Garry Becker. According to their theories, education provides people with the skills that allow them to be more productive in their work,

thereby creating for them the opportunity to earn higher wages in the labour market (Haq, M., and. Haq, K., 1998, Rehman, 2005).

Empirical evidence has provided strong support for this hypothesis (Knight and Sabot, 1990; Malik, 2004). For example, the average salary in Bangladesh of a secondary-school-educated woman is as much as seven times higher than that of women with no education and skilled workers in the construction industry receive double the wages of unskilled workers (World Bank 1993b; UNDP, 2005). Another survey in Bangladesh revealed that skilled workers in the construction industry received double the wages of unskilled workers. Yet, another study shows that four years of schooling, on average, increases the output of farmers by about 8 percent (Jamison and Lau, 1982; Yasmin, 2001). In Pakistan, the greatest increase (2.7%) in agricultural productivity was associated with a ten percent increase in male literacy (Rosegrant and Evenson 1993; Malik, 2004).

Powerful arguments in favour of the 'human capital' school have recently been presented in two World Bank reports (2003b and 2005a). Analysing the experience of 192 countries, the World Bank concludes that as much as two-thirds of the wealth of nations consists human and social capital. (Social capital signifies sound institutions and good governance, which in turn, depend largely on the coverage and quality of education.) In some countries, such as Japan, that lacked a good natural resource base, human and social capital are estimated to have contributed 85 percent to the total national wealth, while physical capital (machinery, buildings and physical infrastructure) 14 percent and natural capital only 1 percent. The inescapable conclusion is that a dearth of natural resources can be compensated for by building up human capital through education (as in Japan), but that the dearth of human capital cannot be overcome through natural wealth (for instance, oil resources are plentiful in the OPEC nations, but there has been limited development of human resources) (HDC, 1998; Rehman, 2005).

Education is the key to building a human capital and human capital is vital ingredient in building a nation. Of course, this education must be relevant to the needs of modern societies and to the demands of global markets, and must be available to all members of society. The East Asian experience shows the importance of basic and technical education in building a stock of valuable and relevant human capital. Empirical evidences show that there is no industrial society today with an adult literacy rate of less than 80 percent. No illiterate society has ever become an industrial tiger of any strip or colour (**HDC, 1998; Malik, 2004**).

The human capital hypotheses suggest that investment in education is conceptually identical to an investment in physical capital. It should therefore, be possible to assess the costs and benefits of investment in education by calculating the rate of return to such investment. Technically, the rate of return to expenditure on education is that discount rate which equates the future stream of benefits with the present stream of costs. The private rate of return measures the relationship between the costs and benefits of education for a particular individual. It is generally calculated in terms of financial costs and benefits to an individual. The social rate of return, however, is a broader and much more relevant concept. It includes all the costs borne by a society as a whole, for example, fees, scholarships, and administrative expenditures borne by the state instead of individual. Rate of return studies convincingly show that social returns to investment in education are amongst the highest in a society. For instance, a 1988 study in Nepal (World Bank, 1994b) found the following social rates of return: a 100 percent return on investment in primary education; 29.1 percent to lower secondary; 15 percent to secondary; and 21.7 percent return to investment in a Bachelor's degree. Girl's education normally has a higher overall rate of return than boy's education, with the maximum differential at the secondary level (**Psacharopoulos, 1994; Malik, 2000**).

Investment in basic education has emerged as a powerful engine for accelerating economic growth. Several recent analysts have put forward new

theories of endogenous growth, which place knowledge and education at the centre of the growth process (**Locas, 1990; Romer, 1986; and Solow 1994**).

Many empirical studies have reaffirmed the critical role of education in accelerating economic growth. Some selective evidences from south Asia are: In India, a one-year increase in the average number of years of primary schooling of the work force would rise out put by 23 percent (**Loh, 1995; Shahina, 2002**). The average salary of a secondary-school-educated woman in Bangladesh was about seven times that of a woman with no primary education (**World Bank, 1993a**). In Nepal, increasing the average education of a former by one year expanded agricultural out put by 5.2 percent in the Tirai region and by 5.9 percent in the Hill region (**Pudasaini, 1982; Yasmin, 2001**).

Education is the passport to accelerate economic growth, particularly, in the context of a rapidly globalising world economy. Only societies that have acquired the relevant knowledge and skill can compete successfully in global markets. This has been the experience of Japan, the East Asian industrializing economies i.e., South Korea, Hong Kong, Singapore, Malaysia, Thailand, Indonesia and China (**Haq, M, and. Haq, K, 1998; Malik, 2004**).

One can see the broader impact of education because education is not merely a means for better income and employment opportunities for individuals or for higher economic growth potential for their nations. The social benefits of education spread in many directions. Education leads to better health care, smaller family norms, greater community and political participation, less income inequality and a greater reduction of absolute poverty. Several empirical studies have established a close and positive correlation between improvement in education and health. Cross-country research has shown that a mother's schooling of one to three years is associated with a 20 percent decline in the risk of childhood death (**World Bank, 1997c; Shahina, 2002**).

If both parents are literate (as compared to having no schooling), it can reduce the infant mortality rate by 27 per thousand (Schultz, 1988). Women who have completed primary school have 20 percent less under-nutrition among their children than illiterate mothers (Barghava and Osmani, 1996). In urban India, when mothers are educated, the mother's mortality rate is 34 per thousand, but it escalates to 82 per thousand when mothers have no schooling (**Basu, 1992; Akram, 2004**).

The education of mothers has a much greater influence on health and nutrition outcome than the education of fathers. In a district level study in India, it was estimated that an increase in the female literacy rate from 22 percent to 75 percent reduced the predicted value of the under-five mortality rate for children from 156 per thousand to 110 per thousand. In contrast, a similar increase in the male literacy rate would result in a reduction of the under-5 mortality rate to no more than141 per thousand (**Dreze and Sen, 1995; Shahina, 2002**).

An educated society generally has a lower rate of population growth. This is because education often leads to higher income, greater liberation and empowerment of women, more uninhabited access to family planning services, a dramatic fall in fertility rates and much smaller family size. Some of the available evidence from South Asia is revealing:

In Asia the fertility rate was 5.8 for women with no education, but it dropped to3.8 for women with seven or more years of education (**Schultz, 1988; Cochrane, 1979; Mohanty, 1995**). A simulation study estimated that doubling female secondary enrolments would have reduced the fertility rate from 5.3 to3.9 (by 27 percent), whereas doubling the family planning efforts would have reduced it only by 18 percent (**Sabbarao and Ranney 1993; Qudus, 2003**). In Bangladesh, contraceptive use was 47 percent amongst women with secondary school education and 66 percent amongst women with more than secondary education, while it was only 27 percent for women with no education and 35 percent for women with primary education (**World Bank, 1993a; Yasmin, 2001**).

4.2.2 National studies

A comprehensive education policy had been announced in 1998, which aimed to enhance basic education and lay the foundation for a massive literacy programmes. Its goal was to increase literacy from 39 per cent in 1998 to 70 per cent by 2010. The Government had proposed several measures, such as increasing the budgetary allocation for education from 2.2 per cent of gross national product (GNP) to 4 per cent; compulsory primary education with special emphasis on female education; extension of educational services, including schools and teachers; and greater emphasis on computer education (**Khan, 2005**).

We believe that the investment in education is the best investment any nation can make. Our policy is to upgrade higher education systems steadily bring it at par with the advanced countries (**Prime Minister of Pakistan Mr. Showkat Aziz, 2006**).

Around the world, hundreds of thousands of children, particularly girls, are exploited when working in domestic service. Except for a few NGOs, which relentlessly carry on their campaign against child labour, one is pained to see that hardly any political leader or social reformer or religious divine of Pakistan devoted his rhetoric to this evil. It wants government to develop time-bound measures and set specific goals to achieve results and then expose those children to education and skills for self-in-improvement (**Rehman, 2005**).

Inaugurating a workshop on "Gender mainstreaming", organised for 35 DCOs of the province, the Chairman of Punjab Planning and Development, Sibtain Fazle Halim stressed on changing the thinking about the role of women in society for bringing them in the mainstream. The chairman emphasised that women could not take part in the development of country because of the thinking that they were confined to domestic tasks and reproductive role. Conducive environment should be created in society for the empowerment of women through legislation and institutional means so that the disparity

between genders was eliminated and they could participate in the national life as equals (**The Daily Dawn, September 27, 2005**).

The mid-term review of the UNDP programme recommended that a separate Gender Programme should be developed based on the priorities of the women of Pakistan. A gender programme must, by definition, view development issues from the perspective of both men and women and the priorities would require focusing on the gender disparities, which are so severe and pervasive. The Programme has to concentrate its efforts specifically on raising women's status in Pakistani society and reducing the gender gap. This will make the impact of development more equitably distributed and thus more sustainable. Women's relationship with men in this society is a significant determinant of their status (**UNDP, 1997**). In order to address the gender disparities in Pakistan, the Gender Programme focuses on Economic Empowerment, Social Empowerment and Political Empowerment of women, which is only possible through educational development of women (**UNDP, 1997; Yasmeen, 2001**).

The alternative development paradigm is that development should not be delivered from above. Development being endogenous, it is not possible with somebody else's thinking and knowledge, nor is a relation of equality possible if ones feel that knowledge essential for ones development rests with others (**Rehman, 1991; Shahina, 2004**).

The new concept of development recognizes the concept as "participatory". The development from the gross roots with the full participation of the people for their cultural, economic and educational growth, where there will be no classification of superior and inferior is what is required in the new paradigm (**Adeel U.K., 1994**).

Widening up the debate on literacy situation in the Senate of Pakistan, Minister for Education Lt Gen (Retd) Javed Ashraf Qazi told that the projected literacy rate was at 54% as in the census it was estimated at 44% and projected rate was made with the increase of 2% annually. He added that

under the action plain the government was chasing a target of 86% literacy rate in the country by the end of year 2008 by meeting the challenges of the future (**The Daily News International, December 7, 2004**).

Expressing serious reservations about Pakistan's ability to achieve the Education For All (EFA) goals by 2015 and gender parity in primary education by 2005, Executive Director of Unicef, Carol Bellamy had called upon the Government to increase investment in the education, failing which it would not be able to achieve the millennium goals. Addressing a press conference, she phrased her warning thus: "On the present course, no, Pakistan will not achieve the millennium goal of Education For All by 2015, or indeed the gender parity goal by 2005". She calculated that investment in the education sector in Pakistan does not match with the country's current pace of economic growth. Bellamy said that unicef will support the government of Pakistan in Education Sector Reforms and implementation of policies, procedures and mechanisms to reduce the number of girls out of school by at least 30% and to promote high quality learning in schools that were child friendly and attentive to the needs of girls and boys alike (**The Daily News International, December 7, 2004**).

The Ministry of Education has undertaken a comprehensive visioning exercise that seeks to develop a shared national understanding of what the education system will look like and how it will function in the year 2025. The formula of 'Vision 2025' is preceded by a series of visioning workshops, which will be supported by a demographically driven cost projection model that will enable stakeholders to examine the financial implications of a variety of policy operations. For instance can Pakistan afford a national enrolment rate of 95 percent by the year 2025? If so, what will a well supplied school look like? Will every child be sitting at a desk and chair or on a mat? How many children will, on average, be sitting in each class, 25 or 50? All these policy options are budgetary and cost implications. Giving realistic assumptions about population growth, economic growth and the share of the education sector in the GDP,

In a comprehensive survey in 1995, conducted in Pakistan, only 20.7 percent of total students were competent at a level, which is considered basic; the NWFP had the lowest achievement level, at only 9.11 percent. Urban competencies were twice as high as those in rural areas: 29.2 percent as compared to 11.8 percent. There was a clear failure of socialization: only 26.1 percent were competent in life skills. In the rural NWFP, only 5.9 percent of girls could read with comprehension (**HDC, 1998; Yasmeen, 2001**).

With reference to N.W.F.P, women occupy an under privileged position in relatively traditional and conservative bound culture. Here women are considered as symbol of pride and honour, observing strict "purdah" (veil) have restricted mobility, abide by the rules and regulations of local society and accept the fate that men decided for them. In such situation, women active participation has always been difficult (**Musarrat, 1990; Qadeem, 1994; Malik, 2000**).

Almost all women in district Kohistan are illiterate and monolingual, speaking only the local dialect of Shina, although some have knowledge of *Pattni*, *Pashtu* and *Hindko*, like their husbands. There are currently no operative girl's schools in Palas as there are no available local women teachers. It is difficult to assess how many families would encourage their daughters to go to school (**GOP, 1995; Akhtar, 2002**).

The wife of ex. NWFP Governor Begum Shamim Iftikhar had described the education of women as highly indispensable for the overall development of the country and well being of the society and said that being the 50% of the total population one cannot think of having progress in any field without ensuring proper education to the female. She said, in fact right from a family to overall society; the role of educated women in the national prosperity is an undeniable reality. Therefore, it is must that we all should make efforts both in individual and collective capacities for the promotion of education especially for girls. Being Muslims, this responsibility becomes double as both male and female are bound to seek knowledge (**The Daily News International, December 8, 2004**).

A comprehensive education policy had been announced in 1998, which aimed to enhance basic education and lay the foundation for a massive literacy programme. Its goal was to increase literacy from 39 per cent in 1998 to 70 per cent by 2010. The Government had proposed several measures, such as increasing the budgetary allocation for education from 2.2 per cent of gross national product (GNP) to 4 per cent; compulsory primary education with special emphasis on female education; extension of educational services, including schools and teachers; and greater emphasis on computer education (Khan, 2005).

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The historical comparison was subject to limitations in the definition of literacy. The 1901 census recorded as literate all persons who could read and write but no standard of proficiency in either was laid down. In 1911, the criterion of ability to read and write a letter was applied but it was not properly understood by enumerators and in many cases was applied too severely and the results showed a decline in literacy between 1901 and 1911(table-2.1).

Table-4.1 NWFP: Historical Variation of Literacy Percentage by Sex (1901-1998).

Year	1901 %	1911 %	1921 %	1931 %	1951 %	1961 %	1972 %	1981 %	1998 %
Male	8.6	8.0	8.5	9.1	15.5	24.4	23.1	25.85	52.7
Female	0.7	0.8	1.2	1.3	2.2	3.7	4.7	6.48	21.0

Sources: 1. Population Census of India (1901-1931).
2. Population Census of Pakistan (1951-1998).

the parameters of an affordable education system will be determined for the future. The crafting of national vision for education is doubtlessly one of the most needed interventions for any meaningful reforms to take effect in Pakistan (**Shahina, 2005**).

Ministry of Women Development Joint Secretary, Ahmed Surfraz Syed stressed on that Education 'can help end violence against women', he added that the Ministry of Education was taking several concrete steps to eradicate violence against women, however, efforts could fruit only if education and awareness among women were increased and they do not hesitate while accessing various channels of justice at local or any other levels. The Joint Secretary emphasised that the constitution of Pakistan caters for the equal access of both male and female to justice, without any discrimination. There is a need to educate the women about their rights that they enjoy under the constitution of Pakistan (**The Daily News International, September 29, 2005**).

Federal Minister for Education Lt Gen (Retd) Javed Ashraf Qazi told that the government was ready to compromise even on increase in dropout rate from schools and raise in number of failed students to improve education standards in the country. "It does not matter if dropout rate is increased and more students fail but we have to make examinations more competitive, he maintained (**The Daily News International, December 21, 2005**).

Federal Minister for Education Lt Gen (Retd) Javed Ashraf Qazi, while addressing the students of PAF Finishing school for Women stated," As compared to male education, which is 60 percent in our country, female education is only 18 percent. Girls can get educated and prove their worth for the society if given better opportunities. The government is now emphasising more on education but still female literacy rate is lagging for behind" (**The Daily News International, December 23, 2005**).

In developing countries, as in social planning, gender consideration is lacking that is why there is heavy influx of women in informal sector to reduce the

increasing poverty, however commonly there is failure of poverty education (Molly Pollack and Clara Jusidman, 1998, M.A. Baqi, 1994 and Sabiha Sultana, 1997). As for as informal activities are concerned agriculture is little or no access of information, non-compatible working environment and seldom control over their incomes (**Shenaz, 1994**)?

In Pakistan, women constitute half of the population, so no development could be possible if half of the population is not educated. They are unable to participate in any kind of process of development. No nation can develop and survive with half of its population inactive. Therefore, education is the root of all development (**Humala, K., 1994**).

Although the economic benefits of investment in education are similar, for both boys and girls, the social benefits especially in the area of health, education and population control, multiply in the case of educated girls. Citing Pakistan as an example, Mr. Summer, a former Vice President of the World Bank, estimated that educating one thousand girls for an additional year would have cost the Pakistani government approximately $ 40,000. But then this investment would have prevented roughly 60 infant deaths, averted 660 births, besides intergenerational gains such as healthier and educated mothers with healthier and educated children and grand-children (**Summer, 1992**).

In the most educationally deprived province of Pakistan, an innovation partnership has been formed between the community, provincial government and donors in order to provide schooling facilities to girls in Balochistan. The first step was to provide convenient training opportunities to local girls who had finished middle schools. With UNICEF support, the first Mobile Teacher Training Unit was developed with the basic objective of bringing training where the prospective teachers were. The project expanded, more donors-USAID, the World Bank- joined in and by 1995, 275 teachers had been trained for rural community schools, more important, the government of Balochistan demonstrated its commitment to the programme by sanctioning 120 posts per

year specifically for teachers trained through this Mobile Training Unit. Today, about 12,000 girls, representing about 8 percent of total girls' enrolment in Balochistan are getting primary education through this collaboration, which started with the simple idea of bringing training to rural girls so that they can become teachers in their own village (**Bakhteari, 1994 and World Bank, 1995b**).

Developing countries were well aware of their responsibilities and were making concerted efforts to achieve international literacy goals. Though there had been considerable expansion in Pakistan's educational infrastructure, it still lagged behind compared to other countries in the region. Overall, an estimated 6 to 10 per cent of children aged five to nine years had never attended school. Of those who enrolled in primary school, about 60 per cent dropped out before completing Grade 5. Overall, an estimated 36 per cent of children aged five to 19 years in Pakistan had never attended school. Only 31 per cent of the population had completed Grade 10 or above in the 1998 census. Pakistan had adopted a three-pronged strategy focusing on: n improved literacy rate and universal primary education; improvement in the quality of higher education, better teachers, reformed curricula and an efficient examination system; and the introduction of gender and area specific technical and vocational education at sub district and district levels.

The role of radio and television in Pakistan is extremely important as illiteracy is a major obstacle to information and awareness. Recent studies show that TV is watched by almost 50 million people. An increasing number of women, urban and rural now have access to television. Due to the limited scope of the print media the audio-visual media becomes the most influential agent in the country (**UNDP, 1997; Yasmeen, 2001**).

The education system in the country, despite its development and diversification over the years, is still characterized as imparting general nature of education, especially below matriculation (**Ghayur, 1998**).

4.2.2.1 Gender Education Profile of NWFP

The educational development in Pakistan is characterized by large disparities in literacy rates by gender, urban rural residence and provinces. The largest gender gaps exist in the provinces of NWFP and Balochistan compared to the other two provinces (**Mahmood, 1999**).

The NWFP is amongst the most illiterate provinces within Pakistan, while Kohistan is amongst the most illiterate districts within NWFP (**Akhtar, 2002**). Literacy rate for males is 52.8%, compared with only 21% for females in NWFP in 1998 that is lesser than national gender literacy rates in the same year. It is even more disappointing to note that literate females in rural areas of NWFP are only 16.7% (**GOP, 1998**).

The NWFP is today, still faced with the twin dilemmas of insufficient quantity and poor quality educational resources. Female education is particularly poor. Few girls enrol in schools and even fewer complete their education. There is also an acute shortage of women teachers. Many more families would be willing to enrol their daughters and allow them to continue their education beyond puberty if schools, headed and staffed by women, were available in the vicinity of the family home. Many children do not go to school. Of those who do, few proceed beyond basic education. For those who do receive education, the learning experience often has little meaning for day-to-day living. If seldom attempts to develop their intellect and potential as human beings, nor does it, prepare them to be active, responsible citizens of Pakistan (**SPCS, 1996**).

Educational facilities in NWFP are not distributed equitably. Remote areas, which are geographically difficult and economically back ward, are systematically neglected and there is no adult literacy programmes for the women living in remote and backward rural areas (**Adeel, U.K., 1994; Akhtar, 2002**).

Since, 1951 census authorities treat all such persons as literate who were able to read, write, and even only the Holy Quran. Despite the limitation of definitional variation, there was a persistent sharp difference in the gender literacy percentages with a considerable rise in literacy rate in 1951-61, however, the negative trend of male literacy, though small, yet appeared to be discouraging during 1961-72. However, there was a sharp rise in female literacy rate during 1981-98 and it attended to close the gender literacy difference to some extent but it was still valid with 31.7 percentage points **(Khan, 1981; Akhtar, 2002)**.

The Women Development Cell (WDC) is yet not functional in the province of NWFP, as it needs facilities and staff to conduct meetings, workshops seminars and provide monitoring support to the provincial and district agencies and governments in the implementation of various women-related plans like the National Plan of Action, National Policy for Development and Empowerment of Women. In other provinces, the Gender Reform Action Plan (Grap) was fully implemented but unfortunately in the NWFP so for the Grap could not be fully implemented **(The Daily Dawn, September 27, 2005)**.

The preliminary damage and need assessment report on the October 8, 2005 earthquake, prepared by the Asian Development Bank and the World Bank with the financial support of multilateral and bilateral donor agencies is a classic example of the functionalist approach to disasters. The lack of social and gender analysis highlights the gap between the proclaimed politics of the International community on gender equality and mainstreaming, and the day-to-day global and national institutions. It has been widely acknowledged that gender as a primary division determines differential access and control of men and women over resources in society. Gender inequalities along with other forms of domination and exclusion; create vulnerabilities that have a high social and economic cost for society. Convention on the Elimination of All forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW); Beijing Platform of Action; Millennium Development Goals (MDGs); Universal Declaration of Human

Rights; Internal Covenant on Civil and Political Rights and the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (**Bari, 2006**).

4.3. Summary and Conclusion

The recent emphases on the thinking that women can also contribute to the economy of the nation led social scientists, policy-makers and administrators to devise the way of developing planned entrepreneurship with special reference to rural women. So far as development is concerned in the present time every country, every nation and every group is considering development at community level through awareness, literacy and basic education programmes, as an essential ingredient for its national development. The development process suggests that the emerging nations move through a series of stages on their way towards modernisation. An educated society generally has a lower rate of population growth. This is because education often leads to higher income, greater liberation and empowerment of women, more uninhibited access to family planning services, a dramatic fall in fertility rates and much smaller family size.

The development of a society is determined to a great extent by the place, which women occupy in it and the part they play in the life of nation. It is easy to establish a striking parallelism, at all stages of development, between the theoretical rights of women, coupled with those they really enjoy. In recent decades many women have shown that the struggle for national independence went hand in hand with the struggle for their emancipation.

Section II

Chapter # 5

Research Methodology

5.0 Introduction

This chapter focuses the study's objectives and methodological approach. In order to place the subject matter of the chapter in its proper sequence, first the study's central research question is re-stated followed by hypotheses, the study's specific objectives, and methodology.

5. 1. The central research question

The central research question which this study seeks to probe and answer is: why it is so that the female literacy rate and level of education attainment is more pretentious spatially and socially than the males' in the Hazara region? This question in its turn stems from (a) the wider issue of women's low level of participation in the mainstream of national development and (b) the consequent imperative of probing into approaches to improve literacy and education to the levels that are compatible with the need to bring them, more fully, into the mainstream of national development.

5.2 Hypotheses

This study revolves chiefly around Rich's locational theory according to which all regions in any given development system compete for a share in the total human development activity, but by virtue of their location some of the regions suffer from relative spatial disadvantage and inequity in human development. Classifying the regions in terms of their proximity to the urban development centres as Central, Intermediate, and Peripheral, in that order, these regions would stand in the same order in terms of access to development opportunities and the consequent level of development manifested in literacy level and other indicators of human development.

Superimposed by Rich's locational theory as alluded to above, the present study was addressed to the following set of hypotheses;

Hypothesis 1: The distance, in terms of remoteness, of human settlements from the urban development centres and physical barriers between the homes and the schools negatively impacts in the region:

1. Females' overall literacy level.
2. Parents' willingness to send girls to next higher schools.
3. Incidence of females in higher education brackets.
4. Activity rate of women; in terms of women engaged in paid jobs and enterprises.

Hypothesis 2: The economic and demographic factors also negatively impact females' literacy level and their level of participation in nation's mainstream of development.

Hypothesis 3: The below stated socio-cultural and political biases more adversely impact the female's literacy and political participation than of the males:

1. Customary taboos/ restrictions against females' outdoor activity;
2. Gender bias against women empowerment;
3. Parents' education
4. Threats of insecurity of life and honour of females outside of their homes.

The study focuses mainly, but is not restricted to, the above set of hypotheses. It is open to incorporation of variables other than those mentioned above to seek answer to the research question under study.

5.3 Objective

Drawn in the context of afore stated hypotheses, the study's specific objective was to:

1. To develop macro-level profile of the Hazara region focusing its geographic, demographic, social, and economic characteristics,

and other background information about the region , that may help form clear perceptions about the region and the people, and thus contribute to the targeted analysis of the central research question of this study.

2. To undertake a comprehensive micro-level study focusing a cross section of population, to inquire into physical, social, demographic, economic, institutional , and other factors which affect the female literacy level ,and their participation in mainstream of development in the Hazara Region.
3. To collect, collate, and analyse such other information as needed to supplement the micro-level survey.
4. To draw conclusions in the context of the study's main research question based on the findings of the afore-stated exercises.
5. To draw recommendations to bring about improvement in the level of female literacy ,their mainstreaming in the development process, and their overall socio-economic amelioration in the context of the women in the Hazara region, as well as generalise on the subject in universal context in light of the study's conclusions.

5.4 Research variables

This study treats Human Development in the sense of "female literacy attainment" as the dependent variable. The set of Independent variables includes:

Physical environment; location zones, distances and access with reference to the district urban centres of Hazara; home-school distance and means of conveyance; the socio-cultural environment i.e., religious-cultural environment, honour, superstitious behaviour of parents, and literacy status of the parents, Educational resources and facilities i.e., availability of schools, teachers availability and, participation of girls in schooling; Women empowerment and

economic status i.e., income and employment and involvement in household decision making.

5.5 Data sources and methodological approach

The study entailed conducting a sample survey of a cross section of population in the study universe-the Hazara region, and collection of data also from secondary sources. To begin with, the methodological approach to the household sample survey is given in the ensuing section.

5.5.1 Household survey

Step by step methodology of the sample survey is described as follows:

5.5.1.1 Survey universe

All the five districts in Hazara region comprising the study universe are represented in the sample survey. The districts are:

1. Haripur,
2. Abbottabad,
3. Mansehra,
4. Batagram,
5. Kohistan.

5.5.2 Sample design

5.5.2.1 Household sample size

After considering the relevant characteristics of the target population and the area, the time and resource constraints and other relevant factors that must appropriately weigh in the sample design, it was determined that a total sample of 2000 households would yield the representative picture of the target regions and people from which to draw valid inference as to the given hypotheses.

5.5.2.2 Inter-district allocation of sample

Having decided the total size of household sample, the next step was to allocate it to the five districts in the survey universe. This was done on SPSS basis involving allocation of the total sample to different districts in proportion

to their share in the total population of the survey universe. Relevant data on sample allocation are given in Table 5.1:

Table 5.1: Hazara region, district wise population contributions and number of respondents.

Serial	District	Area (Sq. Kms)	Population share		Surveyed Population	Household sample
			Number	%		
1.	Haripur	1,725	692,228	19.7	2,416	400
2.	Abbottabad	1,967	880,666	25.0	3,171	500
3.	Mansehra	4,579	1,152,839	32.8	3,696	660
4.	Batagram	1,301	307,278	09.0	1,279	180
5.	Kohistan	7,492	472,570	13.5	2,001	260
Hazara		17,064	3,505,561	100	12,563	2000

Source: - Field Survey, 2006.

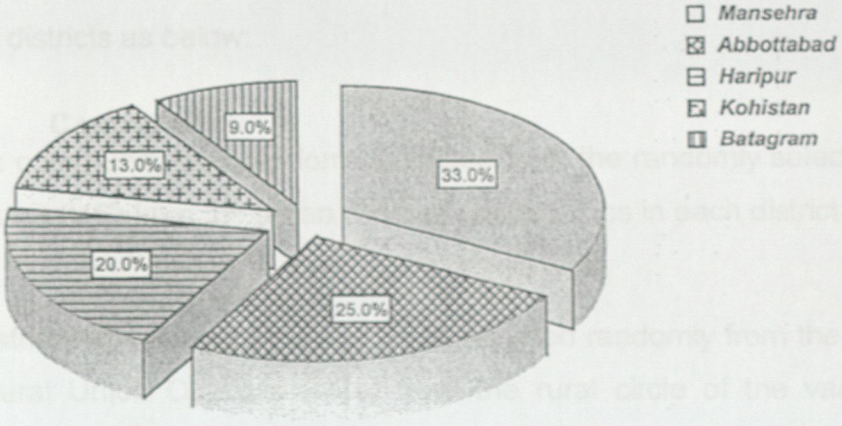


Fig.5.1 Hazara, District-wise Population Sample.

5.5.2.3 Intra-district sample allocation

The next step entailed allocating the district's sample to its different geographic regions/ zones. To this end, first each district was stratified into three zones in terms of settlements' distances from the urban development

centre in the given district. These zones are termed as Central (main urban centre) Intermediate, and Peripheral.

Table 5.2:- Hazara region, district wise Zone Radius and Household sample size.

Serial	District	Area (Sq. Kms)	Zone Radius (Kms)		Household sample	HH sample/ surveyed Community
			Radius I (Intermediate)	Radius II (Peripheral)		
1.	Haripur	1,725	10	20	400	80x5
2.	Abbottabad	1,967	12	24	500	100x5
3.	Mansehra	4,579	25	50	660	133x5
4.	Batagram	1,301	15	30	180	36x5
5.	Kohistan	7,492	30	60	260	52x5
Hazara		17,064			2000	2000

Having done the zoning of each of the target districts, the next step was to select the sample of communities in each of these zones. This was done on uniform basis in all districts as below:

5.5.2.3.1 Central zone

One urban community was randomly selected from the randomly selected urban Union Council (UC) from the urban circle of radius 5 kms in each district.

5.5.2.3.2 Intermediate zone

In each district two rural communities were selected randomly from the randomly selected rural Union Councils (UCs) from the rural circle of the various radii according to the district Arial sprawl for intermediate zone as shown in table 5.2

5.5.2.3.3 Peripheral zone

Two rural communities were selected randomly from the randomly selected rural Union Councils (UCs) from the rural circle of the various radii according to the district Arial sprawl for peripheral zone as shown in table 5.2 in each district.

Thus, in all, 25 settlements were included in the sample; 5 in Central zones, and 10 each in the Intermediate and the Peripheral zones. The names and numerical codes of the sample settlements are given in Table 5.3 and the respondents'

percentage share of each community is shown in Fig. 6.2 for each of the five districts.

Map 5.1 Hazara Region: District wise Zonal Division.

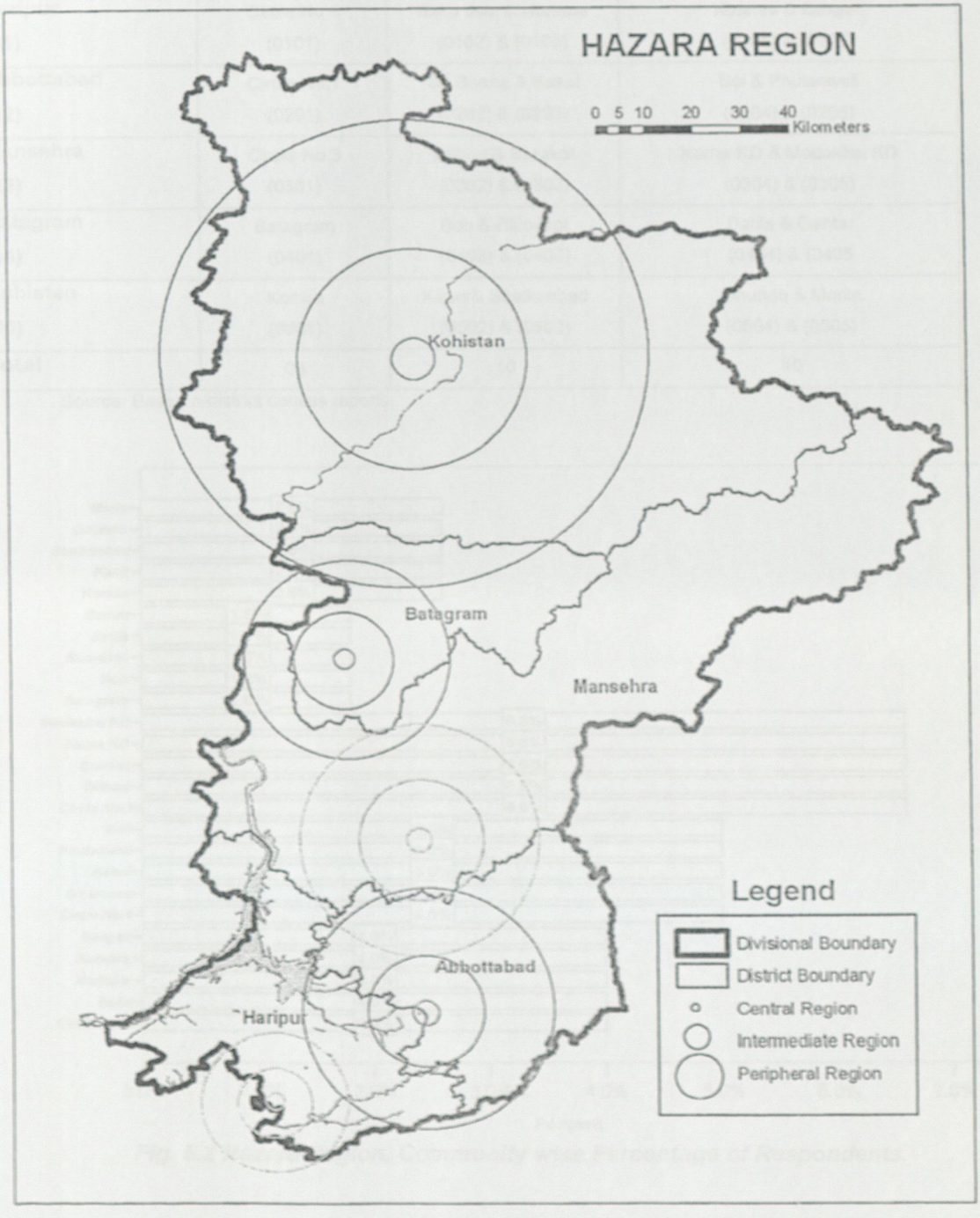


Table 5.3:- Hazara, district wise randomly selected communities with respective codes.

District	Geographical zones		
	1. Central	2.Intermediate	3. Peripheral
Haripur (01)	Circle No.4 (0101)	Baka Jabi & Nartopa (0102) & (0103)	Kotehra & Baitgali (0104) & (0105)
Abbottabad (02)	Circle No.1 (0201)	Sir Bhana & Kakul (0202) & (0203)	Boi & Phulanwali (0204) & (0205)
Mansehra (03)	Circle No.3 (0301)	Dilbori & Barakot (0302) & (0303)	Karna KD & Madakhel KD (0304) & (0305)
Batagram (04)	Batagram (0401)	Bob & Blundkot (0402) & (0403)	Batila & Gantar (0404) & (0405
Kohistan (05)	Komila (0501)	Kaser& Shelkenbad (0502) & (0503)	Ghundo & Mariin (0504) & (0505)
Total	05	10	10

Source: Based n district census reports.

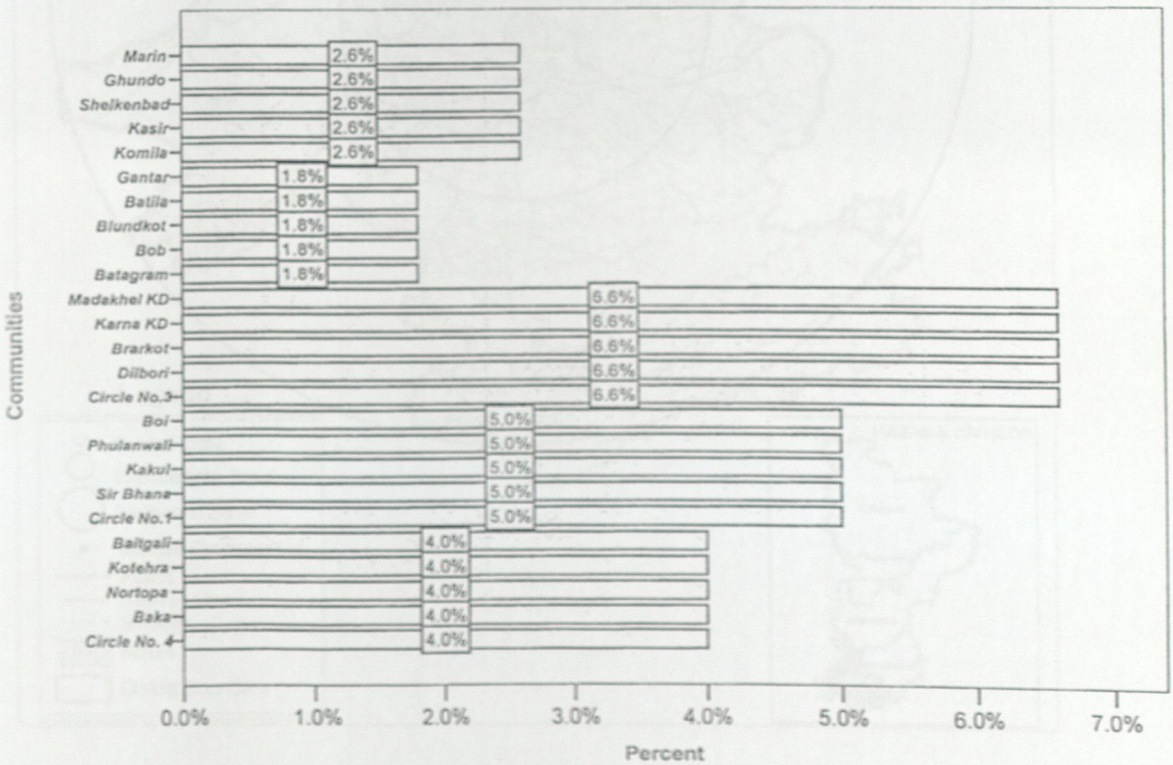
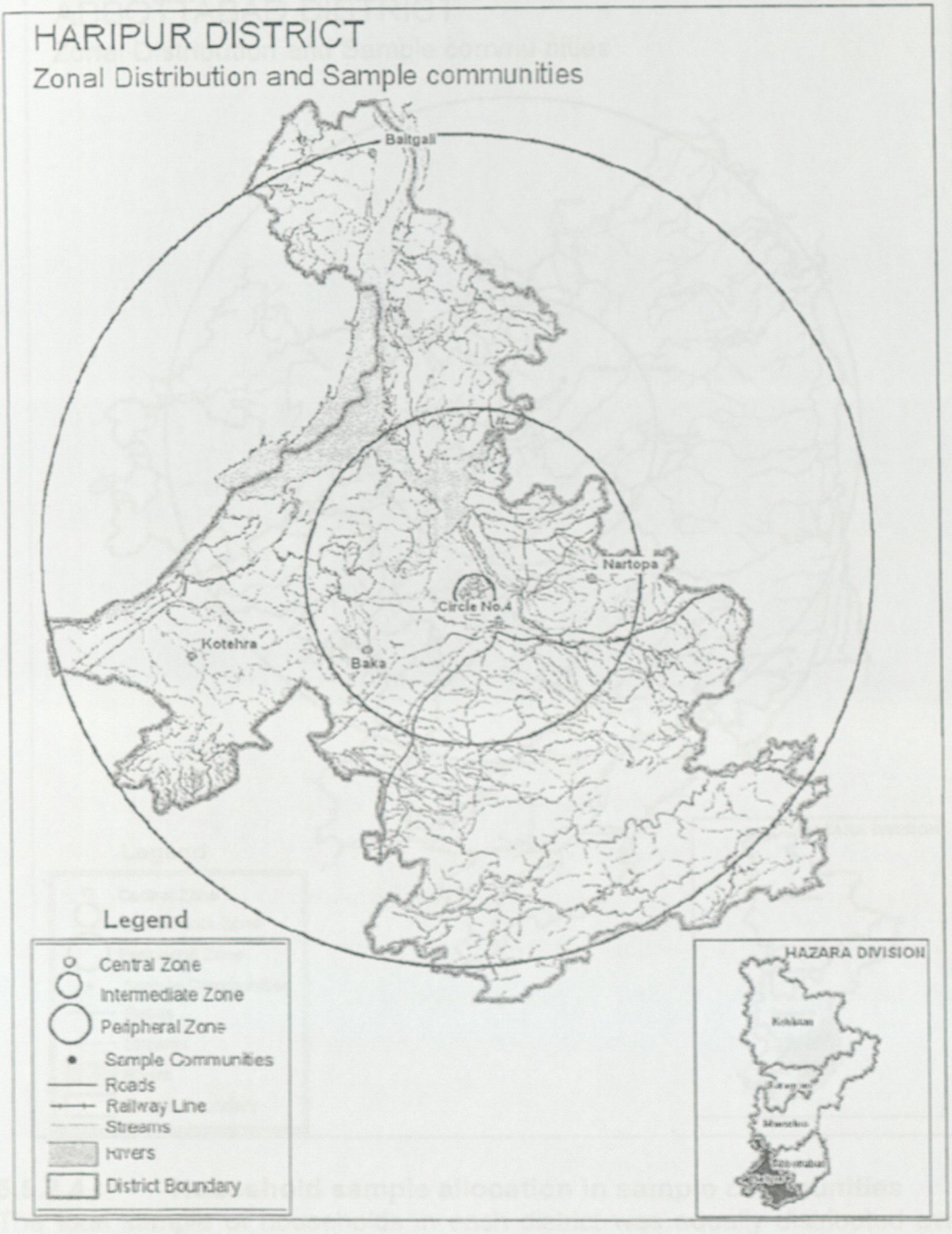


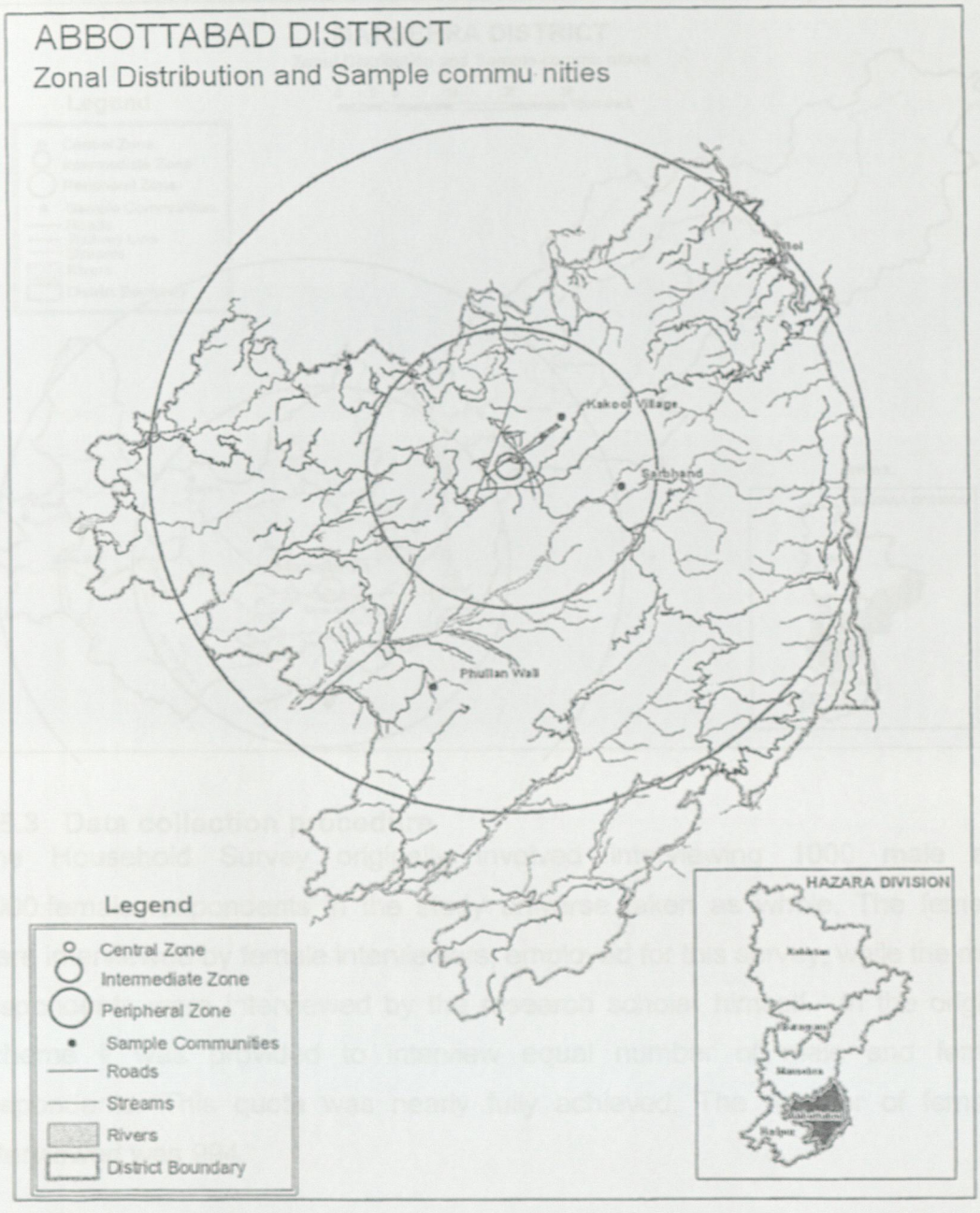
Fig. 5.2 Hazara Region, Community wise Percentage of Respondents.

Map 5.2 Haripur District: Zone wise Distribution of Communities.



The selection of settlements shown in Table 5.2 was made randomly .The 1998 District Census Reports were used as the sampling frame.

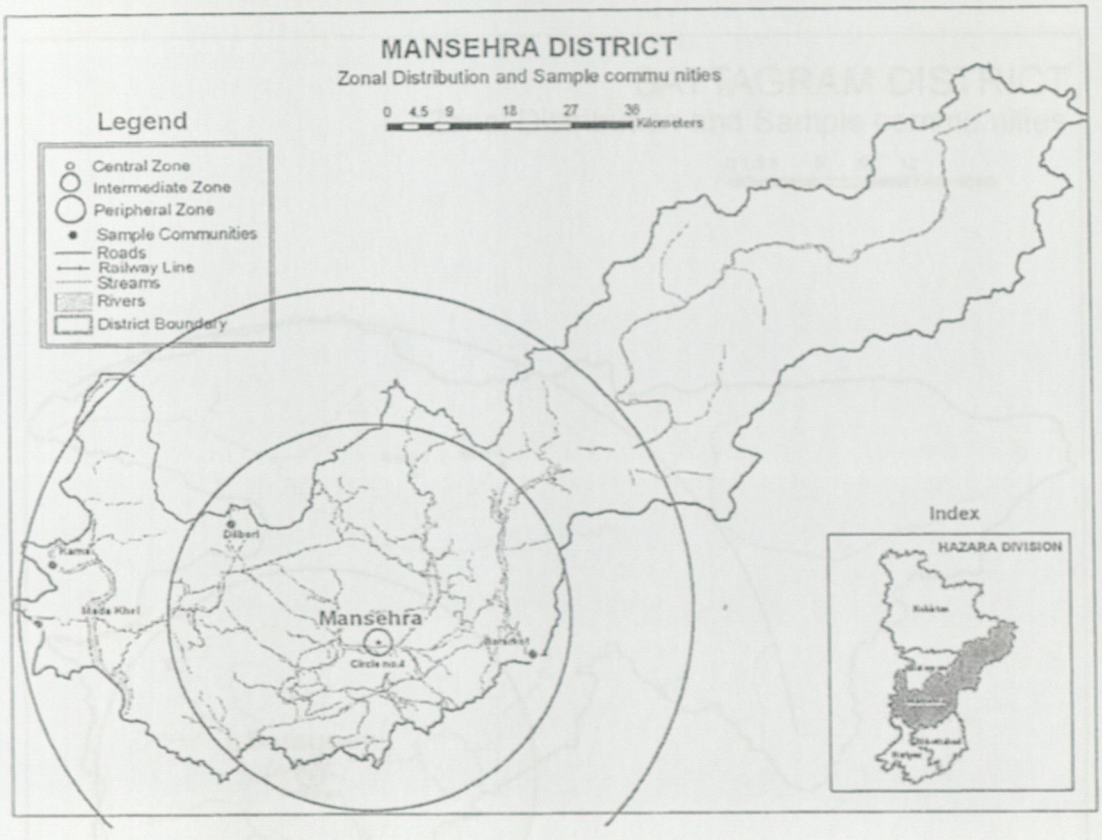
Map 5.3 Abbottabad District: Zone wise Distribution of Communities.



5.5.2.4 Household sample allocation in sample communities

The total sample of households in each district was equally distributed over its sample communities. Thus for communities sample households were: Haripur 80; Abbottabad100; Mansehra 132; Batagram 36 and Kohistan 52 respectively. The total sampling by districts is given in table 5.2.

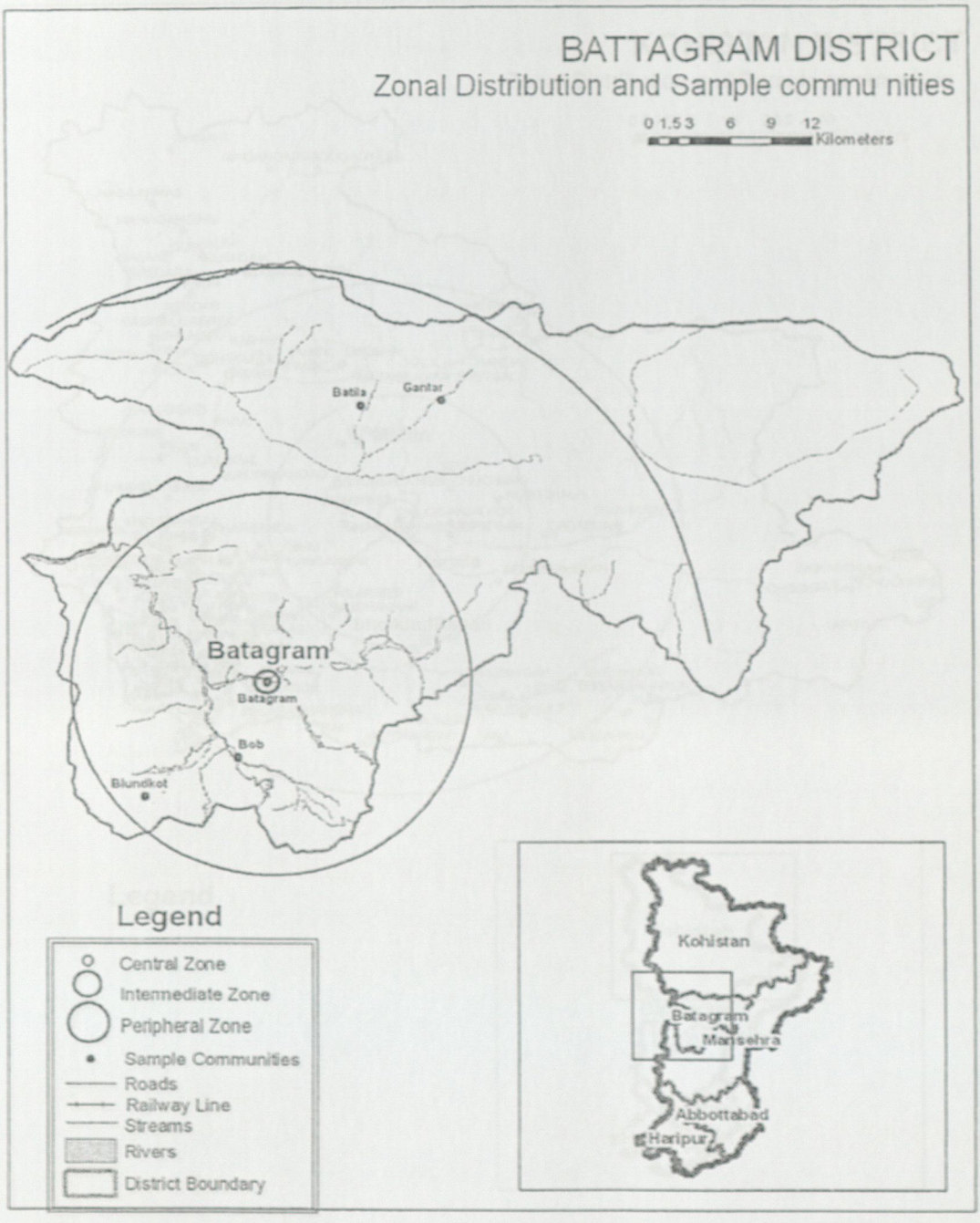
Map 5.4 Mansehra District: Zone wise Distribution of Communities.



5.5.3 Data collection procedure

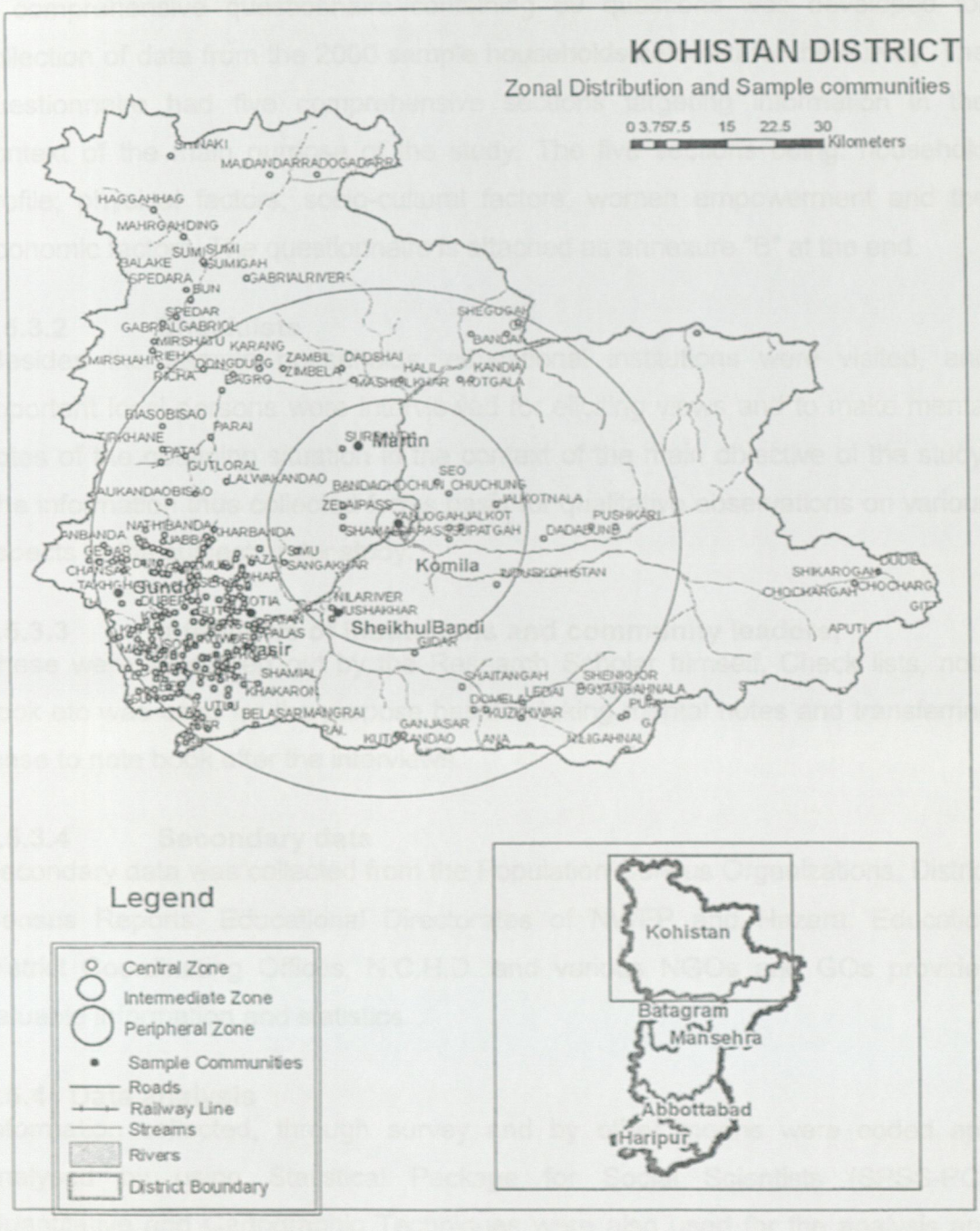
The Household Survey originally involved interviewing 1000 male and 1000.female respondents in the study universe taken as whole. The females were interviewed by female interviewers, employed for this survey, while the male respondents were interviewed by the research scholar himself. In the original scheme it was provided to interview equal number of male and female respondents. This quota was nearly fully achieved. The number of females interviewed was 994.

Map 5.5 Batagram District: Zone wise Distribution of Communities.



only six short of the total quota, while 1006 males were interviewed; six more than the original share so as to make it a total of 2000 interviews to achieve the sample size of 2000 households.

Map 5.6 Kohistan District: Zone wise Distribution of Communities.



The households in the sample localities were selected randomly. The male and the female interviewers divided the localities between themselves, to carry out interviews of their respective respondents.

5.5.3.1 Household questionnaire

A comprehensive questionnaire containing 69 questions was developed for collection of data from the 2000 sample households selected for the survey. The questionnaire had five comprehensive sections targeting information in the context of the main purpose of the study. The five sections being: household profile; physical factors; socio-cultural factors; women empowerment and the economic factors. The questionnaire is attached as annexure "B" at the end.

5.5.3.2 Checklists

Besides the sample households, educational institutions were visited, and important local persons were interviewed for eliciting views and to make mental notes of the obtaining situation in the context of the main objective of the study. The information thus collected forms basis for qualitative observations on various aspects of the subject under study.

5.5.3.3 Interviews of institutions and community leaders;

These were all carried out by the Research Scholar himself. Check lists, note book etc was used for the purpose besides taking mental notes and transferring these to note book after the interviews.

5.5.3.4 Secondary data

Secondary data was collected from the Population Census Organizations, District Census Reports. Educational Directorates of NWFP and Hazara, Education District Coordinating Offices, N.C.H.D. and various NGOs and GOs provided valuable information and statistics.

5.5.4 Data analysis

Information collected, through survey and by other means were coded and analysed by using Statistical Package for Social Scientists (SPSS-PC). Quantitative and Cartographic Techniques were also used for the analysis and presentation of data. Paired sample correlations are also frequently used by applying Bi-variation T-tests to evaluate the existing relationship between dependent and independent variables of Respondents.

Chapter # 6

Impact of Location and Family Size on Education

6.0 Introduction

The terrain of Hazara region is mostly mountainous with small and narrow valleys that hardly favour any sort of movement to conduct economic activity other than forestry, livestock rearing and limited agriculture. Therefore, the physical limitations in human development in sense of literacy and education attainment cannot be ignored especially in a rough and tough type of mountainous terrain. On high mountains, the population is very thin and wide spread, the settlements are fragmented and girls have to negotiate with deep gorges, steep cliffs and narrow valleys on their way to school and back home.

Access to all levels of education, including the higher level, and all academic areas is the key factor of progress. There are even such mountainous areas, which can only be accessed on foot or by using animal transport. The ability of people to move in mountains is adversely affected by the nature of terrain and the limited number of roads and tracks. The vehicular movement is restricted to the existing roads and tracks. Where there are no roads, animal transport is used, which comprises mules and horses. In the areas, where the mule tracks also do not exist or the terrain is too rough and difficult, porters are the last resort for supply and transportation of goods (**Akhtar; 2002**).

Some areas are not accessible even after having all the sources of mobility in Hazara. Some areas are accessible only by air. At some places accessibility is also restricted by the weather conditions, despite having all the suitable means of mobility. For example to reach Nathiagali from Abbottabad or Kaghan from Mansehra will be impossible during winters in heavy snow, by vehicles and other means of mobility available. Heavy rains, snowfalls and landslides can block the approach for several weeks, restricting accessibility to only by foot or animal transport. These features of the study universe need be studied in the context of their impact on literacy rate and educational attainment of the

female population in the region (Hazara) so as to determine the causes of gender inequality in this sphere. The present chapter is devoted to this analysis. To begin with, some of the basic socio-economic characteristics of the respondents and also the household members are described. Thereafter, the location pattern of the primary schools is inquired into and analysed for its impact on female literacy, followed by analysis of other relevant factors in the context of determinants of literacy level.

6.1 Socio-economic characteristics of the respondents

6.1.1 Distribution of respondents by gender, literacy and education

The males and females constituted the survey's respondents in almost equal proportion 996 females (49.7%) and 1004 males (50.3%), in the five districts taken as a whole. The proportions, however, varied from district to district as shown in Table 6.1. The largest proportion of female respondents was found in the Abbottabad district (66.6%) and the smallest in Kohistan district (30.8%).

Table-6.1 Hazara Region, District wise Gender of Respondents[a].

Districts		Gender		Total
		Female	Male	
Haripur	Count	205	195	400
	% within Districts	51.3%	48.8%	100.0%
Abbottabad	Count	333	167	500
	% within Districts	66.6%	33.4%	100.0%
Mansehra	Count	294	366	660
	% within Districts	44.5%	55.5%	100.0%
Batagram	Count	82	98	180
	% within Districts	45.6%	54.4%	100.0%
Kohistan	Count	80	180	260
	% within Districts	30.8%	69.2%	100.0%
Total	Count	994	1006	2000
	% within Districts	49.7%	50.3%	100.0%

a. Field Survey, 2006.

A little more than half (51.1%) of the 2000 respondents- men and women taken together, were illiterate. Literacy level was highest in Abbottabad district (66.8%) and lowest in Kohistan district (20.4%), as shown in Table 6.2.

Table-6.2 Hazara Region, District wise Literacy of Respondents[a].

Literacy		Districts					Total
		01	*02*	*03*	*04*	*05*	
Illiterate	Count	182	166	346	120	207	1021
	%	45.5%	33.2%	52.4%	66.7%	79.6%	51.1%
Literate	Count	218	334	314	60	53	979
	%	54.5%	66.8%	47.6%	33.3%	20.4%	49.0%
Total	Count	400	500	660	180	260	2000
	%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100%	100.0%

[a]. Field Survey, 2006.

All levels of education are represented to varying degrees in the educational profile of the respondents. The single largest proportion of respondents had had up to primary level education (14.4%) followed by middle level (10.7%) entailing 5 years and 8 years respectively of schooling (Table6.3). It is quite striking that while only a fraction of one percent of the total respondents dropped out of schools in below primary stage after they had had less than five years schooling, a good 3.4% proceeded up to postgraduate level education. This was the situation in the surveyed districts taken as whole. A more or less similar pattern can be seen in Table 6.3 in the five districts taken individually.

The proportions of male and female respondents, taken as a whole, distributed by level of education attained are shown in Figure 6.1. In the case of both the genders, the proportion of primary level education is highest as compared to other levels, and it declines as the level of education rises. However, the distribution of each of the two genders taken separately over the different levels of education differs markedly. The males have had a relatively higher level of education as compared with the female respondents. Thus as will be seen in Figure 6.2 the proportion of male respondents with post primary education was 7% as compared to the corresponding figure of 4% for female respondents.

Table-6.3 Hazara Region, District wise Education of the Respondents.

Education		Districts					Total
		01	02	03	04	05	
Illiterate	Count	182	166	346	120	207	1021
	%	45.5%	33.2%	52.4%	66.7%	79.6%	51.1%
Below Primary	Count	4	6	0	0	2	12
	%	1.0%	1.2%	.0%	.0%	.8%	.6%
Primary	Count	66	66	105	26	25	288
	%	16.5%	13.2%	15.9%	14.4%	9.6%	14.4%
Middle	Count	48	59	78	16	12	213
	%	12.0%	11.8%	11.8%	8.9%	4.6%	10.7%
Metric	Count	42	55	51	6	10	164
	%	10.5%	11.0%	7.7%	3.3%	3.8%	8.2%
Intermediat	Count	21	37	34	4	2	98
	%	5.3%	7.4%	5.2%	2.2%	.8%	4.9%
Graduate	Count	25	69	36	4	2	136
	%	6.3%	13.8%	5.5%	2.2%	.8%	6.8%
Post Graduate	Count	12	42	10	4	0	68
	%	3.0%	8.4%	1.5%	2.2%	.0%	3.4%
Total	Count	400	500	660	180	260	2000
	%	100.0%	100.0%	100%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

a. Field Survey, 2006.

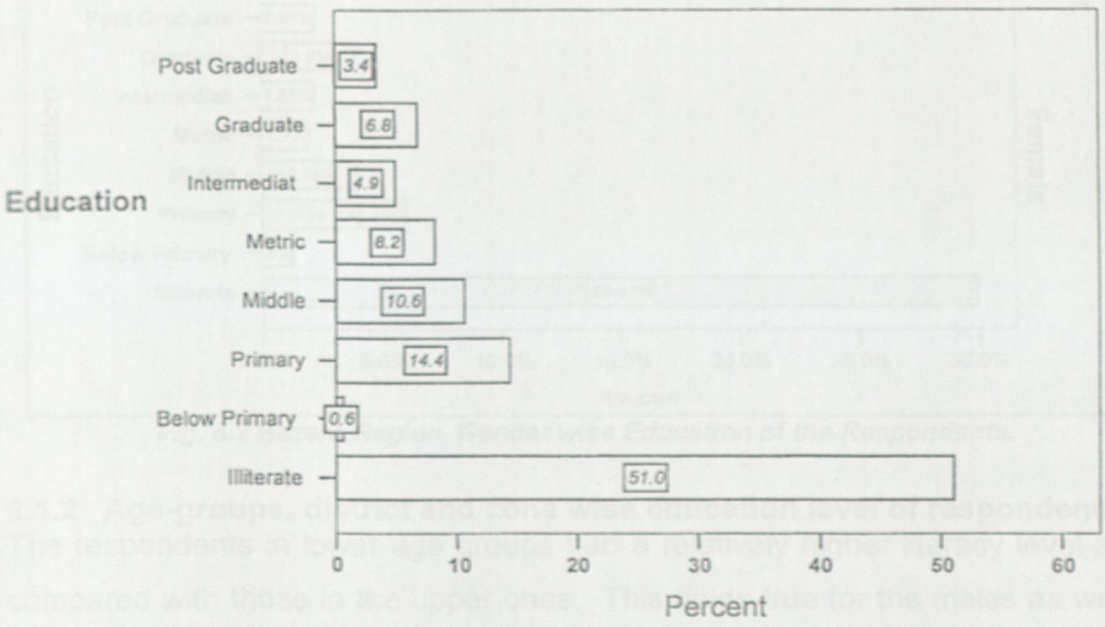


Fig. 6.1 Hazara Region, Education Status of the Respondents.

It is interesting to note that as compared with male respondents a higher proportion of female respondents had attained Graduate and Post Graduate level education; Figure 6.2. Though their lead in this respect was not by a wide margin, yet this is a noteworthy feature in a region where females are generally speaking given a secondary treatment in the matter of access to education in general, what to speak of higher education. The girls who cross the matriculation or intermediate stage do comparatively better than the boys, as is a commonplace knowledge and general observation based on exams results in the province.

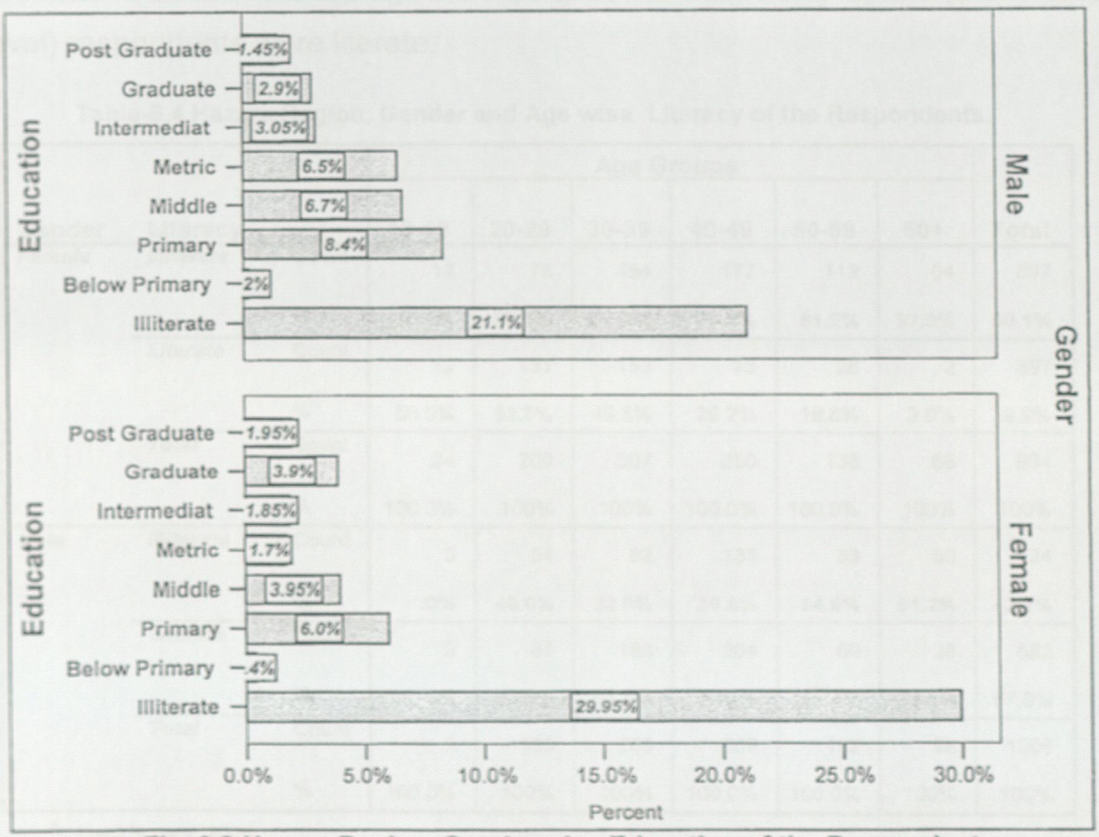


Fig. 6.2 Hazara Region, Gender wise Education of the Respondents.

6.1.2 Age-groups, district and zone wise education level of respondents

The respondents in lower age groups had a relatively higher literacy level as compared with those in the upper ones. This holds true for the males as well as well as the females. Thus, as will be seen in Table 6.4, of the female respondents aged 16-19 as many as 50%, and of those aged 60+ only 3%

were literate. The highest level (62.7%) was recorded in the 20-29 years age group after which the literacy level showed an uninterrupted declining tendency with rise in age group reaching the minimum in the top age group of 60+.

Amongst the male respondents, too, the higher age brackets showed relatively lower literacy level, but the declining trend was not as sharp as observed above in the case of female respondents. The youngest of the male respondents (aged 16-19 had the highest literacy level(100%) while the opposite is true for the top age bracket of 60+ in which only 38.8% (the lowest level) respondents were literate.

Table-6.4 Hazara Region, Gender and Age wise Literacy of the Respondents.

Gender	Literacy		Age Groups						Total
			16-19	20-29	30-39	40-49	50-59	60+	
Female	*Illiterate*	Count	12	78	154	177	112	64	597
		%	50.0%	37.3%	50.2%	70.8%	81.2%	97.0%	60.1%
	Literate	Count	12	131	153	73	26	2	397
		%	50.0%	62.7%	49.8%	29.2%	18.8%	3.0%	39.9%
	Total	Count	24	209	307	250	138	66	994
		%	100.0%	100%	100%	100.0%	100.0%	100%	100%
Male	*Illiterate*	Count	0	54	92	135	83	60	424
		%	.0%	40.0%	32.9%	39.8%	54.6%	61.2%	42.1%
	Literate	Count	2	81	188	204	69	38	582
		%	100.0%	60.0%	67.1%	60.2%	45.4%	38.8%	57.9%
	Total	Count	2	135	280	339	152	98	1006
		%	100.0%	100%	100%	100.0%	100.0%	100%	100%

a. Field Survey, 2006.

The highest percentage of illiterates (79.6%) was recorded in district Kohistan and the lowest; 33.2%, in district Abbottabad. The highest percentage of Primary and Middle level education was recorded in district Haripur while the highest figures for post Middle level education received by the respondents were recorded in District Abbottabad.

On the other extreme, the lowest figures for all levels of education-except Matriculation were recorded in Kohistan district. The Batagram district had the unenviable distinction of reporting the lowest figure of respondents with matriculation level education, as shown in Table 6.5, which applies to male and female respondents taken together.

Data on literacy status of male and female respondents distributed by districts are given in Table 6.6. The corresponding data on the level of education attained by the respondents are given in Table 6.7. Kohistan district had the highest illiteracy rate (96%) while the Abbottabad district had the highest literacy rate (39%) for female respondents. The highest corresponding figures for male respondents were recorded in the same two districts (Table 6.6).

In so far as the level of education attained by the female respondents is concerned, the Abbottabad district led the others, with as many as 31.5% of its respondents having attained post-matriculation level education, including 24.6% with graduate and higher degrees. The Kohistan district was the laggard most in this respect with only 1.6% in the post matriculates group (Table 6.7).

A more or less similar picture is obtained in respect of male respondents. The Abbottabad district was on top and the Kohistan district at the bottom in terms of their level of education. Thus, as will be seen in Table 6.7, in Abbottabad 23% male respondents had attained post-middle level education -the highest among the five districts. The corresponding lowest figure of 2.2% was recorded in the Kohistan district. The two districts bear a similar comparison in terms of the overall level of development.

Table:- 6.5 Hazara, District wise education of the Respondents.

Education		District					Total
		Haripur	Abbottabad	Mansehra	Batagram	Kohistan	
Illiterate	Count	182	166	346	120	207	1021
	%	45.5%	33.2%	52.4%	66.7%	79.6%	51.1%
Below Primary	Count	4	6	0	0	2	12
	%	1.0%	1.2%	.0%	.0%	.8%	.6%
Primary	Count	66	66	105	26	25	288
	%	16.5%	13.2%	15.9%	14.4%	9.6%	14.4%
Middle	Count	48	59	78	16	12	213
	%	12.0%	11.8%	11.8%	8.9%	4.6%	10.7%
Matric	Count	42	55	51	6	10	164
	%	10.5%	11.0%	7.7%	3.3%	3.8%	8.2%
Intermediate	Count	21	37	34	4	2	98
	%	5.3%	7.4%	5.2%	2.2%	.8%	4.9%
Graduate	Count	25	69	36	4	2	136
	%	6.3%	13.8%	5.5%	2.2%	.8%	6.8%
Post Graduate	Count	12	42	10	4	0	68
	%	3.0%	8.4%	1.5%	2.2%	.0%	3.4%
Total	Count	400	500	660	180	260	2000
	%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Source: Field Survey, 2006.

Table-6.6 Hazara, Region Gender and District wise Respondent's Literacy Status.

Gender	Literacy		Districts					Total
			01	02	03	04	05	
Female	Illiterate	Count	124	128	192	76	77	597
		%	60.5%	38.4%	65.3%	92.7%	96.3%	60.1%
	Literate	Count	81	205	102	6	3	397
		%	39.5%	61.6%	34.7%	7.3%	3.8%	39.9%
	Total	Count	205	333	294	82	80	994
		%	100.0%	100.0%	100%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Male	Illiterate	Count	58	38	154	44	130	424
		%	29.7%	22.8%	42.1%	44.9%	72.2%	42.1%
	Literate	Count	137	129	212	54	50	582
		%	70.3%	77.2%	57.9%	55.1%	27.8%	57.9%
	Total	Count	195	167	366	98	180	1006
		%	100.0%	100.0%	100%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

a. Source: Field Survey, 2006.

Table-6.7 Hazara Region, Gender and District wise Education and Literacy of the Respondents.[a]

Gender	Education		Districts 01	02	03	04	05	Total
Female	Illiterate	Count	124	128	192	76	77	597
		%	60.5%	38.4%	65.3%	92.7%	96.3%	60.1%
	Below Primary	Count	4	2	0	0	2	8
		%	2.0%	.6%	.0%	.0%	2.5%	.8%
	Primary	Count	29	48	37	4	1	119
		%	14.1%	14.4%	12.6%	4.9%	1.3%	12.0%
	Middle	Count	15	33	33	2	0	83
		%	7.3%	9.9%	11.2%	2.4%	.0%	8.4%
	Matric	Count	8	17	9	0	0	34
		%	3.9%	5.1%	3.1%	.0%	.0%	3.4%
	Intermediat	Count	6	23	8	0	0	37
		%	2.9%	6.9%	2.7%	.0%	.0%	3.7%
	Graduate	Count	13	51	13	0	0	77
		%	6.3%	15.3%	4.4%	.0%	.0%	7.7%
	Post Graduate	Count	6	31	2	0	0	39
		%	2.9%	9.3%	.7%	.0%	.0%	3.9%
	Total	Count	205	333	294	82	80	994
		%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Male	Illiterate	Count	58	38	154	44	130	424
		%	29.7%	22.8%	42.1%	44.9%	72.2%	42.1%
	Below Primary	Count	0	4	1	0	0	5
		%	.0%	2.4%	.3%	.0%	.0%	.5%
	Primary	Count	37	18	66	22	24	167
		%	19.0%	10.8%	18.0%	22.4%	13.3%	16.6%
	Middle	Count	33	30	45	14	12	134
		%	16.9%	18.0%	12.3%	14.3%	6.7%	13.3%
	Matric	Count	35	38	42	6	10	131
		%	17.9%	22.8%	11.5%	6.1%	5.6%	13.0%
	Intermediat	Count	15	13	26	4	2	60
		%	7.7%	7.8%	7.1%	4.1%	1.1%	6.0%
	Graduate	Count	11	16	24	4	2	57
		%	5.6%	9.6%	6.6%	4.1%	1.1%	5.7%
	Post Graduate	Count	6	10	8	4	0	28
		%	3.1%	6.0%	2.2%	4.1%	.0%	2.8%
	Total	Count	195	167	366	98	180	1006
		%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

a. Field Survey, 2006.

Among the female respondents, the highest percentage (84.4%) of the illiterates was recorded in the peripheral zone and the lowest (16.7%) in the central zone. The central zone and the peripheral zone presented a more or less similar comparison in respect of level of education attained by the

respondents- excepting the primary level in which the intermediate zone led the other two, as shown in Table 6.8.

Table-6.8 Hazara Region, Gender and Zone wise Education of the Respondents.

Gender	Education		Zonal Distribution			Total
			Central	Intermediate	Peripheral	
Female	Illiterate	Count	37	263	297	597
		%	16.7%	62.5%	84.4%	60.1%
	Below Primary	Count	2	4	2	8
		%	.9%	1.0%	.6%	.8%
	Primary	Count	24	65	31	120
		%	10.9%	15.4%	8.8%	12.1%
	Middle	Count	32	41	10	83
		%	14.5%	9.7%	2.8%	8.4%
	Matric	Count	15	16	3	34
		%	6.8%	3.8%	.9%	3.4%
	Intermediat	Count	26	8	3	37
		%	11.8%	1.9%	.9%	3.7%
	Graduate	Count	55	15	6	76
		%	24.9%	3.6%	1.7%	7.6%
	Post Graduate	Count	30	9	0	39
		%	13.6%	2.1%	.0%	3.9%
	Total	Count	221	421	352	994
		%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Male	Illiterate	Count	20	149	255	424
		%	11.2%	39.3%	56.9%	42.1%
	Below Primary	Count	0	0	5	5
		%	.0%	.0%	1.1%	.5%
	Primary	Count	36	70	61	167
		%	20.1%	18.5%	13.6%	16.6%
	Middle	Count	28	51	55	134
		%	15.6%	13.5%	12.3%	13.3%
	Matric	Count	35	54	42	131
		%	19.6%	14.2%	9.4%	13.0%
	Intermediat	Count	18	25	17	60
		%	10.1%	6.6%	3.8%	6.0%
	Graduate	Count	26	20	11	57
		%	14.5%	5.3%	2.5%	5.7%
	Post Graduate	Count	16	10	2	28
		%	8.9%	2.6%	.4%	2.8%
	Total	Count	179	379	448	1006
		%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

a. Field Survey, 2006.

In case of male respondents, too, the highest incidence of illiteracy (57%) was found in the peripheral zone and the lowest (11.2%) in the central zone. The

central zone respondents led those of the other two zones in respect of level of education. The percentage of the illiterates was found increasing from central to the peripheral zone amongst both genders, while, the education levels attained by the respondents- from primary to post graduate stage, tended to be decreasing from central to the peripheral zones.

6.1.3 Graduate and non graduate respondents

It was interesting to find that the highest illiteracy rate was recorded amongst the women (60.1%); the highest graduation and post graduation education percentage12.2% was also amongst the female gender. Though no graduate woman respondent was recorded in the districts of Kohistan and Batagram, their percentage was the highest in the central zone of Abbottabad district amongst both genders 25.8% and 15.6% for females and males respectively (Table 6.9).

Table-6.9 Hazara Region, Gender and District wise Graduation Education and Literacy of the Respondents.[a]

Gender	Graduation		Districts 01	02	03	04	05	Total
Female	Graduate	Count	20	86	15	0	0	121
		%	9.8%	25.8%	5.1%	.0%	.0%	12.2%
	Less than Graduate	Count	61	119	87	6	3	276
		%	29.8%	35.7%	29.6%	7.3%	3.8%	27.8%
	Illiterate	Count	124	128	192	76	77	597
		%	60.5%	38.4%	65.3%	92.7%	96.3%	60.1%
	Total	Count	205	333	294	82	80	994
		%	100.0%	100%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Male	Graduate	Count	16	26	33	8	2	85
		%	8.2%	15.6%	9.0%	8.2%	1.1%	8.4%
	Less than Graduate	Count	121	103	179	46	48	497
		%	62.1%	61.7%	48.9%	46.9%	26.7%	49.4%
	Illiterate	Count	58	38	154	44	130	424
		%	29.7%	22.8%	42.1%	44.9%	72.2%	42.1%
	Total	Count	195	167	366	98	180	1006
		%	100.0%	100%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

[a] Field Survey, 2006.

The gender and district wise distribution of graduation education and illiteracy is shown in table-6.9, while same is shown zone wise in table-6.10 respectively.

The central zone had a relatively larger proportion of graduate level respondents as compared to the intermediate and peripheral zones in that order. This holds true for females as well as the males. As will be seen in table 6.10, of the female respondents 41.2% and of the male respondents 22.9% were graduates in the central zone. The corresponding figure steeply declined in the other two zones.

Table-6.10 Hazara Region, Gender and Zone wise Graduation.

Gender	Graduation		Zonal Distribution			Total
			Central	*Intermediate*	*Peripheral*	
Female	*Graduate*	Count	91	24	6	121
		%	41.2%	5.7%	1.7%	12.2%
	Less than Graduate	Count	94	133	49	276
		%	42.5%	31.6%	13.9%	27.8%
	Illiterate	Count	36	264	297	597
		%	16.3%	62.7%	84.4%	60.1%
	Total	Count	221	421	352	994
		%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Male	*Graduate*	Count	41	30	14	85
		%	22.9%	7.9%	3.1%	8.4%
	Less than Graduate	Count	118	200	179	497
		%	65.9%	52.8%	40.0%	49.4%
	Illiterate	Count	20	149	255	424
		%	11.2%	39.3%	56.9%	42.1%
	Total	Count	179	379	448	1006
		%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

a. Field Survey, 2006.

6.1.4 Parents' Education

It is said that if you educate a man, you educate an individual; if you educate a woman you educate the whole family rather whole nation. Hence it was considered pertinent to inquire into literacy/education status of the respondents parents, too. The respondents were found rather hesitant and shy answering this question about their parents. Nevertheless, they did provide the requested information. The relevant data are given in Tables 6.11 and 6.12 for mothers and fathers separately for female and male respondents respectively.

6.1.4.1 Mothers' literacy status

Mothers of almost 81% female respondents and 90 % male respondents were found illiterate in the surveyed zones taken as a whole. Their literacy profile was comparatively better in the Central zone where the corresponding figures were 52% and 69% % respectively. The figures were comparatively higher in the Intermediate zone and the highest in the Peripheral zone. Of the educated mothers, of the male and also the female respondents, the overwhelming majority had had below Matriculation level education. Thus, as will be seen in Table 6.11, in the total sample of 994 female respondents, only 52 mothers were found having received Matriculation or higher level education. The corresponding figure for the mothers of 1006 male respondents is even lower, only 15.

The mothers' literacy profile portrayed in Table 6.11 is depressing, but not surprising as they belong to the relatively older generation which was brought up in a situation of relatively low level of development in almost all walks of life including education. It is worth noting that the literacy profile of mothers of the female respondents was better than of the mothers of the male respondents. Their literacy rate was comparatively higher and they also led in terms of the level of education attained, as is borne out by Table 6. 11.

6.1.4.2 Fathers' literacy status

Literacy status of fathers of the female and male respondents, considered separately, was more or less like that of their mothers'. As will be seen in Table 6.12, fathers of 68% of female respondents and 77% of the male respondents were illiterate. The level of education attained by the fathers of the female respondents was comparatively better than of the male respondents. Of the female respondents' fathers, about 19% had had matriculation or higher level education, while the corresponding figure for the male respondents' fathers is 9%. However, the fathers of the two genders had a better literacy profile as compared with their mothers, as spelt out in detail in the relevant tables.

Table-6.11 Hazara, Gender and Zone wise Respondants' Mother's Education.

Gender	Mother's Education		Zonal Distribution			Total
			Central	Intermediate	Peripheral	
Female	Illiterate	Count	114	367	320	801
		%	51.6%	87.2%	90.9%	80.6%
	Below Primary	Count	6	16	12	34
		%	2.7%	3.8%	3.4%	3.4%
	Primary	Count	35	20	8	63
		%	15.8%	4.8%	2.3%	6.3%
	Middle	Count	28	10	6	44
		%	12.7%	2.4%	1.7%	4.4%
	Matric	Count	28	4	4	36
		%	12.7%	1.0%	1.1%	3.6%
	Intermediate	Count	8	2	2	12
		%	3.6%	.5%	.6%	1.2%
	Graduate	Count	0	2	0	2
		%	.0%	.5%	.0%	.2%
	Post Graduate	Count	2	0	0	2
		%	.9%	.0%	.0%	.2%
	Total	Count	221	421	352	994
		%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Male	Illiterate	Count	124	345	432	901
		%	69.3%	91.0%	96.4%	89.6%
	Below Primary	Count	8	16	5	29
		%	4.5%	4.2%	1.1%	2.9%
	Primary	Count	22	14	2	38
		%	12.3%	3.7%	.4%	3.8%
	Middle	Count	14	2	7	23
		%	7.8%	.5%	1.6%	2.3%
	Matric	Count	7	0	2	9
		%	3.9%	.0%	.4%	.9%
	Intermediate	Count	1	0	0	1
		%	.6%	.0%	.0%	.1%
	Graduate	Count	3	2	0	5
		%	1.7%	.5%	.0%	.5%
	Total	Count	179	379	448	1006
		%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

a. Source: Field Survey, 2006.

Table-6.12 Hazara, Gender and Zone wise Respondants'Fathers's Education.

Gender	Father's Education		Zonal Distribution			Total
			Central	*Intermediate*	*Peripheral*	
Female	*Illiterate*	Count	87	297	294	678
		%	*39.4%*	*70.5%*	*83.5%*	*68.2%*
	Below Primary	Count	2	14	13	29
		%	.9%	3.3%	3.7%	2.9%
	Primary	Count	15	38	14	67
		%	6.8%	*9.0%*	4.0%	6.7%
	Middle	Count	4	20	11	35
		%	1.8%	4.8%	3.1%	3.5%
	Matric	Count	52	38	18	108
		%	23.5%	*9.0%*	*5.1%*	10.9%
	Intermediate	Count	13	8	0	21
		%	5.9%	1.9%	.0%	2.1%
	Graduate	Count	38	6	2	46
		%	*17.2%*	1.4%	.6%	4.6%
	Post Graduate	Count	10	0	0	10
		%	4.5%	.0%	.0%	1.0%
	Total	Count	221	421	352	994
		%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Male	*Illiterate*	Count	98	311	364	773
		%	*54.7%*	*82.1%*	*81.3%*	*76.8%*
	Below Primary	Count	4	8	20	32
		%	2.2%	2.1%	4.5%	3.2%
	Primary	Count	15	22	22	59
		%	8.4%	*5.8%*	4.9%	5.9%
	Middle	Count	17	20	12	49
		%	9.5%	5.3%	2.7%	4.9%
	Matric	Count	29	16	20	65
		%	*16.2%*	4.2%	*4.5%*	*6.5%*
	Intermediate	Count	7	0	6	13
		%	3.9%	.0%	1.3%	1.3%
	Graduate	Count	5	2	4	11
		%	2.8%	.5%	.9%	1.1%
	Post Graduate	Count	4	0	0	4
		%	2.2%	.0%	.0%	.4%
	Total	Count	179	379	448	1006
		%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

a. Source: Field Survey, 2006.

6.2 Selected characteristics of sample households members

In this section some selected characteristics of members of the sample households covered by the survey are described.

The 2000 sample households had 12,583 members including children and adults.The females comprised about 51% and the males 49% of the total population, as shown in Table 6.13

Table-6.13 Hazara, Gender wise Distribution of surveyed Population.

Gender	Frequency	Percent	Cumulati\ Percent
Female	6383	50.8	50.
Male	6180	49.2	100.
Total	12563	100.0	

a. Source, Field Survey, 2006.

6.2.1 Distribution of sample population by age groups

The distribution of the adult population by relatively age groups is given in Table6.14.

Table-6.14 Hazara, Gender and Age wise Zonal Distribution of surveyed Adult Population

Gender	Age Groups		Zonal Distribution			Total
			Central	Intermediat	Peripheral	
Female	16-19	Count	102	239	242	583
		%	12.9%	15.0%	15.8%	14.9%
	20-29	Count	256	503	574	1333
		%	32.4%	31.6%	37.5%	34.1%
	30-39	Count	187	318	268	773
		%	23.7%	20.0%	17.5%	19.8%
	40-49	Count	118	257	173	548
		%	14.9%	16.2%	11.3%	14.0%
	50-59	Count	75	168	146	389
		%	9.5%	10.6%	9.5%	9.9%
	60 &>	Count	52	105	127	284
		%	6.6%	6.6%	8.3%	7.3%
	Total	Count	790	1590	1530	3910
		%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Male	16-19	Count	73	183	167	423
		%	10.5%	11.7%	11.7%	11.5%
	20-29	Count	149	444	448	1041
		%	21.5%	28.5%	31.4%	28.3%
	30-39	Count	156	313	256	725
		%	22.5%	20.1%	18.0%	19.7%
	40-49	Count	140	265	209	614
		%	20.2%	17.0%	14.7%	16.7%
	50-59	Count	94	199	139	432
		%	13.6%	12.8%	9.7%	11.7%
	60 &>	Count	81	155	207	443
		%	11.7%	9.9%	14.5%	12.0%
	Total	Count	693	1559	1426	3678
		%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

a. Source, Field Survey, 2006.

6.2.2 Child and adault literacy

In the surveyed zones taken as a whole, 58% of girls and almost 85% of the boys of school going age (5-15 years) were attending schools at the time of the survey. The highest level of schooling was found in the Central zone followed by the Intermediate and the Peripheral zones in case of boys as well as the girls. The inter- zone differentials in the incidence of schooling were sharper in the case of girls as compared with the boys as can be seen in Table 6.15.

Table-6.15 Hazara, Gender and School Status wise Zonal Distribution of School Going Children.

Gender	Children &School Status		Zonal Distribution			Total
			Central	Intermediate	Peripheral	
Female	going to school	Count	445	573	416	1434
		%	85.7%	62.9%	39.9%	58.0%
	not going to school	Count	74	338	627	1039
		%	14.3%	37.1%	60.1%	42.0%
	Total	Count	519	911	1043	2473
		%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Male	going to school	Count	379	866	870	2115
		%	90.0%	85.7%	81.3%	84.5%
	not going to school	Count	42	145	200	387
		%	10.0%	14.3%	18.7%	15.5%
	Total	Count	421	1011	1070	2502
		%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

In Table 6.15, the school-age children aged 5-15 years group are taken as a whole. A further analysis is done in Table 6.16, by reference to age groups of 5-9 and 10-15 to determine the incidence of schooling of the boys and girls treated separately in three zones taken as a whole.

Table-6.16 Hazara, Gender and Age wise School Status of the Children.

Child Gender	Age of the children			Children &School Status		Total
				going to school	not going to school	
Female		5-9	Count	660	332	992
			%	45.9%	32.0%	40.1%
		10-15	Count	777	704	1481
			%	54.1%	68.0%	59.9%
	Total		Count	1437	1036	2473
			%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Male		5-9	Count	1103	175	1278
			%	52.1%	45.3%	51.1%
		10-15	Count	1013	211	1224
			%	47.9%	54.7%	48.9%
	Total		Count	2116	386	2502
			%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

a. Source: Field Survey, 2006

As can be seen in Table 6.16, the 5-9 years age group had a lower incidence of schooling as compared to the 9-15 years group in case of

girls, while the opposite held true for the boys. Of the girls aged 5-9 years 46% were at schools as compared with the corresponding figure of 56% for the 9-15years group. The corresponding figures for the boys are 52% and 48 % respectively.

In all 1426 children _1039 girls and 387 boys, aged 5-15 years were not attending schools at the time of the survey. The reasons for that, as reported by the respondents, for the boys and the girls taken together are given in table 6.16a. As many as eleven factors are identified by the respondents for this situation. Customary barriers, males' opposition, and lack of female staff are prominent factors—all of these affect the females' education. The other important factors in the general context of boys and girls, as mentioned by the respondents are: the 'Lack of schools', 'Illiterate Parents' and the fact that some of these children (about 8% of the total) were attending religious schools.

Table-6.16a Hazara, Zone wise Reasons If Children were not going to schoôl.

Reasons If not Going to school		Zonal Distribution			Total
		Central	Intermediate	Peripheral	
Poverty	Count	17	79	118	214
	%	13.8%	16.4%	14.2%	15.0%
No further Schooling	Count	6	4	8	18
	%	5.2%	.8%	1.0%	1.2%
Other	Count	0	6	10	16
	%	.0%	1.2%	1.2%	1.1%
Lack of school	Count	12	63	85	160
	%	10.3%	13.0%	10.3%	11.2%
Illiterate Parent	Count	13	44	69	126
	%	10.4%	9.1%	8.3%	8.8%
Less Age	Count	3	48	19	70
	%	1.4%	9.9%	2.3%	4.9%
Male's Opposition	Count	18	90	173	281
	%	10.9%	18.6%	20.9%	19.7%
Disease	Count	3	14	18	35
	%	.3%	2.9%	2.2%	2.5%
Attending Religious Madrassa	Count	14	34	61	109
	%	1.5%	7.0%	7.4%	7.6%
No Custom	Count	23	83	222	328
	%	19.8%	3.7%	26.8%	23.0%
Non availability of Femal Staff	Count	7	18	44	69
	%	6.0%	17.1%	5.3%	4.8%
Total	Count	116	483	827	1426
	%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

a. Source: Field Survey, 2006.

Among the females aged 16 years or older, about 68% were illiterate. The corresponding figure for the male population is 41%. Of the literate sample population, the majority did not go for college education. Or alternatively put, they were educated up to or below the Matriculation level (for ten years or less). As will be seen in Table 6.17, among the females 9.4% had received post-Matriculation education while the corresponding figure is 17.7% for the literate male members of the sample households.

The literacy profile of the sample population in the Central Zone was distinctly better than of those in the Intermediate and the Peripheral zones in surveyed area. This holds true for female as well as the males. Thus, as will be seen in Table 6.17, of the females belonging to the Central Zones,

59% were literate compared with the corresponding figures of 34% and 12 % in the Intermediate and the Peripheral zones. Also in terms of level of education attained by the females, the Central Zones had comparatively higher levels to report followed by the Intermediate and the Peripheral zones in that order; women with post matriculation education comprised 27.5% of the total females in the sample households in the Central Zone, while the corresponding figures are 5.7% and 1.6% respectively in the next two zones in that order.

In the case of male members of the sample households, too, the Central Zone is seen leading the other two in respect of level of education attained by them. The inter-zone differentials in this respect are, however, less sharp as compared to the corresponding data of the female members. In the Central zone; 35% of the males had post-Matriculation education compared with the corresponding figures of 20% in the Intermediate zone and 6% in the Peripheral zone (Table 6.17).

Table-6.17 Hazara, Gender and Zone wise Education of the surveyed population.

Gender	Education		Zonal Distribution			Total
			Central	Intermediat	Peripheral	
Female	Illiterate	Count	302	986	1376	2664
		%	38.2%	62.0%	89.9%	68.1%
	Below Primary	Count	25	52	1	78
		%	3.2%	3.3%	.1%	2.0%
	Primary	Count	85	221	93	399
		%	10.8%	13.9%	6.1%	10.2%
	Middle	Count	53	143	17	213
		%	6.7%	9.0%	1.1%	5.4%
	Metric	Count	107	97	27	231
		%	13.5%	6.1%	1.8%	5.9%
	Intermediat	Count	80	43	10	133
		%	10.1%	2.7%	.7%	3.4%
	Graduate	Count	91	40	6	137
		%	11.5%	2.5%	.4%	3.5%
	Post Graduate	Count	42	8	0	50
		%	5.3%	.5%	.0%	1.3%
	Diploma/ Certificate	Count	5	0	0	5
		%	.6%	.0%	.0%	.1%
	Total	Count	790	1590	1530	3910
		%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Male	Illiterate	Count	97	512	872	1481
		%	14.0%	32.8%	61.1%	40.3%
	Below Primary	Count	12	7	0	19
		%	1.7%	.4%	.0%	.5%
	Primary	Count	95	225	158	478
		%	13.7%	14.4%	11.1%	13.0%
	Middle	Count	74	208	152	434
		%	10.7%	13.3%	10.6%	11.8%
	Metric	Count	171	298	155	624
		%	24.7%	19.1%	10.9%	17.0%
	Intermediat	Count	77	156	55	288
		%	11.1%	10.0%	3.9%	7.8%
	Graduate	Count	105	116	32	253
		%	15.2%	7.4%	2.2%	6.9%
	Post Graduate	Count	52	31	4	87
		%	7.5%	2.0%	.3%	2.4%
	Diploma/ Certificate	Count	8	6	0	14
		%	1.2%	.4%	.0%	.4%
	Total	Count	691	1559	1428	3678
		%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

a. Source: Field Survey, 2006.

District –wise literacy profile of males and females is shown below in Table 6.17a.In each district taken individually the broad pattern is similar to that shown in Table 6.17 for the sample population in Hazara as a whole. In every district, the Central zone shows relatively larger literacy ratio followed by the Intermediate zone and the Peripheral zone.

The highest female illiteracy, 96%, was reported in Kohistan district, and the lowest in Abbottabad district, 38%. In the case of males the corresponding positions are held by the same two districts.

Table-6.17a Hazara, District, Gender and Zone wise Literacy of the surveyed population.

Districts	Gender	Literacy		Zonal Distribution			Total
				Central	Intermediat	Peripheral	
Haripur	Female	Illiterate	Count	5	142	212	359
			%	3.9%	39.7%	85.8%	48.9%
		Literate	Count	124	216	35	375
			%	96.1%	60.3%	14.2%	51.1%
	Male	Illiterate	Count	2	31	54	87
			%	1.6%	8.9%	35.1%	13.7%
		Literate	Count	127	319	100	546
			%	98.4%	91.1%	64.9%	86.3%
Abotabad	Female	Illiterate	Count	21	129	350	500
			%	11.1%	31.5%	75.9%	47.1%
		Literate	Count	169	281	111	561
			%	88.9%	68.5%	24.1%	52.9%
	Male	Illiterate	Count	6	44	160	210
			%	3.7%	11.9%	33.4%	20.7%
		Literate	Count	158	326	319	803
			%	96.3%	88.1%	66.6%	79.3%
Mansehra	Female	Illiterate	Count	65	315	290	670
			%	29.5%	76.5%	97.6%	72.1%
		Literate	Count	155	97	7	259
			%	70.5%	23.5%	2.4%	27.9%
	Male	Illiterate	Count	10	196	271	477
			%	4.5%	38.4%	81.6%	44.7%
		Literate	Count	214	315	61	590
			%	95.5%	61.6%	18.4%	55.3%
Batagram	Female	Illiterate	Count	67	141	206	414
			%	66.3%	94.6%	100.0%	90.8%
		Literate	Count	34	8	0	42
			%	33.7%	5.4%	.0%	9.2%
	Male	Illiterate	Count	21	74	172	267
			%	32.3%	59.7%	85.6%	68.5%
		Literate	Count	44	50	29	123
			%	67.7%	40.3%	14.4%	31.5%
Kohistan	Female	Illiterate	Count	143	257	318	718
			%	95.3%	98.5%	99.7%	98.4%
		Literate	Count	7	4	1	12
			%	4.7%	1.5%	.3%	1.6%
	Male	Illiterate	Count	58	169	223	450
			%	53.2%	82.8%	85.1%	78.3%
		Literate	Count	51	35	39	125
			%	46.8%	17.2%	14.9%	21.7%

a. Source: Field Survey, 2006.

6.3 Physiograpy and female literacy in Hazara

As Hazara has variety of physical features, therefore, the study of the impact of Physiograpy on female literacy is very interesting. This impact is seen with reference to 'location of primary schools; 'physical barrier in between home and school; and the availability of 'means of conveyance' in between home and school, respectively.

6.3.1 Location of primary schools

Physiographic characteristics of the area where the primary schools are located affect accessibility of the schools and ,therefore, can have impact on schools enrolment and consequently the literacy rate and level of education of the concerned population, especially of females. Therefore, a logical starting point in the search for the factors accounting for lower literacy levels among females as compared to males would be to inquire into location of primary schools for girls differentiated by the physical characteristics of the areas of their location. To this end, the respondents were asked to state where their respective areas' primary schools (for girls) were located in terms of the physiography of the area of location. The resulting data are given in Table 6.18. *(It may be stated that the figures given in Table 6.18 represent the number of respondents who reported about location of girls' primary schools in the given physiographic zones, and not the number of the schools located there).*

In the surveyed zones taken as a whole (i.e.; the Hazara region), almost 49% of the girls primary schools were reported to be in the mountainous areas, and as such these are termed as mountainous schools in table 6.18 and subsequently. The next closet category, accounting for about 41 % schools, is that of schools located in the Piedmonts, followed by the schools located in the Plains with 11%.

The overall distribution of schools is consistent with the region's physiography, largely mountainous and sub-mountainous. This much about the Hazara reign

taken as a whole, when it comes to the corresponding sub-regional profiles viz. Central, Intermediate, and Peripheral zones, some sharp departures from the overall profile of the study area are found in table 6.18. In the Peripheral zones the mountainous schools are dominant with 68.3% share. In the Intermediate zones mountainous schools and those in piedmonts are almost evenly represented (accounting between them for 88% of the total) while in the Central zone the schools in Piedmonts (51%) and in the Plains (31%) account for the majority.

The inter-district departures from the aggregative averages of the study area as a whole and its three sub- zones are quite sharp. The highest incidence of mountainous schools was reported in Batagram (92%) of Piedmont schools in Abbottabad (68%) and of schools in the Plains in Haripur District (41%) Anx table 6.18. This distribution pattern is in conformity with the physiographic characteristics of the concerned districts.

Table-6.18 Hazara Region, Zonewise Location of Primary Girl's Schools.

Location of Primary Girl's School		Zonal Distribution			Total
		Central	Intermediate	Peripheral	
Mountainous Schools	Count	70	359	546	975
	%	17.5%	44.9%	68.3%	48.8%
The Schools Located in Piedmonts	Count	206	351	254	811
	%	51.5%	43.9%	31.8%	40.6%
The Schools Built up in Plains	Count	124	90	0	214
	%	31.0%	11.3%	.0%	10.7%
Total	Count	400	800	800	2000
	%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

a. Souece: Field Survey, 2006.

6.3.2 Physical barriers in between home and primary school

Physical barriers between home and the school would adversely affect schooling, especially of the girls. Therefore, the respondents were asked if there were any such barriers in their area. In the study area taken as a whole, 35% respondents answered this question in the affirmative.The corresponding figures zone-wise are: Central 5.5%, Intermediate 39.3%, and Peripheral 46% refers to table 6.19.

The highest incidence of physical barriers between home-school was recorded in Batagram district (69%) and the lowest in Haripur district (19.5%) as shown in Anx Table 6.2.

Table-6.19 Hazara, Zone wise Physical Barrier in between home and School.

Barrier		Zonal Distribution			Total
		Central	Intermediat	Peripheral	
No	Count	378	486	432	1296
	%	94.5%	60.8%	54.0%	64.8%
Yes	Count	22	314	368	704
	%	5.5%	39.3%	46.0%	35.2%
Total	Count	400	800	800	2000
	%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

a. Source: Field Survey,2006.

6.3.3 Means of conveyance

The overwhelming majority, 90.8% of the girls walked to their schools in the study area taken as a whole. The same holds true for the three zones taken separately. The use of vehicle was relatively more prominent in the central zone as compared with the other zones.

Table-6.20 Hazara Region, Zonal Distribution of Conveyance for girls.

Conveyance		Zonal Distribution			Total
		Central	Intermediat	Peripheral	
Walking.	Count	314	730	772	1816
	%	78.5%	91.3%	96.5%	90.8%
By bus.	Count	66	48	24	138
	%	16.5%	6.0%	3.0%	6.9%
Own conveyance	Count	8	10	4	22
	%	2.0%	1.3%	.5%	1.1%
other	Count	12	12	0	24
	%	3.0%	1.5%	.0%	1.2%
Total	Count	400	800	800	2000
	%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

a. Source: Field Survey, 2006.

Table-6.21 Hazara Region, Paired Samples Correlations[a].

		N	Correlation	Sig.
Pair 1	Zonal Distribution & Means of Conveyance	2000	-.202	.000
Pair 2	Zonal Distribution & Literacy	2000	-.389	.000
Pair 3	Literacy & Means of Conveyance	2000	.180	.000

a. Field Survey, 2006.

6.4 Home –school distance

For determining the factors accounting for male/female differentials in literacy level, it would be interesting and enlightening to inquire into home-school distances of different levels of educational institutions viz; the primary girl schools, the next neighbouring higher educational institutions etc. It would also be interesting to inquire into parents willingness to send their daughters to next neighbouring higher school/ college/ university as the case may be, and the reasons for their unwillingness, where so expressed. These inquiries would help ascertain impact of the above cited factors on females literacy in the study universe, These and other relevant aspects of the study are taken up in the present section, beginning with home-primary girl schools distances.

6.4.1 Home- primary girl school distance and female literacy

In the surveyed region (Hazara) taken as a whole, 51% of the girls primary schools were reported to be located within less than one kilometre of the respondents homes, while the corresponding figure for the schools in 1-2 km distance is 37%. The corresponding figures for schools at 3-4 kms and 4-5 kms distance from home are 8% and 4.5% respectively. The inter zone pattern is similar in character, differing only in degree. In the Central Zone, schools at a distance of one Km or less accounted for 90% of total schools there, while the corresponding figures for the Intermediate and Peripheral zones are 52% and 30%, respectively. A distance of one km doesn't mean the same in the mountainous or sub-mountainous zone as in the plain area in terms of time and energy involved in trekking it. However, within the context of a given zone a longer distance would in all probability negatively impact the rate of female

participation in school education. The present study indicates a negative correlation (-.348) between home-school distances and the female literacy level. That is, the longer distances negatively impact literacy level, but the negative correlation is weak (.Table 6.23).

Table:-6.22 Hazara Region, Zone wise Distance of Basic Girl's School from Home.

Distance of Basic Girl's School from Home		Zonal Distribution			Total
		Central	Intermediate	Peripheral	
<1 Kms	Count	358	420	237	1015
	%	89.5%	52.5%	29.6%	50.8%
1-2 Kms	Count	42	296	399	737
	%	10.5%	37.0%	49.9%	36.9%
3-4 Kms	Count	0	84	74	158
	%	.0%	10.5%	9.3%	7.9%
4-5 Kms	Count	0	0	90	90
	%	.0%	.0%	11.3%	4.5%
Total	Count	400	800	800	2000
	%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

a. Souece: Field Survey, 2006.

Table 6.23 Hazara Region, Paired Samples Correlations[a]

		N	Correlation	Sig.
Pair 1	Zonal Distribution & Literacy	2000	-.390	.000
Pair 2	Zonal Distribution & Distance of Basic Girl's School from Home	2000	.422	.000
Pair 3	Literacy & Distance of Basic Girl's School from Home	2000	-.348	.000

a. Souece: Field Survey, 2006.

6.4.2 Distance of next neighbouring girls' higher school

As opposed to the girls' primary schools' location pattern, which is characterised by a high degree of concentration close to respondents' homes, the girls High Schools are more widely scattered distance wise. Thus, taking the surveyed Hazara region as a whole, only a little over one percent of these are located within less than one km of respondents homes, while a good 34.7% are located at distances of over 10 km followed by 23.7% in 6-10km bracket; (table-6.24). The zone-wise data on location pattern of girls' high schools is, however, characterised by some noticeable departure from the

macro level picture. In the Central and the Intermediate zones, bulk of the high schools (around 63%) are located within less than 6km of respondents homes, while in the Peripheral zones, bulk of them (67%) are located beyond 6km.This distribution, of course, is shaped by and is in conformity with the area's physiographic characteristics.

Amongst the five districts in the study universe, the highest percentage of the longest distance of more than 10 kms was recorded in the district of Kohistan (85.4%) followed by the districts of Batagram and Mansehra with the corresponding percentage points of 60 % and 40% respectively. The highest percentage of 6-10 kms distance was found in the district of Haripur (40%). The highest percentage of the lowest distance of 3-5 kms was found in district Abbottabad (22%) as shown in Anx-table-6.5. Analysis shows that as the distance of the high school increases from central to the peripheral zones, the literacy rate decreases showing a negative correlation of -.379 as shown in table 6.25. The correlation is, however, weak signifying that search must be extended to other factors for determining causes of the phenomenon under study.

Table-6.24 Hazara Region, Zone wise Distance of Next Higher School.

Distance of Next Higher School		Zonal Distribution			Total
		Central	Intermediate	Peripheral	
<1 Kms	Count	5	108	0	113
	%	1.3%	13.5%	.0%	5.7%
1-2 Kms	Count	186	150	0	336
	%	46.5%	18.8%	.0%	16.8%
3-5 Kms	Count	57	226	100	383
	%	14.3%	28.3%	12.5%	19.2%
6-10 Kms	Count	100	214	160	474
	%	25.0%	26.8%	20.0%	23.7%
>10 Kms	Count	52	102	540	694
	%	13.0%	12.8%	67.5%	34.7%
Total	Count	400	800	800	2000
	%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

a. Field Survey, 2006.

Table-6.25 Hazara Region, Paired Samples Correlations[a].

		N	Correlation	Sig.
Pair 1	Literacy & Distance of Next Higher School	2000	-.379	.000

a. Field Survey, 2006.

6.4.3 Parents' willingness to send girls to neighbouring higher school

The parents were asked to indicate their willingness or unwillingness to send their girls to next neighbouring higher school to a nearby village or town, in case no higher school was available in their own village. About half of them (49.5%) were found reluctant to send their girls to a nearby girls' higher school as shown in table 6.26. Sending the girls to next neighbouring higher school was found mostly the problem of the rural and the semi-urban areas in the sample communities. The data as given in table 6.26 shows that the percentage of parents willing to send their girls to next neighbouring higher school was the highest in the central zone (87%); followed by the intermediate and the peripheral zones with the corresponding percentage points of 56% and 27% respectively. The percentage of unwilling parents falls steeply from peripheral zone (73%) to the central zone 13%.

In the districts ,taken separately, the highest percentage of the 'unwilling parents' was recorded in Kohistan (83.1%), followed by Batagram; Mansehra; Haripur and Abbottabad with the corresponding figures of 76.7%; 58.8%; 30.5% and 25% respectively, as shown in Anx-table-6.6.

As the percentage of 'unwilling parents' increases sharply from central to the peripheral zone, the literacy rate decreases in the same sequence with a negative, though a weak, correlation of -.380 as shown in table 6.27.

Table-6.26 Hazara, Zone wise Parents' wish to send Girls to Next Neighbouring High School[a]

Parents' wish to send Girls to Next Neighbouring High School		Zonal Distribution			Total
		Central	Intermediate	Peripheral	
Yes	Count	348	449	214	1011
	%	87.0%	56.1%	26.8%	50.6%
No	Count	52	351	586	989
	%	13.0%	43.9%	73.3%	49.5%
Total	Count	400	800	800	2000
	%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

a. Source: Field Survey, 2006.

Table-6.27 Hazara Region, Paired Samples Correlations[a].

		N	Correlation	Sig.
Pair 1	Literacy & Wish to send Girls to Next Neighbouring Higher School	2000	-.380	.000

a. Field Survey, 2006.

6.4.4 Reasons for parents unwillingness

Poverty, absence of tradition for female education; and the gender discrimination in education system are the most widely mentioned reasons for parents' unwillingness to send their girls to next neighbouring higher school for education. Between them these factors account for 63% of the cases of unwillingness in the surveyed region taken as a whole. The other important causes are: the long distance of the schools (20%) and the purdah system (13%).

In the Central, Intermediate, and Peripheral zones considered separately, the same pattern of response to the factors under study is found as seen in the case of the surveyed zone as a whole. That is; poverty, traditional taboos, and the distance factors are the main causes of the phenomenon under study in the Peripheral zone and to a lesser extent also in the Intermediate zone. An important departure from the general response pattern is seen in the form of mention of Gender Discrimination as a factor for parents' unwillingness to send their girls to far lying high schools. This factor can, however, be considered together with the factor of 'No Tradition' as mentioned in Table 6.28.

Table:-6.28 Hazara, Reasons for Parents Unwillingness to send Girls to Next Neighbouring Higher School.

Reasons for No		Zonal Distribution			Total
		Central	Intermediat	Peripheral	
Distance	Count	4	60	130	194
	%	7.7%	17.2%	22.1%	19.6%
Poverty	Count	14	117	110	241
	%	26.9%	33.5%	18.7%	24.3%
No Tradition	Count	20	78	174	272
	%	38.5%	22.3%	29.6%	27.7%
Pardah	Count	6	54	74	134
	%	11.5%	15.5%	12.6%	13.5%
Gender Discrmination	Count	6	38	68	112
	%	11.5%	10.9%	11.6%	11.3%
Other	Count	2	2	32	36
	%	3.8%	.6%	5.4%	3.6%
Total	Count	52	349	588	989
	%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

a. Source: Field Survey,2006.

6.4.5 Distance of next neighbouring college

Of the 2000 respondents interviewed for this study, 36% reported that the next neighbouring colleges for girls were located at a distance of less than ten kilometres from their homes, while at the other extreme the corresponding figure for the distance of > 100 km was 42%. These figures suggest that the girls would need hostel accommodation or need to make some other arrangements for living away from homes for pursuit of college education. Consequently, their parents' unwillingness to send them for it would be expected to be high. It was so or not in fact, is inquired into later in this section, but first the zone-wise situation of colleges' location is studied as the overall aggregative figures may not appropriately reflect the true situation.

In the Central zone as many as 77.5 % respondents reported that the next neighbouring colleges were located within < 10 km of their homes. On the other extreme, the same proportion (77%) was found in the > 100 km bracket in the case of Peripheral zone. The distribution of colleges by this criterion was less skewed in the Intermediate zone where the < 10 km category had 39% followed by < 100 km with 22%.

In the districts, the highest percentage of the longest distance of more than 100 kms was found in Kohistan (100%) followed by Batagram (80%). The highest percentage of the shortest distance of less than 10 kms was found in district Abbottabad (60%) So the percentage of the longest distance increases from central to the peripheral regions and the literacy rate decreases with a negative correlation of -.442 as shown in table 6.30.

Table-6.29 Hazara Region, Zone wise Distance of Next Neighbouring College.

Distance of Next Neighbouring College		Zonal Distribution			Total
		Central	Intermediate	Peripheral	
<10 Kms	Count	310	314	104	728
	%	77.5%	39.3%	13.0%	36.4%
10-20 Kms	Count	2	178	76	256
	%	.5%	22.3%	9.5%	12.8%
21-50 Kms	Count	0	132	0	132
	%	.0%	16.5%	.0%	6.6%
51-100Kms	Count	36	0	0	36
	%	9.0%	.0%	.0%	1.8%
>100 Kms	Count	52	176	620	848
	%	13.0%	22.0%	77.5%	42.4%
Total	Count	400	800	800	2000
	%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

a. Souece: Field Survey, 2006.

Table-6.30 Hazara Region, Paired Samples Correlations.

		N	Correlation	Sig.
Pair 1	Literacy & Distance of Next Neighbouring College	2000	-.442	.000

a. Field Survey, 2006.

6.4.6 Parents' views on sending girls to neighbouring college

In the surveyed zones taken as whole, 56% parents indicated their unwillingness to send their girls to the next neighbouring colleges. The corresponding figures in the three zones, taken individually, are; Central 19%, Intermediate 48% and Peripheral 81%. The pattern is as would be expected in the light of data given in Table 6.31. The incidence of parents' willingness has an obvious negative association with the distance of the next neighbouring colleges from their homes.

Amongst the districts, the highest percentage of the parents unwilling to send their girls to next neighbouring college was found in the district of Kohistan (89.2%). The lowest corresponding figure was reported in District Abbottabad (32%), as shown in Anx-table-6.9.

As will be seen in table 6.32, parents' negative attitude towards sending the girls to next neighbouring colleges has negative impact on female literacy rate. The negative correlation, -.408, is, however, weak, but still it needs be taken into reckoning in the analysis factors accounting for lower literacy rates among females in the surveyed region (Hazara).

Table-6.31 Hazara, Zone wise Parents' wish to send Girls to Next Neighbouring College.[a]

Parents' wish to send Girls to Next Neighbouring College		Zonal Distribution			Total
		Central	*Intermediate*	*Peripheral*	
Yes	Count	324	411	150	885
	%	81.0%	51.9%	18.8%	44.5%
No	Count	76	389	650	1115
	%	19.0%	48.1%	81.3%	55.6%
Total	Count	400	800	800	2000
	%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

a. Souece: Field Survey, 2006.

Table-6.32 Hazara Region, Paired Samples Correlations[a].

		N	Correlation	Sig.
Pair 1	Literacy & Parents' wish to send Girls to Next Neighbouring College	2000	-.408	.000

a. Field Survey, 2006.

6.4.7 Reasons for parent's unwillingness to send girls to neighbouring college

More or less the same set of reasons are given by parents for their unwillingness to send the girls to next neighbouring colleges as noted above by reference to this question in the context of next neighbouring high schools for girls. The main ones are: the long distance factor mentioned by 34% respondents concerned, the fact of poverty of parents' 25.5%, and the social taboos or absence of tradition for sending the girls to outside for education,

especially where it involves living in hostels, accounting for 40% respondents concerned.

Table:-6.33 Hazara Region, Zone wise Reasons for not sending Girls to College.

Reasons		Zonal Distribution			Total
		Central	Intermediate	Peripheral	
Distance	Count	16	147	218	381
	%	4.1%	38.6%	57.2%	34.1%
Poverty	Count	18	100	166	284
	%	6.3 %	35.2%	58.5%	25.5%
No Tradition	Count	18	64	158	240
	%	7.5%	26.7%	65.8%	21.5%
Pardah	Count	24	78	108	210
	%	11.4%	37.1%	51.4%	18.8%
Total	Count	76	389	650	1115
	%	6.8%	34.9%	58.3%3	100.0%

a. Souece: Field Survey, 2006.

6.4.8 Distance of next neighbouring university

Distances of the next neighbouring university from respondents' homes were much longer than of high schools and colleges for girls. In the surveyed zones, taken as a whole, only 6.5% respondents reported that the next neighbouring university was located within 10 km of their homes; and all these respondents belonged to central zones. The corresponding figure for the 21-50 km distance bracket is 29%, while the next higher bracket of 51-100km accounts for 20% respondents. The single largest group of respondents, 44%, reported > 100km distances (Table 6.34). This much about the surveyed zone taken as a whole.

The situation in the three zones considered individually differs quite visibly from the overall averages mentioned above and detailed in table 6.34. In the central zone, the distribution of respondents in terms of the distances of the next neighbouring university is less skewed than that in the Intermediate zone, and the same holds valid for the Intermediate zone vis-à-vis the Peripheral zone. The single largest concentration of cases in the three zones is; 10-20km in Central; 21-50km in Intermediate; and >100km in Peripheral zones as shown in table-6.34.

All of the respondents in Kohistan and Batagram districts reported the >100 km distances in the under analysis context, while the largest frequency of cases in the category of below 50 km was reported in Abbottabad districts, as shown in Anx-table-6.11.

There is found a negative, but not a strong correlation (-.419) between the distance of the next neighbouring university from respondents' homes, and the literacy in the sample population (Table 6.35).

Table:-6.34 Hazara Region, Zonal Distribution of Distance of Next Neighbouring University.[a]

Distance		Zonal Distribution			Total
		Central	Intermediat	Peripheral	
<10 kms	Count	2	0	0	2
	%	.5%	.0%	.0%	.1%
10-20 kms	Count	130	0	0	130
	%	32.5%	.0%	.0%	6.5%
21-50 kms	Count	114	466	0	580
	%	28.5%	58.3%	.0%	29.0%
51-100 kms	Count	66	158	178	402
	%	16.5%	19.8%	22.3%	20.1%
>100 kms	Count	88	176	622	886
	%	22.0%	22.0%	77.8%	44.3%
Total	Count	400	800	800	2000
	%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

a. Source: Field Survey, 2006.

Table-6.35 Hazara Region, Paired Samples Correlations[a].

		N	Correlation	Sig.
Pair 1	Literacy & Distance of Next Neighbouring University	2000	-.419	.000

a. Field Survey, 2006.

6.4.9 Parents' views on sending girls to next neighbouring university

Taking the surveyed zones as a whole, majority (61%) of the parents were reported to be unwilling to send the girls to the next neighbouring university. In the Central zones considered individually, 25% parents fell in this group, while the corresponding figures for Intermediate and Peripheral zones are 60% and .83% respectively.

A negative correlation is found between the length of distance of the next neighbouring university and the literacy rate (Table 6.37). It is -.367, which is not strongly negative, but it does need to be considered in the search for the causes of gender disparity in the context of literacy and access to higher education.

Table-6.36 Hazara, Zone wise Parents' wish to send Girls to Next Neighbouring University.

Parents' wish to send Girls to Next Neighbouring University		Zonal Distribution			Total
		Central	Intermediate	Peripheral	
Yes	Count	300	329	138	767
	%	75.0%	41.1%	17.3%	38.4%
No	Count	100	471	662	1233
	%	25.0%	58.9%	82.8%	61.7%
Total	Count	400	800	800	2000
	%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

a. Souece: Field Survey, 2006.

Table-6.37 Hazara Region, Paired Samples Correlations[a].

		N	Correlation	Sig.
Pair 1	Literacy & Parents' wish to send Girls to Next Neighbouring University	2000	-.367	.000

a. Souece: Field Survey, 2006.

6.4.10 Reasons for parents' unwillingness

More or less the same response pattern is found in the present context as in that of high schools and colleges. The distance factor, the economic factor, social taboos etc are mentioned as the dominant causes of parents' unwillingness to send their daughters for university education. Co-education at University level education is also mentioned as a cause for their unwillingness to send girls there (Table 6.38).

Amongst the zones taken separately, 'distance' was the single most mentioned reason of parents reluctance in the peripheral and the intermediate zones with the percentage points of 37.3% and 36.8% respectively; while' no tradition' was the most reported reason in the central zone, accounting for 34.7%, of parents' as reflected in table 6.38.

Amongst the districts, the distance factor was the top reason for unwillingness to send girls to the next neighbouring university in the districts of Batagram; Haripur and Abbottabad with the corresponding percentage points of 46.6%; 57.4% and 41.7% respectively, while 'no tradition' was the major factor in the districts of Kohistan (40.5%) and Mansehra (29.7%), respectively as shown in Anx-table-6.12.

Analysis shows that as the reasons like ' purdah'; 'no tradition'; 'poverty' and' distance'; increase from central to the peripheral zones, the female literacy rate decreases in the same sequence in Hazara with a negative correlation of -.256 as shown in table-6.39.

Table:-6.38 Hazara Region, Zone wise Reasons for not sending Girls to University.[a]

Reasons		Zonal Distribution			Total
		Central	Intermediat	Peripheral	
Distance	Count	14	169	246	429
	%	14.3%	36.8%	37.3%	35.3%
Poverty	Count	18	124	118	260
	%	18.4%	27.0%	17.9%	21.4%
No Tradition	Count	34	72	184	290
	%	34.7%	15.7%	27.9%	23.8%
Pardah	Count	12	52	74	138
	%	12.2%	11.3%	11.2%	11.3%
Co Education	Count	18	42	38	98
	%	18.4%	9.2%	5.8%	8.1%
Other	Count	2	0	0	2
	%	2.0%	.0%	.0%	.2%
Total	Count	98	459	660	1217
	%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

a. Source: Field Survey, 2006.

Table-6.39 Hazara Region, Paired Samples Correlations[a].

		N	Correlation	Sig.
Pair 1	Literacy & Reasons for not sending Girls to Next Neighbouring University	2000	-.256	.000

a. Souece: Field Survey, 2006.

6.5 Transhumance activities (seasonal migrations)

The people of Northern Hazara i.e. district Kohistan live in the down areas in winters and return to the hilltops in extreme summers. This type of local

seasonal movement is known as transhumance, which is different from nomadic migration. In nomadic migration, people usually move from place to place in search of grass and water for their cattle and do not come back to their permanent settlements, but here in Kohistan district of Hazara, people seasonally move from up hills to down hills and vice versa with change of seasons. The surveyed people of Kohistan, who performed transhumance; could hardly arrange basic necessities at both the temporary settlements due to poverty. During the field survey, for the present study, they were asked whether or not they changed their habitation during summer and winter? A small percentage of respondents in Hazara region taken as whole (8.8 %,) replied in the affirmative. All of them were from district Kohistan, and they constituted 67.7 % of the total respondents in that district. This seasonal change of habitation was the highest in the peripheral zone (80.8%); followed by the intermediate and the central zones with percentage points of 75% and 26.9% respectively in district Kohistan as shown in table-6.40.

Table- 6.40 Kohistan District, People, who Perform transhumancē.

People, who Perform trancehumance		*Zonal Distribution*			Total
		Central	*Intermediate*	*Peripheral*	
Yes	Count	14	78	84	176
	%	26.9%	75.0%	80.8%	67.7%
No	Count	38	26	20	84
	%	73.1%	25.0%	19.2%	32.3%
Total	Count	52	104	104	260
	%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

a. Source: Field Survey, 2006.

Out of the 176 respondent households who performed transhumance, as many as 164 stated that their girls discontinued education during transhumance. It needs, however, be noted that, as reported by the respondents, the households migrated to uphill only during the summers' vacation of schools, and some of them also stated that they had teachers and schools also on the up hills where they migrate during summer. The adverse effect of transhumance on girls students education would, therefore, be minimal or none, if these reports are to be relied on. The low literacy rate amongst the females in Kohistan, however, suggests that this phenomenon

(transhumance) must be adversely affecting girls' entry to schools, and hence keeping their literacy level low.

The incidence of discontinuity of girls' schooling during transhumance was found highest in the central zone (100%) of Kohistan district, followed by the peripheral (93%) and intermediate (89.7%) zones (table 6.41. This was found to negatively impact, but only slightly, the female literacy in the area, as indicated by negative correlation of -.031 as shown in table-6.42.

Table- 6.41 Kohistan District, Girl's Schooling During Transhumance[a].

Girl's Schooling During Trancehumance		Zonal Distribution			Total
		Central	Intermediate	Peripheral	
Continue	Count	0	8	6	14
	%	.0%	10.3%	7.0%	7.9%
Discontinue	Count	14	70	80	164
	%	100.0%	89.7%	93.0%	92.1%
Total	Count	14	78	86	14
	%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

a. Source: Field Survey, 2006.

Table- 6.42 Hazara Region, Paired Samples Correlations[a].

		N	Correlation	Sig.
Pair 1	Education & Girl's Schooling During Transhumance	260	-.031	.617

a. Source: Field Survey, 2006.

6.6 Impact of household size on literacy

The sample households' Size (HHS) ranged from 11 to 2 persons; averaging at 5. The 5-member sample households constituted the single largest category with 20.8%. On the whole, the households with five members or more constituted the majority with 60% in the study area, followed by 4, 3 and 6 member households with percentage points of 16.7%, 12.7% and 11.2% respectively. Household size of 9 persons had the lowest frequency as shown in table-6.43.

Amongst the zones, the highest average HHS of 5 persons was in the central and the intermediate zones with the percentage points of 27% and 25.7%, while the biggest HHS of 11 persons; was the highest in the peripheral zone; 18.6%. Generally; the smaller household size of 2 to 8 persons showed

declining trend from central to the peripheral zones, while the larger size of 9 to11 persons showed the opposite trend from central to the peripheral zones respectively as shown in table-6.43.

Amongst the districts, the highest average household size of 5 persons was in Haripur 28.8% and Kohistan 18.1%. The highest average HHS of 3 persons was in Abbottabad 20.4%; of 4 persons was in Mansehra 24.8% and of 6 persons was in Batagram 21.1% respectively as shown in Anx table-6.14.

Table- 6.43 Hazara Region, Zone wise Household Size.

Household Size		Zonal Distribution			Total
		Central	Intermediate	Peripheral	
2	Count	54	77	76	207
	%	13.5%	9.6%	9.5%	10.4%
3	Count	63	126	65	254
	%	15.8%	15.8%	8.1%	12.7%
4	Count	92	155	86	333
	%	23.0%	19.4%	10.8%	16.7%
5	Count	108	206	101	415
	%	27.0%	25.8%	12.6%	20.8%
6	Count	35	92	97	224
	%	8.8%	11.5%	12.1%	11.2%
7	Count	22	64	58	144
	%	5.5%	8.0%	7.3%	7.2%
8	Count	14	30	52	96
	%	3.5%	3.8%	6.5%	4.8%
9	Count	4	14	35	53
	%	1.0%	1.8%	4.4%	2.7%
10	Count	4	26	81	111
	%	1.0%	3.3%	10.1%	5.6%
11	Count	4	10	149	163
	%	1.0%	1.3%	18.6%	8.2%
Total	Count	400	800	800	2000
	%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

a. Source: Field Survey, 2006.

It is evident from table-6.44, that the literacy level of the sample population and the household size are inversely correlated. This holds true for females as well as the males. Thus, in the 2-member households 58.5% female members were literate while the corresponding figure is a mere 1.4% for the 11-memebr households. The corresponding figures for males are 84% and 6%

respectively. The inverse correlation under reference was stronger in the case of females than the males.

An aggregative picture of literacy status of the household members (males and females) in different household sizes is given in table 6.46.The overall pattern is the same as seen in table 6.44.The level of illiteracy is seen rising with rise in the household size. The obverse holds true for the proportion of the educated sample population as well as for their level of education. In the higher size households, not only the proportion of literates was relatively low but also their level of education was lower as compared with the small-sized households.

Table-6.44 Hazara, Gender and Household Size wise Literacy of the surveyed population.[a]

Gender	Household Size		Literacy		Total
			Illiterate	*Literate*	
Female	2	Count	132	186	318
		%	41.5%	58.5%	100.0%
	3	Count	186	155	341
		%	54.5%	45.5%	100.0%
	4	Count	270	199	469
		%	57.6%	42.4%	100.0%
	5	Count	310	296	606
		%	51.2%	48.8%	100.0%
	6	Count	265	164	429
		%	61.8%	38.2%	100.0%
	7	Count	293	143	436
		%	67.2%	32.8%	100.0%
	8	Count	299	42	341
		%	87.7%	12.3%	100.0%
	9	Count	278	35	313
		%	88.8%	11.2%	100.0%
	10	Count	284	24	308
		%	92.2%	7.8%	100.0%
	11	Count	344	5	349
		%	98.6%	1.4%	100.0%
	Total	Count	2661	1249	3910
		%	68.1%	31.9%	100.0%
Male	2	Count	45	240	285
		%	15.8%	84.2%	100.0%
	3	Count	66	66	289
		%	22.8%	77.2%	100.0%
	4	Count	123	322	445
		%	27.6%	72.4%	100.0%
	5	Count	137	404	541
		%	25.3%	74.7%	100.0%
	6	Count	108	339	447
		%	24.2%	75.8%	100.0%
	7	Count	128	255	383
		%	33.4%	66.6%	100.0%
	8	Count	155	120	275
		%	56.4%	43.6%	100.0%
	9	Count	154	141	295
		%	52.2%	47.8%	100.0%
	10	Count	287	126	413
		%	69.5%	30.5%	100.0%
	11	Count	288	17	305
		%	94.4%	5.6%	100.0%
	Total	Count	1491	2187	3678
		%	40.5%	59.5%	100.0%

a. Source: Field Survey, 2006.

respectively. The inverse correlation under reference was stronger in the case of females than the males.

An aggregative picture of literacy status of the household members (males and females) in different household sizes is given in table 6.46.The overall pattern is the same as seen in table 6.44.The level of illiteracy is seen rising with rise in the household size. The obverse holds true for the proportion of the educated sample population as well as for their level of education. In the higher size households, not only the proportion of literates was relatively low but also their level of education was lower as compared with the small-sized households.

Table 6.45 Hazara Region, Paired Samples Correlations[a].

		N	Correlation	Sig.
Pair 1	Household Size & Literacy	2000	-.221	.000

a. Source: Field Survey, 2006.

Table- 6.46 Hazara Region, Household Size and Education[a].

Household Size		Education								Total
		Illiterate	Below Primary	Primary	Middle	Matric	Intermediate	Graduate	Post Graduate	
10	No.	436	7	39	32	53	16	17	5	610
	%	71.5%	1.1%	6.4%	5.2%	8.7%	2.6%	2.8%	.8%	100.0%
11	No.	611	0	13	4	21	5	0	0	654
	%	93.4%	.0%	2.0%	.6%	3.2%	.8%	.0%	.0%	100%
2	No.	177	9	81	60	88	56	94	28	603
	%	29.4%	1.5%	13.4%	10.0%	14.6%	9.3%	15.6%	4.6%	100.0%
3	No.	269	9	80	71	98	58	53	22	663
	%	40.6%	1.4%	12.1%	10.7%	14.8%	8.7%	8.0%	3.3%	100.0%
4	No.	671	19	129	111	151	65	40	16	1219
	%	55.0%	1.6%	10.6%	9.1%	12.4%	5.3%	3.3%	1.3%	100.0%
5	No.	542	19	126	121	155	68	60	30	1137
	%	47.7%	1.7%	11.1%	10.6%	13.6%	6.0%	5.3%	2.6%	100.0%
6	No.	371	6	121	112	131	69	62	18	893
	%	41.5%	.7%	13.5%	12.5%	14.7%	7.7%	6.9%	2.0%	100.0%
7	No.	413	12	94	102	100	43	45	16	833
	%	49.6%	1.4%	11.3%	12.2%	12.0%	5.2%	5.4%	1.9%	100.0%
8	No.	436	4	53	42	37	17	18	4	616
	%	70.8%	.6%	8.6%	6.8%	6.0%	2.8%	2.9%	.6%	100.0%
9	No.	238	6	18	22	37	30	8	0	360
	%	66.1%	1.7%	5.0%	6.1%	10.3%	8.3%	2.2%	.0%	100.0%
Total	No.	4164	91	754	677	871	427	397	139	7588
	%	54.9%	1.2%	9.9%	8.9%	11.5%	5.6%	5.2%	1.8%	100.0%

a. Source: Field Survey, 2006.

Analysis shows that with the increase in HHS; the literacy and education rate decreases in Hazara with a negative correlation of -.278 as shown in table 6.47.

Table- 6.47 Hazara Region, Paired Samples Correlations.

		N	Correlation	Sig.
Pair 1	Household Size & Education	7588[a]	-.278	.000

a. Source: Field Survey, 2006.

6.7 Summary and Conclusion

This chapter describes selected characteristics of the survey's respondents and the members of the sample households, followed by the study of the surveyed area's physiographic characteristics in the particular context of their impact on literacy focusing the females.

In the surveyed zones taken as a whole, 58% of girls and almost 85% of the boys of school going ages, 5-15 years, were attending schools at the time of the survey. The highest level of schooling was found in the Central zone followed by the Intermediate and the Peripheral zones in case of boys as well as the girls. In all 1426 children 1039 girls and 387 boys, aged 5-15 years were not attending schools at the time of the survey and as many as eleven factors were identified by the respondents for this situation. Customary barriers, males' opposition, and lack of female staff are prominent factors in this respect. Amongst the females aged 16 years or more, about 68% were illiterate .The corresponding figure for the male population was 41%. Of the literate sample population, the majority did not go for college education. The literacy profile of the adult sample population in the Central Zone was distinctly better than of those in the Intermediate and the Peripheral zones in that order. This holds true for both females as well as the males. Thus, of the females belonging to the Central Zones, 59% were literate compared with the corresponding figures of 34% and 12 % in the Intermediate and the peripheral zones. In terms of level of education attained by the females, the Central Zone had comparatively higher levels to report followed by Intermediate and the Peripheral zones in that order.

The effect of the physiographic characteristics, location of schools, colleges, physical barriers between homes and schools, and other relevant factors were also noted in the study area. On the whole, physical barriers between homes and girls' primary schools were reported by 35% respondents. The corresponding figures zone-wise were: Central 5.5%, Intermediate 39.3%, and Peripheral 35.2%. The highest incidence of physical barriers between home-

school was recorded in a mountainous Batagram district (68.5%) and the lowest in a comparatively plain Haripur district (19.5%). In the surveyed zones taken as a whole, almost 49% of the girls' primary schools were reported to be in the mountainous areas. The next closet category, accounting for about 41 % schools, is that of schools located in the Piedmonts, followed by the schools located in the Plains with 11%.

In the surveyed region (Hazara) taken as a whole 59% of the girls primary schools were reported to be located within less than one kilometre of the respondents homes, while the corresponding figure for the schools in 1-2km distance was37%.The intra zone pattern is similar in character, differing only in degree. The overall distribution of schools was consistent with the region's physiography, largely mountainous and sub-mountainous. When it came to the corresponding sub-regional profiles viz. Central, Intermediate, and Peripheral zones, some sharp departures from the overall profile of the study area were found. In the Peripheral zones the mountainous schools were dominant with 68 % share. In the Intermediate zones, mountainous schools and those in piedmonts were almost evenly represented (accounting between them for 88% of the total) while in the Central zone the schools in Piedmonts (51%) and in the Plains (31%) account for the majority.

In the Hazara region as a whole, only a little over one percent of the high school were located within less than one km of respondents homes, while a good 34.7% were located at distances of over 10 km followed by 23.7% in 6-10km bracket. The zone-wise data on location pattern of girls' high schools is, however, characterised by some noticeable departure from the macro level picture. In the Central and the Intermediate zones bulk of the high schools (around 63%) were located within less than 6 km of respondents homes, while in the Peripheral zones, bulk of them (87%) were located beyond 6km.

About half of the parents (49.5%) were found reluctant to send their girls to the outlying girls' higher school. The percentage of parents willing to send their

girls to next neighbouring higher school was the highest in the intermediate zone (22.4%); followed by the central and the peripheral zones with the corresponding percentage points of 17.4% and 10.7% respectively. Poverty, absence of tradition or presence of social taboos, were the most widely mentioned reasons for parents unwillingness to send their girls to next neighbouring higher school for education. The other important causes were the long distance of the schools and the *purdah* (veil) system.

Of the 2000 respondents interviewed for this study, 36% reported that the next neighbouring colleges for girls were located at a distance of less than ten kilometres from their homes, while at the other extreme the corresponding figure for the distance of > 100km was 42%. In the Central zone as many as 77.5 % respondents reported that the next neighbouring colleges were located within < 10 km of their homes. On the other extreme, the same proportion (77%) was found in the > 100 km bracket in the case of Peripheral zone. The distribution of colleges by this criterion was less skewed in the Intermediate zone where the < 10 km category had 39% followed by < 100 km with 22%.

Distances of the next neighbouring university from respondents' homes were much longer than of high schools and colleges for girls. In the surveyed zones taken as a whole, only 6.6% respondents reported that the next neighbouring university was located within 20 km of their homes; and all of these respondents belonged to central zones. The vast majority of the parents were unwilling to send their girls to the next neighbouring colleges or the University. The reasons were largely the same as found in the case of next neighbouring higher schools.

The sample households' size ranged from 11-member to 2-member households, averaging at around five members. There was found an inverse correlation between household size and the literacy level of females as well as males. The inverse relationship was higher amongst the females as compared with the males.

Chapter # 7

Impact of Socio-Cultural and Gender Bias on Education of Women

7.0 Introduction

This chapter deals with socio-cultural barriers against women education in Hazara. The chapter is divided into four sections; section one deals with the development of Global, national and Hazara culture; section two introduces Impact of religious culture on education in Hazara; section three deals with respondents' perceptions on women education in Hazara; and finally gender equality in education is discussed in section four.

7.1 The development of global national and Hazara culture

Rapid changes in technology in the last several decades have changed the nature of culture and cultural exchange. People around the world can make economic transactions and transmit information to each other almost instantaneously through the use of computers and satellite communications. Governments and corporations have gained vast amounts of political power through military might and economic influence. Corporations have also created a form of global culture based on worldwide commercial markets. Today, many nations are multicultural societies, composed of numerous smaller subcultures (**Memon, 1997**).

Local culture and social structure are now shaped by large and powerful commercial interests in ways that earlier anthropologists could not have imagined. In research done between the 1930s and the 1960s, American anthropologist Julian Steward noticed that similar types of cultures developed under similar environmental conditions, but in geographically separate places. Steward attributed these cultural similarities to correspondences in their culture core—those aspects of culture that might be influenced by the similar ways in which different people adapt to similar natural environments. For example, the similarities in culture and social organization among foraging

band societies around the world had much to do with the similar ecologies of the places in which they lived (**Akhtar, 2002**).

7.1.1 Culture and the status of female in Pakistan

The believers, men and women, are protectors, one of another: they enjoy what is just and forbid what is evil (**Quran 9:71**).

Human race is a gender congenital and is fabricated of both sexes i.e. male and female. Both have to perform their roles in daily life and only they can do it satisfactorily, when they are well prepared for these roles. No body is superior or inferior just because of one's apparent physical features or body physiology and the nature of one's job. There is no gender or class discrimination mentioned in the Holy book and to read and write is inalienable right of each member of society. Islam has never blocked the way of women education and her participation in the family, community, society or nation. However, Islam has also emphasized on the principles of golden means and it is incumbent on men to create a balanced and harmonious society to follow these golden means.

In spite of Islamic injunctions to treat women as equal partners, discussion about the restricted role of women under Islam continues in Pakistan and else where in the Islamic World (**Memon, 1997**). They have little control over the matters concerning their well being and their status is based on local customs and traditions. There have been various attempts at social and legal reforms aimed at improving women's lives in Pakistan. The Muslim Personal Law of Sharia in 1948 recognized a women's right to inherit all forms of property. The1961 Muslim Family Law Ordinance covers marriage and divorce and is widely regarded as empowering women. Though the constitution guarantees those safeguards such as equality of opportunity, indiscriminative treatment to them and full participation in all spheres of life but unfortunately, they have not been given right place and status in the society. A number of diverse groups such as the All Pakistan Women's Association (APWA), Women's Action

Forum, the Pakistan Women Lawyer's Association and the Business and Professional Women's Association are working hard to address special issues faced by women (**Blood, 1997**). However, no tangible steps have been taken to universalize primary education and to establish separate higher institutions for women in Pakistan as promised in government policies.

In Pakistan, women constitute nearly half of the population, so no development could be possible if women are not educated because they are unable to participate in any kind of process of development. "No nation can survive with half of its population inactive because education is the root of all developments (**Humala Khalid 1990**)." The development would remain handicapped and slow as long as woman remains uneducated, with less economic status, married young and producing children only in this modern age. A woman cannot impart all the good values to her children unless she has acquired some knowledge, education and gained some experience by herself before she can start raising a family and produce healthy citizens for a strong nation (**Akhtar, 2002**).

7.1.2 NWFP and Hazara culture

The process of transformation and interaction of societies, cultures and people with others is a continuous phenomenon, and this affects a society's behaviour and human culture to a considerable extent. These processes cannot be stopped, as human nature and culture are not stagnant. It is rather a reflection of collective behaviour, as people and individuals change, cultures also undergo changes. Moreover the administrative set-up, the fast pace of development, modernization and urbanization have induced change in human culture and to some extent have affected the values, traditions customs and the life style of people in different areas of the NWFP. The NWFP served as gateway for many civilizations and invaders who came to the Asian subcontinent and had many effects on the local society and culture. Due to these cultural invasions, different regions now possess different cultures,

values, traditions, and norms, vary from tribe to tribe, depending upon the local ecology and geography of the area (**Akhtar, 2002**).

Hazara has its own culture, customs and traditions as earlier discussed in chapter three. Elderly people are considered as the decision makers and have the right of veto in family affairs. Usually such role is played by grandfather or grandmother for whom it is considered as a responsibility to represent the family in the event of social gatherings as betrothals, marriages, deaths etc. parents are greatly concerned about the formal and religious education of their children as well as their manners and respect the children show towards their elders and relatives. In case of rude behaviour or ill manners shown by the children, they are harshly treated and punished. This helps to promote mutual harmony and respect among them.

7.2 Impact of religious culture on education

This section is further divided into; standards of Quran education; female Quran literacy and general literacy; and females' study of informal religious books.

7.2.1 Quran literacy

The people of Hazara are staunch Muslims and highly religious minded historically. They can read *Quran* (The Holy Book) with great fluency. The *Maulvis* (religious teachers) play central role in imparting religious education. Their advice is solicited by the people customarily in all walks of daily life; especially in northern mountainous Hazara. An excellent picture of *Quran* literacy amongst both genders is shown in Table 7.1 in which it will be seen that the two genders were almost evenly placed in this respect in all zones. Like their general literacy and education, the males' Quran literacy rate (96.6%) was also slightly higher than that of females (95.8%) and it decreased from central to the peripheral zones amongst both genders as shown in table-7.1.

Table-7.1 Hazara Region, Gender & Zone wise Quran Education.[a]

Gender	Quran Education		Zonal Distribution			Total
			Central	*Intermediate*	*Peripheral*	
Female	*Yes*	Count	214	412	326	952
		%	96.8%	97.9%	92.6%	95.8%
	No	Count	7	9	26	42
		%	3.2%	2.1%	7.4%	4.2%
	Total	Count	221	421	352	994
		%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Male	*Yes*	Count	179	372	421	972
		%	100.0%	98.2%	94.0%	96.6%
	No	Count	0	7	27	34
		%	.0%	1.8%	6.0%	3.4%
	Total	Count	179	379	448	1006
		%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

[a]. Source: Field Survey, 2006.

There is a negative, correlation (-.132) between 'no Quran or religious' literacy and the general literacy amongst the females, as shown in table 7.2.

Table-7.2 Hazara Region, Paired Samples Correlations[a].

Pairs	N	Correlation	Sig.
Literacy & 'No' to Female's Quran/Religious Education	2000	-.132	.000

[a]. Source: Field Survey, 2006.

The district and community wise Quran literacy by gender is shown in annexure tables- 7.1 and 7.2 respectively. The lowest Quran literacy amongst both genders; females 77.5% and males 89.4%, was recorded in district Kohistan. The highest corresponding figures- females 98.8% and males 100%, were recorded in district Abbottabad. In both the peripheral communities of Kohistan district the Quran literacy was found to be relatively low among both the genders. In Marin, the figures were 60% for females and 83.3% for males, while the corresponding figures in Ghundo were 64.3% and 84.2% respectively. This is ascribed mainly to the fact that Madrassas were a long distance from these communities.

Males were found having higher Quran literacy than females in all districts of Hazara. Their lead in this respect was, however, negligible, at individual district level as also at Hazara level as a whole.

7.2.2 Quran literacy standards of females

There are three levels of Quran literacy: Nazra i.e.; read only, without understanding Hifz i.e.; memorising by heart, not necessarily with understanding; read with understanding i.e.; with ability to translate or interpret the Quran (which is in Arabic) in some language, which is mostly Urdu in Hazara's context. As will be seen in Table7.3, as many as 87.4% female respondents had Nazra Quran literacy, and 0nly 7% had done Hifz (of Quran), followed by about 6%, who could read Quran with understanding. The males show more or less the same pattern. It is important to state that those who can read Quran without understanding the meaning of Arabic (the language of Quran) are normally able to read with understanding the Urdu language, though they may not necessarily be able to write it.

The district wise Quran literacy status is shown in annexure table-7.3, which indicates that, the level of *nazra* literacy was the highest in Haripur district amongst both genders- males 98% and females 94.6%, while it was the lowest amongst the females in Kohistan district (97%) and amongst the males in Abbottabad district (72%) respectively. The lowest percentage of Nazra amongst the males in Abbottabad district was due to the high rate of '*Hifz*' *(*15%) and '*with meaning*' *(*13.2%); amongst the same gender in the same district because the 'Hifz' and 'with meaning' were attained after nazra.

Table-7.3 Hazara Region, Gender & Zone wise Female's Quran Education.

Gender	Standard of Quran Education.		Zonal Distribution			Total
			Central	Intermediate	Peripheral	
Female	Nazra	Count	198	344	290	832
		%	92.5%	83.5%	89.0%	87.4%
	Hifz	Count	4	36	26	66
		%	1.9%	8.7%	8.0%	7.0%
	With understanding	Count	12	32	10	54
		%	5.60	7.8%	3.0%	5.7%
	Total	Count	214	412	326	952
		%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Male	Nazra	Count	167	323	363	853
		%	93.3%	86.8%	86.2%	87.7%
	Hifz	Count	4	27	34	65
		%	2.2%	7.2%	8.0%	6.7%
	With understanding	Count	8	22	24	54
		%	4.5%	5.9%	5.7%	5.6%
	Total	Count	179	372	421	972
		%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

a. Source: Field Survey, 2006.

Overall analysis shows that as all the standards of females' Quran education decrease from central to the peripheral zones, the literacy rate also decreases in the same sequence, which indicates a positive but weak correlation of .112 as shown in table 7.4.

Table-7.4 Hazara Region, Paired Samples Correlations[a].

Pairs		N	Correlation	Sig.
Pair 1	Zonal Distribution & Literacy	2000	-.389	.000
Pair 2	Zonal Distribution & Female's Standard of Quran Education.	2000	-.025	.272
Pair 3	Literacy & Female's Standard of Quran Education.	2000	.112	.000

a. Source: Field Survey, 2006.

7.2.3 Females' study of informal religious books

Out of the total 2000 respondents, 835 reported that their women read informal religious books of different kinds. The single largest number (25.5%) of these 835 respondents stated that the women read Bahishti zewar- a very popular book among women throughout the country, followed by Hadis-e-Sunnah, (21.3%) and Fazail-e-Aamal-(21%) a widely read book in the region

as also in the country in general. Tafhim-ul-Quran, which is a highly scholarly work, was also reported being read by (12%) women in the survey universe, and ranked fourth in the order of frequency among the informal books read by women (Table 7.6).

The incidence of informal religious books as shown in Table 7.6 appears to be erring on the lower side. It is a common knowledge that almost all women who are literate do read one book or the other book belonging to this category, and most of them read more than one of these. The books mentioned in table 7.6 are considered serious literature of high scholarly order, and that is reflective of the high level of maturity of the readers concerned.

Generally, the zone wise percentage of the various books, under reference, read by females decreased from central to the peripheral region in almost all cases as shown in table-7.6. In the central zone, the study of *Hadis/Sunna* was at the top with 31.2%, followed by *Bahishti zewar (*24.5%); *Fazail-e-Aamal (*15.2%) and *Mot ka Manzar* (13%). The *Bahishti zewar* was also the top read book in the intermediate zone (25.2%) and the peripheral (27.3%) followed by the *Fazail-e-Aamal* showing an impressive figures in the intermediate (23%) and the peripheral zones (25.4%) respectively.

Overall analysis shows, that as the frequency of the women not reading the informal religious books increases from central to the peripheral zones; the literacy rate decreases too, as indicated by a negative correlation of -.329 as shown in table 7.7.The negative correlation (-329) is , however, weak.

Table-7.5 Hazara Region, Gender & Zone wise Female's Reading of Informal Religious books.[a]

Gender	Read Informal Religious Books		Zonal Distribution			Total
			Central	Intermediate	Peripheral	
Female	Yes	Count	175	180	100	455
		%	79.2%	42.8%	28.4%	45.8%
	No	Count	46	241	252	539
		%	20.8%	57.2%	71.6%	54.2%
	Total	Count	221	421	352	994
		%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Male	Yes	Count	127	133	120	380
		%	70.9%	35.1%	26.8%	37.8%
	No	Count	52	246	328	626
		%	29.1%	64.9%	73.2%	62.2%
	Total	Count	179	379	448	1006
		%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

a. Source: Field Survey, 2006.

Table-7.6 Hazara Region, Zone wise' Name of Religious Books Read by Female Other than Quran'.[a]

Name of Books Other than Quran		Zonal Distribution			Total
		Central	Intermediate	Peripheral	
Tafhim-ul-Quran	Count	34	40	28	102
	%	11.3%	12.8%	12.7%	12.2%
Hadis/Sunnah	Count	94	54	30	178
	%	31.1%	17.3%	13.6%	21.3%
Bahishti Zawer (Heavens Ornaments)	Count	74	79	60	213
	%	24.5%	25.2%	27.3%	25.5%
Risail-o-Masail (Problems & Solutions)	Count	8	14	10	32
	%	2.6%	4.5%	4.5%	3.8%
Fazail-e-Aamal (Deeds &Reward)	Count	46	72	56	174
	%	15.2%	23.0%	25.4%	20.8%
Haquq-o-Faraiz (Rights & Duties)	Count	6	26	2	34
	%	2.0%	8.3%	.9%	4.1%
Mot ka Manzar (Death Scene)	Count	40	12	30	82
	%	13.2%	3.9%	13.6%	9.8%
Other	Count	0	16	4	20
	%	.0%	5.1%	1.8%	2.4%
Total	Count	302	313	220	835
	%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

a. Source: Field Survey, 2006.

7.3 Respondents' perceptions on women education

This section presents the study's findings on respondents perception on some selected issues pertaining education of women such as: the need for women education, incidence of opposition to women education; advantages of women

education, parents' preference of girls' education; parents preference of institutions; parent's preference of girl's professions after getting education.

7.3.1 Perceptions on need for women education

The overwhelming majority of the respondents-male (85.3%) as well as females, (79.3%) were found in favour of female education in the surveyed zones taken as whole. The corresponding zonal percentages show declining trend from central to peripheral zones in case of both males as shown in table-7.8.

Table-7.8 Hazara Region, Gender &Zone wise Necessity of Education[a]

Gender	Necessary?		Zonal Distribution			Total
			Central	Intermediate	Peripheral	
Female	Yes	Count	214	381	253	848
		%	96.8%	90.5%	71.9%	85.3%
	No	Count	7	40	99	146
		%	3.2%	9.5%	28.1%	14.7%
	Total	Count	221	421	352	994
		%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Male	Yes	Count	170	325	303	798
		%	95.0%	85.8%	67.6%	79.3%
	No	Count	9	54	145	208
		%	5.0%	14.2%	32.4%	20.7%
	Total	Count	179	379	448	1006
		%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

a. Source: Field Survey, 2006.

Statistical analysis shows that as the incidence of 'No' to the question whether education is necessary for women increases from central to the peripheral zones; the literacy rate decreases in the same sequence showing a negative, but weak, correlation of -.223 as shown in table 7.9.

Table-7.9 Hazara Region, Paired Samples Correlations[a].

Pairs		N	Correlation	Sig.
Pair 1	Zonal Distribution & Literacy	2000	-.389	.000
Pair 2	Zonal Distribution & 'No' to Education is Necessary for Women	2000	.275	.000
Pair 3	Literacy & 'No' to Education is Necessary for Women	2000	-.223	.000

a. Source: Field Survey, 2006.

7.3.2 Reasons for opposition to women education

Of the respondents, who were found opposed to women education, the single largest group (48%) stated that their Customs opposed it, while 22.6% respondents attributed it to the existence of gender bias in the community against women education which is the same factor as Custom opposing it. A small proportion of the respondents (14%) attributed their opposition to the Veil problem, and the same proportion of them thought that education of women was useless. An insignificant number of respondents (1.7%) mentioned poverty in this context.

The district-wise corresponding data are given in annexure tables-7.4 and 7.5 respectively. The 'Custom' as a cause of opposition to women education was least mentioned in Batagram district (36%) while its incidence was the highest in Haripur district (68%).

Overall analysis shows that as the perception that education is not necessary for women increases from central to the peripheral zones; the literacy rate decreases in the same sequence, which indicates a negative correlation of -.204 as shown in table 7.11.

Table-7.10 Hazara Region, Zone wise Reasons for not Necessary Girls' Education.				
Reason	Zonal Distribution			Total
	Central	Intermediate	Peripheral	
No Custom	12 7.0%	42 24.7%	116 68.2%	170 48%
Veil	0 0%	22 45.8%	26 54.1%	48 13.5%
Useless	0 0%	6 12.5%	42 87.5%	48 13.5%
Gender Bias	4 5.0%	22 27.5%	54 67.5%	80 22.5%
Poverty	0 0%	2 33.3%	4 66%	6 1.6%
No Awareness	0 0%	0 0%	2 100%	2 .5%
Total	16 4.5%	94 26.6%	244 68.9%	354 100%

Source: Field Survey, 2006

Table-7.11 Hazara Region, Paired Samples Correlations[a].

Pairs		N	Correlation	Sig.
Pair 1	Zonal Distribution & Literacy	2000	-.389	.000
Pair 2	Zonal Distribution & Reasons for not Necessary	2000	.240	.000
Pair 3	Literacy & Reasons for not Necessary	2000	-.204	.000

a. Source: Field Survey, 2006.

7.3.3 Perceptions on advantages of women education

The respondents' perceptions on advantages of women education are tabulated in Table 7.12 in which it will be seen that the single largest proportion (35%) of them thought that education resulted in improving 'Awareness'of the women, followed by 28%, who thought that it helped to provide better nourishment to the children, ostensibly as a result of income effect as well as general improvement in women's knowledge of child nourishment related matters. A good 11 % respondents thought that education resulted in improving the 'self confidence' of the women concerned. The afore-stated and the other advantages of education as perceived by the respondents indicate that they as also would be the case with the community in general, perceived women education as a productive and beneficial proposition from the view point of the women and their households concerned.

The broad character of perceptions in the three zones taken separately is the same as stated above for the surveyed zones taken as a whole, differing only in degree from zone to zone. The fact that women education leads to "Awareness" is most frequently reported in each of the three zones, followed by the favourable impact on 'nourishment of the children'.

Table-7.12 Hazara Region, Zone wise'Advantages of Women Education.

Advantages		Zonal Distribution			Total
		Central	Intermediate	Peripheral	
Self Confidance	Count	52	74	64	190
	%	13.5%	10.4%	11.5%	11.5%
Awareness	Count	132	242	202	576
	%	34.3%	34.0%	36.3%	34.9%
Better Nourishment of Children	Count	96	211	148	455
	%	25.0%	29.7%	26.6%	27.6%
The Best Planner	Count	20	69	68	157
	%	5.2%	9.7%	12.2%	9.5%
Bright Future	Count	40	42	34	116
	%	10.4%	5.9%	6.1%	7.0%
No Burdon on Male	Count	36	36	14	86
	%	9.4%	5.0%	2.5%	5.2%
Better / Educated Citizen	Count	8	36	26	70
	%	2.0%	5.0%	4.6%	4.2%
Total	Count	384	710	556	1650
	%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

a. Source: Field Survey, 2006.

7.3.4 Parents preference of institutions for girls' education

The respondents were asked, what kind of educational institutions would they like their children to go to for education- ; Formal (the school), Religious (the madrassa) or both? The highest percentage of parents (53.8%) showed willingness for 'both' these types i.e.; schools as well as madrassas. 'Madrassas only' and 'schools only' account for 36% and 10% respondents respectively; this response pattern applies to the surveyed zones taken as a whole.

In the Central zone, as many as 91% respondents indicated their preference for 'both', Madrassas and Schools and in the Intermediate zone, too, this category was the leading one but with a much smaller proportion (57.5%) of the respondents preferring it. In the Peripheral zone, Madrassa was preferred

by the single largest proportion (61%) of respondents. This pattern of preference is largely consistent with the level of development of the three zones .The Central zone is relatively more developed of the three and people there are accordingly more progressive as compared with those in the other two zones (table 7.13).

Perceptions of the male and the female respondents differ in the present context, but not materially. Thus as will be seen in table 7.14, of female respondents about 10% favoured sending their girls to Formal schools, 36% to Religious schools, and about 54% to both types of schools. The male respondent's corresponding figures are 7.6%, 39%, and 53% respectively. It is interesting to note that a relatively larger proportion of male respondents favoured Religious Schools for their girls as compared with their female counterparts. This is reflective of men's general bias against girls' participation in formal education.

A reference to Table 7.15 brings up an interesting observation. It will be found in this table that some 5% respondents would not like to send their girls to anywhere for education .The overwhelming majority of these cases belongs to the peripheral zone. This category represents a case of respondents, who would like to educate their girls at home, or who would not like their girls to acquire education. On the whole, also in this table the respondents' preferences are in conformity with those given in tables 7.13 and 7.14, which represent perceptions on the given types of the schools, eliminating the choice of nowhere.

Table-7.13 Hazara Region, Zone wise Parent's Choice of Girl's Education.

Parent's Choice of Girl's Education		Zonal Distribution			Total
		Central	*Intermediate*	*Peripheral*	
Formal	Count	10	128	60	198
	%	2.5%	16.0%	7.5%	9.9%
Religious	Count	26	212	488	726
	%	6.5%	26.5%	*61.0%*	36.3%
Both	Count	364	460	252	1076
	%	*91.0%*	*57.5%*	31.5%	*53.8%*
Total	Count	400	800	800	2000
	%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

a. Source: Field Survey, 2006.

Table-7.14 Hazara Region, Gender & Zone wise Parent's Choice of Girl's Education.

Gender	Choice of Education		Zonal Distribution			Total
			Central	*Intermediate*	*Peripheral*	
Female	*Formal*	Count	5	90	27	122
		%	2.3%	21.4%	7.7%	12.3%
	Religious	Count	15	114	203	332
		%	6.8%	27.1%	*57.7%*	33.4%
	Both	Count	201	217	122	540
		%	*91.0%*	*51.5%*	34.7%	54.3%
	Total	Count	221	421	352	994
		%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Male	*Formal*	Count	5	38	33	76
		%	2.8%	10.0%	7.4%	7.6%
	Religious	Count	11	98	285	394
		%	6.1%	25.9%	*63.6%*	39.2%
	Both	Count	163	243	130	536
		%	*91.1%*	*64.1%*	29.0%	53.3%
	Total	Count	179	379	448	1006
		%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

a. Source: Field Survey, 2006.

Table-7.15 Hazara, Gender & Zone wise'Parent's Choice of Girl's Institution'.

Parent's Choice of Girl's Institution		Zonal Distribution			Total
		Central	*Intermediate*	*Peripheral*	
No where	Count	2	20	74	96
	%	.5%	2.5%	9.3%	4.8%
School	Count	28	210	86	324
	%	7.0%	26.3%	10.8%	16.2%
Madrassa	Count	20	190	366	576
	%	5.0%	23.8%	*45.8%*	28.8%
Both	Count	350	380	274	1004
	%	*87.5%*	*47.5%*	34.3%	*50.2%*
Total	Count	400	800	800	2000
	%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

a. Source: Field Survey, 2006.

7.3.5 Parents' preference of females professions after education

In the surveyed zones taken as whole, about 30% of the parents didn't like their girls to take up any profession after receiving education. Taking the three zones individually, quite prominent departure is seen from this overall average's. As will be seen in Table 7.16, the corresponding figure is a mere 3.8% in the Central zone as opposed to the Peripheral zone's figure of 54.4%, while the Intermediate zone lies in between in this respect with a figure of about 20%.This pattern of attitude towards girls participation in earning activity is consistent with the level of development in the three zones. The more progressive zones are less hostile to the idea of women participation in gainful employment, and opposition to this proposition is seen higher in the relatively less progressive zones- the Intermediate and the Peripheral.

Amongst the professions preferred by the parents for their girls, 'teaching' was the choice of the single largest number (36.9%) followed by the job of medical doctors (21, 8%) in the surveyed zones taken as whole. In the three zones taken individually the response pattern was closely the same in character as above, differing only in degree, as will be seen in table 7.16.

It was an unexpected, but a positive thing, to find that some respondents expressed their preference for nursing jobs, too, which are socially not very

popular in the conservative society. The overall figure for this job is 10.7%. In the Intermediate zone a good 13.5% parents preferred Nursing for their girls.

Table-7.16 Hazara Region, Zone wise Girl's Choice of Profession after Education.

Girl's Choice of Profession after		Zonal Distribution			Total
		Central	Intermediate	Peripheral	
Doctor.	Count	123	204	108	435
	%	30.8%	25.5%	13.5%	21.8%
Teacher	Count	224	321	173	718
	%	56.0%	40.1%	21.6%	35.9%
Nurse	Count	32	108	74	214
	%	8.0%	13.5%	9.3%	10.7%
Any other	Count	6	8	10	24
	%	1.5%	1.0%	1.3%	1.2%
Nil	Count	15	159	435	609
	%	3.8%	19.9%	54.4%	30.5%
Total	Count	400	800	800	2000
	%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

[a]- Source: Field Survey, 2006.

The District and community wise preference of females' professions after completion of their education is shown in annexure table 7.8 and 7.9 respectively, which indicate that the parents preferred 'teaching' as a profession for their girls` in Haripur (42%), Abbottabad (41%) and Mansehra (41%) but not in Batagram (18%) and Kohistan (14%). In Batagram 70% and in district Kohistan 65%, did not like any profession for their girls. In the three communities of district Batagram i.e., Blundkot, Batila and Gantar; all respondents were against girls' joining a profession as shown in annexure table-7.9.

7.3.6 Access to sources of general information

The importance of general awareness and information cannot be overemphasised in any region of the world. In remote and far-flung areas of Hazara, media can perform a useful role to provide awareness, knowledge, information and entertainment in addition to education. Allama Iqbal Open University_ a distant educational institution is running educational programmes successfully on television for the people, especially women, who are unable to attend a campus due to various reasons. Data on the sources of information at

the homes of the respondents as given in table 7.17 reveal that even in this modern age 13% of the respondents were without any source of information in the three zones taken as whole. The corresponding figure was the lowest (7.5%) in the Central zone and highest in the Peripheral (16.4%).

Table-7.17 Hazara Region, Source of Information at Home.

Source of Information at Home		Zonal Distribution			Total
		Central	Intermediate	Peripheral	
Yes	Count	370	702	669	1741
	%	92.5%	87.8%	83.6%	87.1%
No	Count	30	98	131	259
	%	7.5%	12.3%	16.4%	13.0%
Total	Count	400	800	800	2000
	%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

a. Source: Field Survey, 2006.

Table-7.18 Hazara, Zone wise Advanced Source of Information at Home.

Advanced Source of Information		Zonal Distribution			Total
		Central	Intermediate	Peripheral	
Radio	Count	63	343	479	885
	%	17.0%	49.0%	71.6%	50.8%
T.V	Count	135	307	168	610
	%	36.5%	43.7%	25.0%	35.0%
Cable	Count	20	4	0	24
	%	5.2%	.7%	.0%	1.4%
Internet	Count	8	2	4	14
	%	2.1%	.4%	.5%	.8%
Newspaper	Count	20	14	4	38
	%	5.2%	2.0%	.5%	2.0%
Journal	Count	2	14	0	16
	%	.6%	2.0%	.0%	1.0%
Other	Count	0	2	2	4
	%	.0%	.4%	.4%	3.0%
All	Count	122	16	12	150
	%	33.0%	2.5%	2.0%	8.6%
Total	Count	370	702	669	1741
	%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

a. Source: Field Survey, 2006.

Table-7.19 Hazara Region, Paired Samples Correlations[a].

Pairs		N	Correlation	Sig.
Pair 1	Zonal Distribution & Literacy	2000	-.389	.000
Pair 2	Zonal Distribution & 'No' to Source of Information at Home	2000	.098	.000
Pair 3	Literacy & 'No' to Source of Information at Home	2000	-.232	.000

a. Source: Field Survey, 2006.

Radio was the most used source in peripheral zone. The incidence of use of T.V., followed by Cable, Internet, Newspaper, Journals and other sources was found declining from central to peripheral zones. A high percentage of people of the central zone was enjoying 'All' types of information sources; this zone also had the highest literacy rate in Hazara.

Overall analysis shows that as the incidence of "No source of information at home" increases from central to the peripheral zones; the literacy rate decreases in the same sequence, showing a negative correlation of -.232 as shown in table 7.19.The negative correlation (-.232) is, however, weak .

The gender wise choice of programmes in information media at various zones is shown in table-7.20. The Informational programmes were found in favour of the single largest number of males (29%) as well as of females (30%) followed by Entertainment programmes with corresponding figures of 24.6% and 24.4% respectively. On the whole, no single category of programmes enjoyed preference of the majority of either gender. The preferences were fairly widely diversified .It is, however, noteworthy and mentionable that a fair number of both males (16%) and females (20%) expressed preference for Educational programmes.

Table-7.20 Hazara Region, Gender & Zone wise Choice of Programmes in Media.

Gender	Choice of Programmes		Zonal Distribution			Total
			Central	Intermediate	Peripheral	
Female	Educational	Count	29	71	45	145
		%	14.6%	18.8%	14.4%	16.3%
	Entertainment	Count	34	120	89	243
		%	17.0%	28.5%	25.3%	27.4%
	Information	Count	33	111	121	265
		%	16.6%	31.8%	38.8%	29.9%
	All	Count	102	71	43	216
		%	51.3%	18.8%	13.8%	24.3%
	Other	Count	0	4	14	18
		%	.0%	1.0%	4.5%	2.0%
	Total	Count	199	377	312	887
		%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Male	Educational	Count	24	89	57	170
		%	13.9%	27.4%	16.1%	19.9%
	Entertainment	Count	58	92	97	247
		%	33.7%	28.3%	27.5%	24.6%
	Information	Count	27	88	142	257
		%	15.7%	27.0%	40.3%	28.9%
	All	Count	63	54	39	156
		%	36.6%	16.6%	11.0%	18.2%
	Other	Count	0	2	22	24
		%	.0%	.6%	6.3%	2.8%
	Total	Count	172	325	352	854
		%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

a. Source: Field Survey, 2006.

7.4 Gender equality in education

In this section, the study's focus is on respondents' perception on: (1) whether they favour the proposition that women should customarily be allowed to have formal education, and (2) should women and men be provided equal access to education. These two questions are taken up in the ensuing two sub-sections. Perceptions of male as well as female respondents are inquired into:

7.4.1 Females' formal education

The two genders differed quite distinctly on this question: whether women should be customarily allowed to have formal education? Most of the female respondents (52%) said, 'Yes', while most of the males (61.5%) said 'No" in reply, in the surveyed zones taken as a whole. The response patterns are

seen to be markedly different when the individual zones are taken up separately. Thus, as will be seen in table7.21, in the central zone the overwhelming majority of both male (79%) and female (80%) respondents favoured the proposition. The opposite holds true for the Peripheral zone where 73% males and 67% females did not approve of this proposition

Overall analysis shows that as the 'No' to the custom of female formal education in family increases from central to the peripheral zones the literacy rate decreases in the same sequence, indicating a negative correlation of -.348 as shown in table 7.22.

Table-7.21 Hazara Region, Gender & Zone wise [a]Custom of Female's Formal Education in family.[a]

Gender	Formal Education		Zonal Distribution			Total
			Central	*Intermediate*	*Peripheral*	
Female	*Yes*	Count	177	227	114	518
		%	*80.1%*	*53.9%*	*32.4%*	*52.1%*
	No	Count	44	194	238	476
		%	*19.9%*	*46.1%*	*67.6%*	*47.9%*
	Total	Count	221	421	352	994
		%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Male	*Yes*	Count	141	128	118	387
		%	78.8%	33.8%	26.3%	38.5%
	No	Count	38	251	330	619
		%	21.2%	66.2%	73.7%	*61.5%*
	Total	Count	179	379	448	1006
		%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

[a]. Source: Field Survey, 2006.

Table-7.22 Hazara Region, Paired Samples Correlations[a].

Pairs		N	Correlation	Sig.
Pair 1	Zonal Distribution & Literacy	2000	-.389	.000
Pair 2	Zonal Distribution & 'No' to Custom of Female's Formal Education in family	2000	.358	.000
Pair 3	Literacy & 'No' to Custom of Female's Formal Education in family	2000	-.348	.000

[a]. Source: Field Survey, 2006.

7.4.2 Gender equal opportunities of formal education

In the previous section respondents perception on females' education was reported without any reference to their right to equal opportunity in this respect with the males. They were also asked if they liked to educate their male and female children equally. Their responses are shown in Table 7.23. In the three zones taken as a whole, majority of both males (59%) and females (52%) responded in the negative. The response pattern was, however, different in different zones. In the Central zone as many as 77% females and 70% males stated that they favoured equal opportunity to both genders in the matter of education. In the Intermediate zone, the opinion was slightly against the proposition, while in the Peripheral zone; the majority did not favour equal opportunity to women. These patterns are consistent with the level of overall development in the three zones. The relatively more developed Central zone was found distinctly in favour of gender equality as shown in table 7.23.

Table-7.23 Hazara Region, Zone wise Equal Opportunities of Formal Education for Girls.[a]

Gender	Equal Opportunity		Zonal Distribution			Total
			Central	*Intermediate*	*Peripheral*	
Female	*Yes*	Count	174	210	88	472
		%	78.7%	49.9%	25.0%	47.5%
	No	Count	47	211	264	522
		%	*21.3%*	*50.1%*	*75.0%*	*52.5%*
	Total	Count	221	421	352	994
		%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Male	*Yes*	Count	126	185	98	409
		%	70.4%	48.8%	21.9%	40.7%
	No	Count	53	194	350	597
		%	*29.6%*	*51.2%*	*78.1%*	*59.3%*
	Total	Count	179	379	448	1006
		%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

a. Source: Field Survey, 2006.

The district and community wise perceptions on the issue whether the two genders should have equal access to education are shown in annexure tables 7.10 and 7.11 respectively. The respondents were asked to say 'Yes' or 'No' to indicate whether they favoured or opposed, respectively, the gender equality proposition in this context. The percentage of 'No' to equality proposition was

the highest amongst both genders; female 92.7% and male 85.7% in Batagram district; followed by Kohistan district- females 77.5% and males 82.2%. The percentage of 'No' was the lowest in Haripur district; amongst the 'female' 29.8%; followed by Abbottabad district amongst the 'male'35.9% respectively.

In communities of Batagram district; 92.7%f female, said 'No' to equal opportunity for female ; the corresponding figure for the 'male' respondents is 85.7%. The response of 'NO' to get equal opportunity was 100% in education in the communities of Blundkot, Batila and Gantar irrespective of any zone. Therefore it is concluded that in these communities of Batagram the unequal gender opportunity in education was more structural (social) than geographic.

Overall analysis shows that; as the 'No' to the proposition for girls equal opportunities for education increases from central to the peripheral zones; the literacy rate decreases in the same sequence, indicating a negative correlation of -.350 as shown in table-7.24.

Table-7.24 Hazara Region, Paired Samples Correlations[a].

Pairs		N	Correlation	Sig.
Pair 1	Zonal Distribution & Literacy	2000	-.389	.000
Pair 2	Zonal Distribution & 'No' to Girls Get Equal Opportunities of Formal Education	2000	.391	.000
Pair 3	Literacy & 'No' to Girls Get Equal Opportunities of Formal Education	2000	-.350	.000

a. Source: Field Survey, 2006.

7.4.3 Reasons of gender inequality in formal education

The respondents opposed to gender equality in the access to formal education ascribed their opposition to a number of reasons. The main reasons are: customary barriers (24%) males' dominancy (18%); and non-availability of schools for females (17%) as shown in Table 7.25. The latter factor is in its turn the outcome of gender bias (in favour of males), which in its turn is rooted in the social systems of the area in which the women are traditionally not

treated at par with the males. Poverty in the area reinforces the factors adversely impacting women's right to equal treatment. Thus, there is vicious circle of causes of unequal treatment of women in respect of formal education. On the whole, the study area is characterised by male dominancy with the consequent relegation of women to lower ranks in respect of formal education. As will be seen in Table 7.26 there is a negative, but weak, correlation (-.274) between gender inequality and the general literacy level across the three zones.

Table-7.25 Hazara Region, Zone wise Reasons of Gender Disparity in Formal Education.

Reason		Zonal Distribution			Total
		Central	Intermediate	Peripheral	
Non availability of Girls Schools	Count	2	60	124	186
	%	2.0%	14.8%	20.3%	16.7%
Nonavailability of Female Teachers	Count	4	46	72	122
	%	4.0%	11.8%	11.8%	10.9%
Gents Social Dominancy	Count	18	93	90	201
	%	18.0%	23.0%	14.8%	18.0%
Boys will earn for family	Count	10	24	46	80
	%	10.0%	5.9%	7.5%	7.2%
No custom of Female Education	Count	24	94	150	268
	%	24.0%	23.1%	24.6%	24.0%
Poverty	Count	30	60	52	142
	%	30.0%	14.8%	8.5%	12.7%
Gender Discrimination	Count	8	26	72	106
	%	8.0%	6.3%	11.8%	9.5%
No Awareness	Count	4	2	4	10
	%	4.0%	.5%	.7%	.9%
Total	Count	100	405	610	1115
	%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

a. Source: Field Survey, 2006.

Table-7.26 Hazara Region, Paired Samples Correlations[a].

Pairs		N	Correlation	Sig.
Pair 1	Zonal Distribution & Literacy	2000	-.389	.000
Pair 2	Zonal Distribution & Reasons of Gender Disparity in Formal Education	2000	.262	.000
Pair 3	Literacy & Reasons of Gender Disparity in Formal Education	2000	-.274	.000

a. Source: Field Survey, 2006.

7.5 Summary and Conclusion

In this chapter the existing situation in respect of religious education of women in the sample households is described and respondents' perceptions on different aspects of participation of women in formal education are presented.

The overwhelming majority of female respondents (96%) as well as of males (97%) was Quran Literate. There were three levels of Quran literacy: Nazra i.e.; read only, without understanding; Hifz i.e.; memorising by heart, not necessarily with understanding; read with understanding i.e.; with ability to translate or interpret the Quran (which is in Arabic) in some language, which was mostly Urdu in Hazara's context. As many as 83.7% female respondents had had Nazra Quran literacy, and 0nly 6.6% had done Hifz (of Quran, followed by 5.5% who could read Quran with understanding. The males showed more or less the same pattern. The overwhelming majority of the respondents-males (85.3%) as well as females, (79.3%) were found in favour of formal female education in the surveyed zones taken as whole. The corresponding zonal percentages showed declining trend from central to peripheral zones in case of both genders. Of the respondents, who were found opposed to women education, the single largest number stated that their Customs opposed it. The respondents attributed it also to the existence of gender bias in the community against women education. They were of the view that education of women was useless and an insignificant number of respondents mentioned poverty in this context.

In the surveyed zones taken as whole, about 30% of the parents didn't like their girls to take up any profession after receiving education. Taking the three zones individually, quite prominent departure was seen from this overall average's. The corresponding figure was a mere 3.8% in the Central zone as opposed to the Peripheral zone's figure of 54.4%, while the Intermediate zone lay in between in this respect with a figure of about 20%. Amongst the professions preferred by the parents for their girls, teaching was preferred by the single largest number (36.9%) followed by the job of medical doctors (21.8%) in the surveyed zones taken as a whole. In the three zones taken individually the response pattern was closely the same in character differing only in degree. It was an unexpected, but a positive thing, to find that some respondents expressed their preference for Nursing jobs, too, which are normaly socially not very popular in the conservative society. The overall figure for this job preference was 10.7%.

The two genders differed quite distinctly on the question, whether women should be customarily allowed to have formal education. Most of the female respondents (52%) favoured the proposition, while most of the males (61.5%) replied negatively in the surveyed zones taken as a whole. The response patterns were found markedly different in the individual zones taken separately. In the central zone the overwhelming majority of both male (79%) and female (80%) respondents favoured the proposition.The opposite held true for the Peripheral zone, where 73% males and 67% females didn't approve of this proposition.

In the context of the question whether the two genders should be treated equally in respect of access to formal education, in the three zones taken as a whole the majority of both males (59%) and females (52%) responded in the negative. The response pattern was, however, different in different zones. In the Central zone as many as 77% females and 70% males stated that they favoured equal opportunity to both genders in the matter of education. In the

Intermediate zone the opinion was slightly against the proposition, while in the Peripheral zone the majority did not favour equal opportunity to women.

The respondents opposed to gender equality in the access to formal education ascribed their opposition to a number of reasons. The major reasons were: customary barriers; males' dominance; and non-availability of schools for females. The latter factor is in its turn the outcome of gender bias (in favour of males) which in its turn was rooted in the social systems of the area in which the woman was traditionally not treated at par with the males. Poverty in the area reinforced the factors adversely impacting women's right to equal treatment. Thus there was vicious circle of causes of unequal treatment of women in respect of formal education. On the whole, the study area was characterised by male dominancy with the consequent relegation of women to lower ranks in respect of formal education.

Chapter # 8

Impact of Gender Inequality and Women Empowerment on Literacy

8.0 Introduction

The extent and nature of involvement of women in family related decision making, their participation in political process- vote casting, contesting for political offices, general involvement in political activity etc are important measures of the nature and extent of their empowerment. The latter has profound direct and indirect bearing on access of women to their fundamental rights including the right to formal education. This chapter presents the study's findings in this context.

8.1 Gender authority of decision-making in family matters

Who has the prime authority to make decisions in the family, man or the woman? This question was addressed to the male and female respondents of the survey, and the resulting picture is shown in table 8.1. The overwhelming majority of both female and the male respondents stated that the decision making authority vested with men; 78% female and 85% male respondents said so in the surveyed zones taken as whole. The majority of respondents in the three zones taken individually said the same, differing, however, in degree of men's dominance .In the central zone men were reported to be relatively less dominant, while the extent of their dominance was found relatively higher in the Intermediate and highest in the Peripheral zone. This pattern is consistent with the overall level of socio-economic development of the three zones. The more developed a zone the lesser is the degree of men's dominance in this sphere i.e., household decision making authority.

There are cases of joint decision making, too, where men associate women with it, but the overall incidence of such cases is low. Only 13% female

respondents stated that both men and women had the decision making authority while the corresponding figure for male respondents is about 11%.

Table-8.1 Hazara Region, Gender and Zone wise Authority of Decision in Family Matters.

Gender	Decision Authority		Zonal Distribution			Total
			Central	*Intermediate*	*Peripheral*	
Female	*Gent*	Count	142	319	314	775
		%	*64.3%*	*75.8%*	*89.2%*	*78.0%*
	Lady	Count	20	44	22	86
		%	9.0%	10.5%	6.3%	8.7%
	Both	Count	59	58	16	133
		%	26.7%	13.8%	4.5%	13.4%
	Total	Count	221	421	352	994
		%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Male	*Gent*	Count	135	317	408	860
		%	*75.4%*	*83.6%*	*91.1%*	*85.5%*
	Lady	Count	11	12	14	37
		%	6.1%	3.2%	3.1%	3.7%
	Both	Count	33	50	26	109
		%	18.4%	13.2%	5.8%	10.8%
	Total	Count	179	379	448	1006
		%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

[a]. Source: Field Survey, 2006.

8.1.1 Women's assistance in decision-making

Although the decision making authority vests largely with men, the women are widely associated with household level decisions. About 70% of the female respondents and a good 65% male respondents stated so, in the surveyed zones taken as a whole. The zone wise response pattern is the same differing only in degree. The frequency of assistance from women was found highest in the Central zone and the lowest in the Peripheral zone. In the Central zone as many as 90% of female respondents and about 92% male respondents reported that women were associated with decision making. The corresponding figure declined in the Intermediate zone and was the lowest in the Peripheral zone (Table 8.2).

Overall analysis shows that as woman non-involvement in household related decision making increases from central to the peripheral zones, the literacy

rate decreases in the same sequence, showing a negative correlation of -.210 as shown in table 8.3.

Table-8.2 Hazara Region, Gender and Zone wise Women's Assistance in Decision-making.

Gender	Women's Assistance		Zonal Distribution			Total
			Central	*Intermediate*	*Peripheral*	
Female	*Yes*	Count	200	321	172	693
		%	*90.5%*	*76.2%*	*48.9%*	*69.7%*
	No	Count	21	100	180	301
		%	9.5%	23.8%	51.1%	30.3%
	Total	Count	221	421	352	994
		%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Male	*Yes*	Count	164	285	210	659
		%	*91.6%*	*75.2%*	*46.9%*	*65.5%*
	No	Count	15	94	238	347
		%	8.4%	24.8%	53.1%	34.5%
	Total	Count	179	379	448	1006
		%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

a. Source: Field Survey, 2006.

Table-8.3 Hazara Region, Paired Samples Correlations[a].

Pairs		N	Correlation	Sig.
Pair 1	Zonal Distribution & Literacy	2000	-.389	.000
Pair 2	Zonal Distribution & 'No' to Women's Assistance in Decision-making	2000	.360	.000
Pair 3	Literacy & 'No' to Women's Assistance in Decision-making	2000	-.210	.000

a. Source: Field Survey, 2006.

8.1.2 Nature of women participation in decision-making

Of the women associated with decision making, the majority (79.5%) were associated with decisions concerning domestic matters, while 16% respondents stated that women were associated with all kinds of decisions. This was the situation in the surveyed zones taken as a whole. The individual zone wise corresponding pattern is the same with difference only of degree as shown in Table 8.4. The low degree of association of women with social decisions, reported in table 8.4, is unexpected. Normally women are closely involved with matters such as marriages, schooling of children, social functions etc. It appears that decisions of these types were included in the

category of 'domestic decisions' while the 'social category' means something different in respondents perception, including perhaps matters pertaining community problems, disputes with others over different matters, festivals, etc., in which views of women are normally not elicited by most household heads, but some do involve the women therein.

Table-8.4 Hazara Region, Gender and Zone wise[a] Level of Women's Assistance in Decision-making.

Level		Zonal Distribution			Total
		Central	*Intermediate*	*Peripheral*	*Total*
Domestic	Count	246	492	337	1075
	%	*67.6%*	*81.3%*	*88.0%*	*79.5%*
Social	Count	10	24	12	46
	%	2.7%	4.0%	3.1%	3.4%
Political	Count	2	8	4	14
	%	.5%	1.0%	1.0%	1.0%
All	Count	106	81	30	217
	%	*29.1%*	*13.4%*	*7.8%*	*16.0%*
Total	Count	364	605	383	1352
	%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

a. Source: Field Survey, 2006.

Reasons for not seeking assistance from women in decision-making are shown in Table-8.5. The single largest group (40.6%) of respondents ascribed this situation to, what they thought, the women being an 'Inferior Gender ', inferior physically as well as intellectually, rendering them unable to make a sound decision, as perceived by the respondents. Another 23.6% respondents ascribed the situation to Illiteracy of the women, and a good 15.7% respondents thought that the women folk did not have any wisdom or awareness rendering them good enough for associating them with household decisions. This pattern of response in the surveyed zones taken as a whole holds more or less good in the three zones taken separately with, however, the difference that women's Inferiority is mentioned most prominently in the Peripheral zone followed by the Intermediate and Central zones.

Amongst the districts, the largest number of respondents who said that they did not associate women with decision making for their being Inferior Gender

was found in Batagram (83.4%), followed by the districts of Abbottabad, Kohistan, Haripur, and Mansehra with the corresponding percentage points of 52%; 48.5%; 41.2% and 32% respectively as shown in annexure table-8.2 respectively.

Table-8.5 Hazara Region, Zone wise Reasons for' No' Women Assistance in Decision-making.

Reasons for 'No'		Zonal Distribution			Total
		Central	*Intermediate*	*Peripheral*	
Illiteracy	Count	12	41	100	153
	%	33.3%	21.0%	24.0%	23.6%
No awareness	Count	4	46	74	124
	%	11.1%	23.6%	17.7%	19.1%
No wisdom with her	Count	8	28	66	102
	%	22.2%	14.4%	15.8%	15.7%
Inferior Gender	Count	12	74	177	263
	%	33.3%	37.9%	42.4%	40.6%
Other	Count	0	6	0	6
	%	.0%	3.0%	.0%	1.0%
Total	Count	36	195	417	648
	%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

a. Source: Field Survey, 2006.

8.2 Perceptions on participation of women in elections and vote casting

Generally speaking, there is no social restriction in urban areas of Hazara on women in the matter of casting votes in the elections, and they do exercise their electoral rights though on a smaller scale as compared with men. However, women are still banned, by custom, to cast their votes in the peripheral rural territories. In the surveyed zones, taken as a whole, about 65% female respondents and 55% male respondents stated that women in their households do cast vote. The corresponding figures are much higher in Central zone (90% and 88% for females and males respectively) and much lower in the Peripheral zone (females 36% and males 30%), as can be seen in Table 8.6.

Table-8.6 Hazara Region, Gender and Zone wise Authority of Women to cast Vote.

Gender	Cast Vote?		Zonal Distribution			Total
			Central	*Intermediate*	*Peripheral*	
Female	*Yes*	Count	199	319	126	644
		%	90.0%	75.8%	35.8%	64.8%
	No	Count	22	102	226	350
		%	*10.0%*	*24.2%*	*64.2%*	*35.2%*
	Total	Count	221	421	352	994
		%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Male	*Yes*	Count	157	263	132	552
		%	87.7%	69.4%	29.5%	54.9%
	No	Count	22	116	316	454
		%	*12.3%*	*30.6%*	*70.5%*	*45.1%*
	Total	Count	179	379	448	1006
		%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

a. Source: Field Survey, 2006.

Overall analysis shows; as 'No' to cast vote by women increases from central to the peripheral zones the literacy rate decreases in the same sequence, indicate a negative correlation of -.368 as shown in table 8.7.

Table-8.7 Hazara Region, Paired Samples Correlations[a].

Pairs		N	Correlation	Sig.
Pair 1	Zonal Distribution & Literacy	2000	-.389	.000
Pair 2	Zonal Distribution & 'No' to Women vote casting	2000	.460	.000
Pair 3	Literacy & 'No' to Women vote casting	2000	-.368	.000

a. Source: Field Survey, 2006.

8.2.1 Reasons for non participation of women in voting

Non participation of women in voting for political elections was ascribed by the respondents largely to their being home-bound (27.6%) and 'illiteracy' (27.1%) in the surveyed zones taken as whole. The same pattern of response was observed in the three zones considered separately, with the difference that in the Peripheral zone the factor of 'home boundness' and in the other two zones the 'illiteracy' factor was more pronounced in this respect.

Table-8.8 Hazara Region, Zone wise Reasons to' No' Women Vote casting.

Reason to 'No'		Zonal Distribution			Total
		Central	Intermediate	Peripheral	
Illiteracy	Count	18	72	128	218
	%	40.9%	33.0%	23.6%	27.1%
No awareness	Count	8	38	90	136
	%	18.1%	17.4%	16.6%	16.9%
No wisdom with her	Count	0	18	46	64
	%	.0%	8.2%	8.5%	8.0%
Restricted to Home	Count	8	50	164	222
	%	18.1%	22.9%	30.3%	27.6%
No Decision Power	Count	0	6	40	46
	%	.0%	2.8%	7.3%	5.7%
No Tradition	Count	10	34	74	118
	%	22.7%	15.6%	13.7%	14.7%
Total	Count	44	218	542	804
	%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

a. Source: Field Survey, 2006.

8.3 Women's participation in politics

Should women participate in politics? To this question the majority of the female respondents (55%) replied in "YES" and the majority (58%) of male respondents said "NO" in the three zones taken as whole. It is, however, notable that the majority in both cases was rather thin. The individual zones response pattern was different from the overall average .In the Peripheral zone, the overwhelming majority of both females (70%) as well as the males (78%) opposed this proposition, while in the Central zone the obverse held true with 79% females and 71% males favouring it. In the Intermediate zone, majority of both males and females favoured the proposition of women participation in politics but with a smaller margin, as compared with the other two zones: 61% females were in favour, while males were almost evenly divided in their opinion.

The gender and district wise women participation in politics is shown in Annexure table-8.4. Women's participation in politics was most favoured in the districts of Abbottabad (72.8%) and Haripur (72%) but it was highly opposed in the districts of Kohistan (91.5%) and Batagram (91.1%).

Overall analysis shows that as 'No' to women participation in politics increases from central to the peripheral zones; the literacy rate decreases in the same sequence, indicate a negative correlation of -.327 as shown in table 8.10.

Table-8.9 Hazara Region, Gender and Zone wise Women's Participation in Politics.[a]

Gender	Participate?		Zonal Distribution			Total
			Central	*Intermediate*	*Peripheral*	
Female	*Yes*	Count	175	269	106	550
		%	79.2%	63.9%	30.1%	55.3%
	No	Count	46	152	246	444
		%	*20.8%*	*36.1%*	*69.9%*	*44.7%*
	Total	Count	221	421	352	994
		%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Male	*Yes*	Count	127	191	100	418
		%	70.9%	50.4%	22.3%	41.6%
	No	Count	52	188	348	588
		%	*29.1%*	*49.6%*	*77.7%*	*58.4%*
	Total	Count	179	379	448	1006
		%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

a. Source: Field Survey, 2006.

Table-8.10 Hazara Region, Paired Samples Correlations[a].

Pairs		N	Correlation	Sig.
Pair 1	Zonal Distribution & Literacy	2000	-.389	.000
Pair 2	Zonal Distribution & 'No' to Women Participation in Politics	2000	.387	.000
Pair 3	Literacy & 'No' to Women Participation in Politics Women should Participate in Politics	2000	-.327	.000

a. Source: Field Survey, 2006.

8.3.1 Reasons for opposition to women participation in politics

The reasons given by the respondents in the present context are more or less similar as put forth by them to explain or justify women's low participation or its absence in other socio-economic spheres including electoral rights, household decisions etc. Illiteracy of the women folk was mentioned by the single largest number (33.7%) of respondents, followed by absence of 'tradition' (19.1%), their preoccupation with domestic work (10.1%), lack of 'wisdom' (9.7%) etc. to allow women participation in elections

All told, low literacy level, the consequent low level of awareness/ decision making power of women, and the social barriers were stated to be the major causes of non-participation of women in the political process.

It is, however, surprising and noteworthy that, despite all their conservatism, only a very small proportion, a mere 2.1%, of the respondents in the three zones taken as a whole stated that it was un-Islamic for the women to participate in politics. Even in the Peripheral zone the corresponding figure was only 1%.

Table-8.11 Hazara Region, Zone wise Reasons to ' No' Women's Participation in Politics.[a]

Reason to 'No'		Zonal Distribution			Total
		Central	*Intermediate*	*Peripheral*	
Illiteracy	Count	32	118	198	348
	%	32.7%	34.7%	33.3%	33.7%
No awareness	Count	12	78	68	158
	%	12.2%	22.9%	11.4%	15.3%
No wisdom with her	Count	0	34	66	100
	%	.0%	10.0%	11.1%	9.7%
Domestic work	Count	12	20	72	104
	%	12.2%	5.9%	12.8%	10.1%
No Decision Power	Count	2	12	42	56
	%	.5%	3.5%	7.0%	5.4%
No Ttradition	Count	18	58	122	198
	%	18.5%	17.0%	15.3%	19.1%
Shameless Act	Count	14	14	18	46
	%	14.6%	4.1%	3.0%	4.5%
Un-Islamic	Count	8	6	8	22
	%	8.1%	1.8%	1.3%	2.1%
Total	Count	98	340	594	1032
	%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

[a]. Source: Field Survey, 2006.

8.3.2 Women's contesting election

Women's participation in election, and contesting election as public representatives, was approved by both genders in the Central and the Intermediate zones but a high percentage of both female (72.4%) and male respondents (79.5%) in the Peripheral zone opposed this proposition, as shown in table 8.12.

Table-8.12 Hazara Region, Gender and Zone wise Women's Contesting Election.[a]

Gender	Contest?		Zonal Distribution			Total
			Central	Intermediate	Peripheral	
Female	Yes	Count	185	268	97	550
		%	83.7%	63.7%	27.6%	55.3%
	No	Count	36	153	255	444
		%	16.3%	36.3%	72.4%	44.7%
	Total	Count	221	421	352	994
		%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Male	Yes	Count	137	205	92	434
		%	76.5%	54.1%	20.5%	43.1%
	No	Count	42	174	356	572
		%	23.5%	45.9%	79.5%	56.9%
	Total	Count	179	379	448	1006
		%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

a. Source: Field Survey, 2006.

The district wise perception of the respondents on women's contesting election is shown in Annexure table-8.6. The highest proportion of them was found in favour of the proposition in the districts of Abbottabad (75.6%) and Haripur (68.5%) but it was highly opposed in the districts of Kohistan (89.2%) and Batagram (81.1%) respectively. Women's contesting election was also opposed in the district of Mansehra (59.1%).

Overall analysis shows that as 'No' to women's contesting election increases from central to the peripheral zones; the literacy rate decreases in the same sequence and indicate a negative correlation of -.351 as shown in table 8.13.

Table-8.13 Hazara Region, Paired Samples Correlations[a].

Pairs		N	Correlation	Sig.
Pair 1	Zonal Distribution & Literacy	2000	-.389	.000
Pair 2	Zonal Distribution & 'No' to Women Contesting Election	2000	.441	.000
Pair 3	Literacy &'No' to Women Contesting Election	2000	-.351	.000

a. Source: Field Survey, 2006.

8.3.3 Perceptions on level of participation in elections by women

Amongst the respondents approving women contesting the elections, the single largest group (34%) stated that the women may contest elections at all the levels, from local to national, followed by Provincial (21%) and District level elections (26%) and this applies to the respondents in all the zones taken as a whole.

The zone wise response pattern is different in the three zones taken separately. In the Central zone, women participation is approved at "all levels" by the majority (61.4%), in the Intermediate zone the opinion is evenly divided in favour of District (30.2%) and Provincial level (30.2%) election participation of women. In the Peripheral zone, the views were more diverse, thinly spread over each of the five levels shown in Table 8.14 leaning relatively a little more in favour of district level participation.

The district wise level of women's contesting election is shown in Annexure table-8.8. The highest proportion of the respondents favouring women's participation in elections at "All level" was recorded in Abbottabad district (41.6%), and the lowest corresponding figure (17.6%) was recorded in Batagram district.

Table-8.14 Hazara Region, Zone wise Women's Level of Contesting Election.[a]

Level of Contesting Election		Zonal Distribution			Total
		Central	Intermediate	Peripheral	
Local	Count	4	44	32	80
	%	1.2%	9.3%	17.0%	8.1%
District	Count	52	143	60	255
	%	16.1%	30.2%	31.9%	25.9%
Provincial	Count	20	143	44	207
	%	6.2%	30.2%	23.4%	21.0%
National	Count	48	52	8	108
	%	14.9%	11.0%	4.2%	10.9%
All	Count	198	92	44	334
	%	61.4%	19.4%	23.4%	33.9%
Total	Count	322	474	188	984
	%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

a. Source: Field Survey, 2006.

8.3.4 Perceptions on education level expected of women contesting election

In the three surveyed zones, taken as a whole, most (61%) of the respondents were found in favour of Graduate women (14 years education) for contesting the political elections. The next most favoured category was that of women with education up to Matriculation level (10 years education). Women with no education or with just primary level education did not enjoy respondents' mentionable approval for contesting the political elections; less than one percent respondents favoured such women. This is in other words an expression of high premium put by the people in the surveyed zones on education of the females.

In so far as the three zones are individually concerned, in the Central zone Graduate women enjoyed the favour of a great majority of the respondents for political contests; the figure being 89%. In the Intermediate zone, the Graduates were the single most mentioned category –favoured by 49.8% respondents but they were closely followed by Matriculates (40%), while in the Peripheral zone the obverse held true-Matriculates 43% and Graduates 41%.

The district wise corresponding data on respondents' perceptions on this subject are given in Annexure table-8.7. The highest proportion of respondents favouring Graduate women for political contests was recorded in Mansehra (65%) and lowest (52.5%) in Batagram district.

Overall analysis shows that as the education of the women contesting election decreases from central to the peripheral zones; the literacy rate also decreases in the same sequence, yielding a positive correlation of .335 as shown in table 8.16.

Table-8.15 Hazara Region, Zone wise Education of Women Contesting Election.[a]

Education of Women Contesting Election		Zonal Distribution			Total
		Central	*Intermediate*	*Peripheral*	
Matric	Count	36	190	81	307
	%	*11.1%*	*40.0%*	*43.0%*	31.1%
Graduate	Count	286	236	78	600
	%	*88.8%*	*49.8%*	*41.4%*	*61.0%*
More than Graduate	Count	0	34	19	53
	%	.0%	7.2%	10.1%	5.4%
No Education	Count	0	2	10	12
	%	.0%	.4%	5.3%	1.2%
Primary	Count	0	12	0	12
	%	.0%	2.5%	.0%	1.2%
Total	Count	322	474	188	984
	%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

a. Source: Field Survey, 2006.

Table-8.16 Hazara Region, Paired Samples Correlations[a].

Pairs		N	Correlation	Sig.
Pair 1	Zonal Distribution & Literacy	2000	-.389	.000
Pair 2	Zonal Distribution & Education of Women Contesting Election	2000	-.389	.000
Pair 3	Literacy & Education of Women Contesting Election	2000	.335	.000

a. Source: Field Survey, 2006.

8.3.5 Perceptions on why women should not contest political elections

On the subject why should not the women contest elections, the respondents' response pattern was close to that given in Table 8.11, in which the reasons for non-participation of women in politics are given. The two questions sound some what similar, but they are not exactly identical. In the earlier context (see Table 8.11) the question was of a generalised nature with intended emphasis on voting. In the present context (Table 8.17) it is specific to women's contesting the elections. Hence it is separately dealt with.

Nine distinct reasons are given in Table 8.17 for the survey's respondents' negative perceptions on women's contesting of elections. On the whole the fact of illiteracy amongst women is relatively more frequently mentioned in the

surveyed zones taken as a whole (28.5%), in general, and in the Peripheral and Intermediate zones in particular. Women being "restricted to homes" (13%), the presence of 'Gender discrimination' (15.7%) 'the absence of tradition' (13.1%) of their political participation, and the women being not well aware of the surroundings and the current issues (11.2%) are the other main reasons given by the sample respondents in the current context, in the three zones taken in general. A mere 3% respondents attributed their negative view to women contesting elections to that being 'Un-Islamic', and a little over one percent (1.7%) said that the proposition was shameless; they did not elaborate this but it was considered so in social context most probably.

Thus overall response pattern was more or less the same as encountered in the context of different questions pertaining negative views about women's access to their rights analysed earlier in this chapter.

Also amongst the districts, 'Illiteracy' was the single most frequently given reason for not favouring the proposition of women contesting the elections. The proportion of respondents, who gave this reason was 21.5% in district Kohistan; 44.4% in Haripur; 22% in Mansehra, 37.7% in Abbottabad, and 35.6% in Batagram as shown in annexure table-8.9.

Table-8.17 Hazara Region, Zone wise Reasons for' No' Women's Contesting Election.

Reasons for' No' Women's Contesting Election		Zonal Distribution			Total
		Central	*Intermediate*	*Peripheral*	
Illiteracy	Count	14	89	187	290
	%	*18.0%*	*27.3%*	*30.6%*	*28.5%*
No awareness	Count	0	62	50	112
	%	.0%	*19.0%*	8.2%	11.2%
No wisdom with her	Count	0	15	38	53
	%	.0%	4.6%	6.2%	5.2%
No Decision Power	Count	4	32	50	86
	%	1.3%	9.8%	8.2%	8.4%
Restricted to Home	Count	8	24	101	133
	%	*2.6%*	*7.3%*	*16.5%*	*13.0%*
No Ttradition	Count	8	34	92	134
	%	*2.6%*	*10.4%*	*15.0%*	*13.1%*
Gender Discrmination	Count	20	60	80	160
	%	*5.0%*	*18.4%*	*13.0%*	*15.7%*
Shameless Act	Count	8	2	8	18
	%	2.6%	.6%	1.3%	1.7%
Un-Islamic	Count	16	8	6	30
	%	*5.2%*	2.5%	1.0%	3.0%
Total	Count	78	326	612	1016
	%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

a. Source: Field Survey, 2006.

8.4 Summary and Conclusion

The overwhelming majority of both female (78%) and the male (85%) respondents considered separately stated that the family related decision making authority vested with men in the family. The majority of respondents in the three zones taken individually said the same, differing, however, in degree of men's dominance. In the central zone men were reported to be relatively less dominant, while the extent of their dominance was found relatively higher in the Intermediate and highest in the Peripheral zone.

The decision making authority also vested largely with men, the women were widely associated with the routine household level decisions. About 70% of the female respondents and a good 65% male respondents stated so, in the surveyed zones taken as a whole. The zone wise response pattern was the same differing only in degree. Of the women associated with decision making, the majority were associated with decisions concerning the domestic matters,

while a small proportion of respondents stated that they associated women with all kind of decisions. This was the situation in the surveyed zones taken as a whole. The corresponding pattern was the same in the three zones taken separately, differing only in degree. Normally women were closely involved with matters such as marriages, schooling of children and the social functions etc.

In the surveyed zones, taken as a whole, about 65% female respondents and 55% male respondents stated that women in their households do cast vote. The corresponding figures were much higher in Central zone (90% and 88% for females and males respectively) and much lower in the Peripheral zone (females 37% and males 30%).

In case of women participation in politics, the individual zones response pattern was different from the overall average. In the Peripheral zone the overwhelming majority of females (70%) as well as the males (78%) opposed this proposition, while in the Central zone the obverse held true with 79% females and 71% males favouring it. In the Intermediate zone majority of both males and females favoured the proposition of women participation in politics but with a smaller margin, as compared with the other two zones.

Women's participation in elections, and contesting elections, for political offices, was approved by majority of both genders in the Central and the Intermediate zones but a high percentage of both females (72.4%) and males (79.5%) in the Peripheral zone opposed this proposition. Amongst the respondents approving women contesting the elections, the single largest group stated that the women may contest elections at all the levels, from local to national, followed by Provincial and District level elections. This applied to the respondents in all the zones taken as a whole.

In the three surveyed zones, taken as whole, most of the respondents were found in favour of Graduate women (14 years education) for contesting the

political elections. The next most favoured category was that of women with education up to Matriculation level (10 years education). Women with no education or with just primary level education did not enjoy respondents' mentionable approval for contesting the political elections. This was in other words an expression of the high premium put by the people in the surveyed zones on education of the females.

Chapter # 9

Impact of Gender Economic Resources on Education

9.0 Introduction

In this chapter the socio-economic situation bobtianing in the sample households is studied in the context of itd impact on females' education. The subject matter of the chapter includes: main source of income of the households; gender's occupations; gender's place of work; annual income annual expenditure genders' controlling of home accounts; reasons for men controlling the family account's, gender's employment; gender and education expenditure; gender's socio-economic status; micro-finance loans; reasons for not utilizing micro-finance loans; poverty's impact on education; main reasons of poverty; measures to overcome poverty; perceptions on measure to improve female literacy, etc.

9.1 Poverty in Pakistan

In 1990, more than 1.2 billion people - 28 per cent of the developing world's population - lived in extreme poverty. By 2002, the proportion decreased to 19 per cent. During that period, rates of extreme poverty fell rapidly in much of Asia, where the number of people living on less than $1 a day dropped by nearly a quarter of a billion people. Progress was not so rapid in Latin America and the Caribbean, which now has a larger share of people living in poverty than South-Eastern Asia and Oceania. Poverty rates in Western Asia and Northern Africa remained almost unchanged between 1990 and 2002 and increased in the transition economies of South-Eastern Europe and the Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS). These two regions had previously nearly eradicated the worst forms of poverty, and recent survey data suggest that their poverty rates are again dropping. In sub-Saharan Africa, although the poverty rate declined marginally, the number of people living in extreme poverty increased by 140 million. Many sub-Saharan countries are now showing potential for long-term growth that could bring up standards of living (UNDP, 2006).

Most of the rhetoric and tall claims made by the Pakistan government about poverty alleviation, improvement in economic conditions and recovery of defaulted loans appeared hollow as the number of people living below the poverty level has increased considerably since 1999. It is due to the several reasons; including weak governance, political uncertainty, law and order and macro-economic constraints. Poverty level in 1999 was estimated at 32.2 per cent (with 36.3 per cent in rural areas and 22.6 per cent in urban areas). The ADB report noted that rural poverty was now about 40 per cent hence the number of people living below the poverty line has further increased since 1999.

The 2008-09 Economic Survey reveals that 18 per cent currency devaluation, high imported inflation, particularly in case of food and fuel, supplemented with monetary expansion were the main factors behind the rise in poverty levels in Pakistan. Both the Planning Commission and Finance Ministry are at the loggerheads over poverty figures. According to Economic Survey, headcount ratio decreased marginally from 23.94 percent in 2004-05 to 22.32 percent in 2005-06. The Federal Bureau of Statistics (FBS) has already furnished the results of Pakistan Living Standards Measurement Survey (PSLM) 2007-08 to the Centre for Research on Poverty and Income Distribution (CRPRID) analysis, which will be available in due course, will determine the direction of change in poverty incidence, the quantum of change and quintile based consumption pattern. During 2008-09, the government took various initiatives to combat poverty, which included Pakistan Poverty Alleviation Fund (PPLF), micro finance SME operations, Benazir Income Support Programme (BISP), Peoples Works Programme, Pakistan Bait-ul-Mal and the Punjab government's initiatives, including tractor subsidy, Sasti Roti and Punjab food support scheme.

These initiatives provided some support to the poor, enhanced absolute per capita income, net per capita income and widened the scope of earning livelihood.

9.2 Activity status of respondents

There were great variations in genders' employment status, like their literacy and education status. Approximately half of the men, other than the farmers and students and 91% women -other than housewives and students, were not employed. This was a big burden on the economy of the households. The percentages of non- working respondents amongst both genders were found to be increasing from central to the peripheral zones as shown in table- 9.1 and 9.2 respectively.

Table-9.1 Hazara, Zone wiseGents Employment other than Students/Farmers[a].

Gents Employment other than Students/Farmers		Zonal Distribution			Total
		Central	*Intermediate*	*Peripheral*	
Yes	Count	288	363	346	997
	%	*72.0%*	*45.4%*	*43.3%*	*49.9%*
No	Count	112	437	454	1003
	%	28.0%	54.6%	56.8%	50.2%
Total	Count	400	800	800	2000
	%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

a. Source: Field Survey, 2006.

Table-9.2 Hazara, Zone wise Ladies Employment other than Students/Housewives[a].

Ladies Employment other than Students/Housewives		Zonal Distribution			Total
		Central	*Intermediate*	*Peripheral*	
Yes	Count	98	49	16	163
	%	24.5%	6.1%	2.0%	8.2%
No	Count	302	751	784	1837
	%	*75.5%*	*93.9%*	*98.0%*	*91.9%*
Total	Count	400	800	800	2000
	%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

a. Source: Field Survey, 2006.

9.2.1 Occupation

Amongst the female respondents only about16% were gainfully employed; including13% on government jobs. The corresponding figure for the male respondents was 97%, agriculture, government service, casual labour, and business accounted for bulk of them in that order as shown in Table 9.3.

In so far as the individual districts are concerned, all the females were Housewives in Kohistan and Batagram, while the corresponding figures were

91.2% in Mansehra, 82.4% in Haripur and 71.2% in Abbottabad respectively; as shown in annexure table-9.1.

Table-9.3 Hazara, Gender and Zone wise Respondent's Occupations.

Gender	Occupation		Zonal Distribution			Total
			Central	Intermediate	Peripheral	
Female	Unemployed	Count	0	0	4	4
		%	.0%	.0%	1.1%	.4%
	House Wife	Count	133	367	334	834
		%	60.2%	87.2%	94.9%	83.9%
	Labour	Count	4	3	0	7
		%	1.8%	.7%	.0%	.7%
	Govt. Servant	Count	59	41	12	112
		%	26.7%	9.7%	3.4%	11.3%
	Private Servant	Count	23	10	0	33
		%	10.4%	2.4%	.0%	3.3%
	Businessman	Count	0	0	2	2
		%	.0%	.0%	.6%	.2%
	Student	Count	2	0	0	2
		%	.9%	.0%	.0%	.2%
	Total	Count	221	421	352	994
		%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Male	Unemployed	Count	0	6	10	16
		%	.0%	1.6%	2.2%	1.6%
	Agriculturist	Count	0	115	189	304
		%	.0%	30.3%	42.2%	30.2%
	Labour	Count	35	85	62	182
		%	19.6%	22.4%	13.8%	18.1%
	Govt. Servant	Count	73	90	96	259
		%	40.8%	23.7%	21.4%	25.7%
	Private Servant	Count	29	35	24	88
		%	16.2%	9.2%	5.4%	8.7%
	Businessman	Count	40	34	40	114
		%	22.3%	9.0%	8.9%	11.3%
	Student	Count	0	6	5	11
		%	.0%	1.6%	1.1%	1.1%
	Rearing	Count	2	8	22	32
		%	1.1%	2.1%	4.9%	3.2%
	Total	Count	179	379	448	1006
		%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

a. Source: Field Survey, 2006.

9.2.2 Genders' place of work

The highest percentage amongst the women; was of the Housewives, who were not employed anywhere. Their percentage was increased from central to the peripheral zone like that of their illiteracy rate. After Housewives, there was

the significant percentage of locally employed women, which was decreased from central to the peripheral zone like that of their literacy and education. A small proportion of women was also employed 'Within District' and 'Within Country'. The highest percentage of the male employees was locally employed; followed by 'Within District'. A small percentage of male was also employed 'Within Province'; 'Within Country'; and even in 'Foreign' as shown in table-9.4.

Table-9.4 Hazara, Gender and Zone wise Respondent's Place of Work.

Gender	Place of Work		Zonal Distribution			Total
			Central	*Intermediate*	*Peripheral*	
Female	*Local*	Count	87	90	52	229
		%	100.0%	84.9%	83.8%	89.8%
	Within District	Count	0	16	8	24
		%	.0%	15.1%	13.0%	9.4%
	Within Country	Count	0	0	2	2
		%	.0%	.0%	3.2%	.8%
	Total	Count	87	106	62	255
		%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Male	*Local*	Count	133	249	337	719
		%	74.7%	70.1%	77.3%	74.2%
	Within District	Count	24	45	58	127
		%	13.4%	12.7%	12.9%	13.1%
	Within Province	Count	9	19	15	43
		%	5.0%	5.4%	3.3%	4.3%
	Within Country	Count	9	32	24	65
		%	5.0%	9.0%	5.4%	6.5%
	Foreign	Count	3	10	2	15
		%	1.7%	2.8%	.4%	1.5%
	Total	Count	178	355	436	969
		%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

a. Source: Field Survey, 2006.

9.3 Main source of income

The sources of income of the respondents were found fairly diversified, with no single source emerging as the major source. Agriculture and livestock rearing accounted for main source of income of some 32% respondents followed closely by the Service Sector (government and private sector jobs) with 32%. Casual labour was reported as being the main source of income by 22% and Business by 12% respondents respectively.

The individual zone wise corresponding figures show a marked departure from the overall averages and for quite understandable reasons. In the Central zone, which has relatively more developed non-agricultural sector and is also relatively more urbanised than the other zones, the Service Sector is seen being the main source of income of about 51% respondents followed by 'Labour' and Business' with 23% and 18%. In the Intermediate zone, no single source was found a clear leader in this respect. Thus, as will be seen in Table 9.7, Service Sector (32%) followed by the Agriculture Sector (28%) and 'Labour' (24%) taken together were the main sources of income of 84% of the sample households there. In the Peripheral zone, the Agriculture Sector was the main source of income of about 53% respondents, followed by Service (23%) and Labour (19%).

The comparative data on main sources of income in different zones show a definite pattern in respect of distribution of sources. Thus, as will be seen in Table 9.5, the share of Agriculture increases progressively from Central to Intermediate to Peripheral zones, while the declining tendency is observed in respect of corresponding data on Service, Business, and the Labour sectors.

Table-9.5 Hazara, Zone wise Main Source of Income of the Households.[a]

Main Source of Income		Development Stage			Total
		Central	*Intermediate*	*Peripheral*	
Agriculture/ Rearing	Count	24	224	422	670
	%	6.0%	28.0%	52.8%	33.5%
Service	Count	202	260	182	644
	%	50.5%	32.5%	22.8%	32.2%
Business	Count	72	112	64	248
	%	18.0%	14.0%	8.0%	12.4%
Labour	Count	92	194	118	404
	%	23.0%	24.3%	14.8%	20.2%
Other	Count	10	10	14	34
	%	2.5%	1.3%	1.8%	1.7%
Total	Count	400	800	800	2000
	%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

a. Source: Field Survey, 2006.

9.3.1 Annual Income

The question on households' annual income was not answered by as many as 860 respondents. The non responding respondents were mostly women, who were jobless and/ or those who did not know or did not like to tell about their households' income; or in all probability took the question about household income as being about their personal income, which they didn't have and so did not report. Nevertheless the income data provided by the1140 respondents , as given in Table 9.6, can be taken as a good proxy for the non-responding respondents, and do serve as a fair approximation to the real state of things in this respect, with, however, the reservation that in all probability the data may erring on the lower side, though not materially. The income profile of the sample households as given in Table 9.6 is on the whole the profile of a population characterised by extreme poverty. Thus, as will be seen in Table 9.6, only 16% of the sample households had annual income of Rs 100,000 or more, while as many as 56.5% of them had income of below Rs. 50,000/ year, which is below the poverty line. A substantial proportion,19.8%, got below Rs. 19,000, which is a pitiably low level, and raises doubt as to the fact that probably, they under-reported their income. In the top income bracket of Rs. 500,000-1,000,000 there are only 8 households accounting for only about two percent of the income reporting respondents. Thus, the overall profile of the sample population is one of a predominantly poor people .This much about the households in the three surveyed zones taken as a whole.

The corresponding data about the three zones taken individually departs in pattern from the overall average, but not materially. In the Central Zone, the below Rs 50,000/ annual income households were fewer (34%) than in the Intermediate zone (64%) and the Peripheral (64%). Income disparities were quite wide in all zones, but these were relatively less in the Central zone than the other two. The pattern is consistent with the corresponding situation in respect of level of development of the three zones taken separately. The central one is comparatively more developed and diversified economically.

Table-9.6 Hazara, Zone wise Annual Income of the Respondents' Households

Annual Income in Rs. (000).		Zonal Distribution			Total
		Central	Intermediate	Peripheral	
<19	Count	36	66	124	226
	%	13.6%	15.5%	27.7%	19.8%
20-29	Count	15	70	57	142
	%	5.7%	16.4%	12.7%	12.5%
30-39	Count	23	90	38	151
	%	8.7%	21.1%	8.5%	13.2%
40-49	Count	17	41	67	125
	%	6.4%	9.6%	15.0%	11.0%
50-59	Count	46	46	62	154
	%	17.4%	10.8%	13.8%	13.5%
60-69	Count	19	14	23	56
	%	7.2%	3.3%	5.1%	4.9%
70-79	Count	21	22	30	73
	%	7.9%	5.2%	6.7%	6.4%
80-89	Count	30	42	19	91
	%	11.3%	9.8%	4.2%	8.0%
90-99	Count	10	14	8	32
	%	3.8%	3.3%	1.8%	2.8%
100-199	Count	40	12	10	62
	%	15.1%	2.8%	2.2%	5.4%
200-499	Count	8	2	0	10
	%	3.0%	.5%	.0%	.9%
500-1000	Count	0	8	10	18
	%	.0%	1.9%	2.2%	1.6%
Total	Count	265	427	448	1140
	%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

a. Source: Field Survey, 2006.

Table-9.7 Hazara Regin, Paired Samples Correlations[a].

Pairs		N	Correlation	Sig.
Pair 1	Zonal Distribution & Literacy	2000	-.389	.000
Pair 2	Zonal Distribution & Annual Income in Rs.(000)	2000	-.172	.000
Pair 3	Literacy & Annual Income in Rs.(000)	2000	.370	.000

a. Source: Field Survey, 2006.

9.3.2 Major expenditure

Food claimed the largest proportion (58%) of the total household expenditure, followed by education (14%) and clothing (8.5%) in the three surveyed zones taken as a whole. Also in the three zones taken individually, food claimed the

largest share in every zone. The distribution of budget over rest of the items as shown in Table 9.6 was, however, different from the overall pattern and differed from zone to zone.

Of particular interest to this study is the proportion of the total budget claimed by education. It was, as stated above, 14% in all the 2000 sample households taken as a whole. The proportion was the highest (25.5%), in the Central Zone (the relatively most developed one) , declined to 16% in the Intermediate zone and to 6.3% in the Peripheral Zone, which bear the same comparison in respect of the level of overall development.

A noteworthy, but not a healthy feature, of household expenditure is the claim of Litigation and Health on the household budget. In the Peripheral Zone, these two components of the family budget accounted for 7.3% and 6.3% respectively. The corresponding figures for the Intermediate zone are 12.8% and 16% respectively .The cause apparent for this pattern is the correspondingly low level of literacy and education in these zones as compared to the central one. It would also be an equally tenable proposition that relatively lower literacy level is partially attributable to a relatively higher expenditure on litigation and health which do not leave enough for the educational needs of the sample population.

Table-9.8 Hazara, Zone wise Main Expenditures of the Households[a].

Main Expenditure on:		Zonal Distribution			Total
		Central	*Intermediate*	*Peripheral*	
Ration	Count	208	452	462	1122
	%	*52.0%*	*56.5%*	*57.8%*	*56.1%*
Clothing	Count	37	68	64	169
	%	9.3%	8.5%	8.0%	8.5%
Shelter	Count	10	36	96	142
	%	2.5%	4.5%	*12.0%*	7.1%
Education	Count	102	128	50	280
	%	*25.5%*	*16.0%*	*6.3%*	*14.0%*
Litigation	Count	6	36	58	100
	%	1.5%	4.5%	7.3%	5.0%
Disease	Count	24	66	68	158
	%	6.0%	8.3%	8.5%	7.9%
Utility Bills	Count	13	14	2	29
	%	3.3%	1.8%	.3%	1.5%
Total	Count	400	800	800	2000
	%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

a. Source: Field Survey, 2006.

9.3.3 Annual Expenditure

The average annual expenditure of the 1152 expenditure reporting respondents is shown in Table 9.9. The pattern is consistent with the corresponding data on income given in table 9.6. Only 56% respondents in the Central Zone reported annual expenditure of over rupees 50,000. The corresponding figures for the Intermediate and Peripheral zones are 32% and 34% respectively.

Table-9.9 Hazara, Zone wise Annual Expenditure of the Respondents' Households.

Annual Expenditure in Rs.(000)		Zonal Distribution			Total
		Central	Intermediate	Peripheral	
<19	Count	36	76	108	220
	%	13.3%	17.7%	23.6%	19.0%
20-29	Count	28	94	71	193
	%	10.4%	22.0%	15.5%	16.7%
30-39	Count	29	72	52	153
	%	10.7%	16.8%	11.4%	13.2%
40-49	Count	25	54	69	148
	%	9.2%	12.6%	15.1%	12.8%
50-59	Count	33	61	62	156
	%	12.2%	14.2%	13.5%	13.5%
60-69	Count	22	18	29	69
	%	8.1%	4.2%	6.3%	5.9%
70-79	Count	33	20	22	75
	%	12.2%	4.6%	4.8%	6.5%
80-89	Count	23	14	19	56
	%	8.5%	3.2%	4.1%	4.8%
90-99	Count	12	10	10	32
	%	4.4%	2.3%	2.1%	2.7%
100-199	Count	22	8	4	34
	%	8.1%	1.8%	.8%	2.9%
200-499	Count	6	0	8	14
	%	2.2%	.0%	1.7%	1.2%
500-1000	Count	0	0	2	2
	%	.0%	.0%	.4%	.1%
Total	Count	269	427	456	1152
	%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

a. Source: Field Survey, 2006.

9.4 Control of home accounts

Generally, women are thought to be more responsible than men in management of household budget in Pakistan and also in Hazara region. But, contrary to this widespread and commonplace perception, majority of the respondents reported that mostly the men controlled the budgets in the sample households. This holds true for the three zones taken as whole with the corresponding figure of 80% and also for the three zones taken individually (Table 9.10). The highest figure for men controlling the household budgets was reported in Peripheral zone (88.5%), followed by the Intermediate zone with almost 79% and the Central Zone with 64%. A definite pattern, as also seen before, is observable in the relative placing of the three zones in terms of

level of development and the level dominance of men. The men are more dominant in the relatively less developed zones.

Table-9.10 Hazara, Zone wise Controller of Accounts at Home[a].

Controller of Accounts at Home.			Zonal Distribution			Total
			Central	*Intermediate*	*Peripheral*	
	Gent	Count	256	631	708	1595
		%	64.0%	78.9%	88.5%	79.8%
	Lady	Count	144	169	92	405
		%	*36.0%*	*21.1%*	*11.5%*	*20.3%*
Total		Count	400	800	800	2000
		%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

[a]. Source: Field Survey, 2006.

9.4.1 Perceptions on why mostly men control household budget?

The respondents' replies to the question under study are given in Table 9.11 from which it emerges that no single factor claims the majority view. The dominant reasons, as given by the respondents-both men and women, are that men are household heads (24%), they are (better) educated (15%) – the implicit comparison is with the womenfolk, they are more responsible (14.5%), and they are the bread winners (18%). It is notable that men's superiority in education over women constitutes a solid reason for men's dominant role in household budget control, by the respondents' perception.

Table-9.11 Hazara, Zone wise Reasons forGernts Holding Accounts at Home.

Reasons		Zonal Distribution			Total
		Central	Intermediate	Peripheral	
Head of the Household	Count	36	177	260	473
	%	14.1%	27.6%	35.9%	29.2%
Educated Males	Count	42	154	106	302
	%	16.5%	24.1%	14.6%	18.6%
More Responsible	Count	54	84	152	290
	%	21.3%	13.1%	20.9%	17.9%
Male Earns	Count	76	150	136	362
	%	29.9%	23.4%	18.7%	22.3%
More Mobile	Count	12	36	24	72
	%	4.7%	5.6%	3.3%	4.4%
Female Expend more	Count	28	18	28	74
	%	11.0%	2.8%	3.8%	4.5%
Regional Custom	Count	6	20	18	44
	%	2.3%	3.1%	2.4%	2.7%
Total	Count	254	639	724	1617
	%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

a. Source: Field Survey, 2006.

9.4.2 Education expenditure of boys and girls

The boys claimed more money than did the girls for their education. Thus, as will be seen in Table 9.12, as many as 31% of households did not spend anything on their girls education, while the corresponding figure for boys is16.7% (table 9.14).

A comparative study of Tables 9.12 and 9.14 shows that while as many as 24% girls claimed <Rs 100/ month for education, the corresponding figure for boys in this bracket is12.8%. In the next higher bracket of Rs.101-200 the corresponding figures are 12% (girls) and 15.2% (boys) and as the amount of outlays increases on education the representation of girls becomes less and less and of the boys increases.

A higher proportion of girls, as compared to boys, not claiming any expenditure for education is mainly explained by the fact that poor parents send their daughters to free government schools as they cannot afford the schools where fee is charged or the fee is high. In the case of boys, too, this constraint is there, but parents try in the first instance that their sons go to

good schools and would send them to free or cheap poor graded schools only if forced by poverty.

Boys claim more money than girls from their parents for education, because of the prevalent gender bias, favouring the son than the daughter in every matter, and also possibly for the reason that boys go to schools at a longer distance as compared with the girls. That entails spending on transport, in school snacks, and also hostel expenses as more boys than the girls were studying outside their villages/ towns in the sample households.

Table-9.12 Hazara, Zone Wise Expenditure of the Households on Girl's Education.

Expenditure on Girl's Education		Zonal Distribution			Total
		Central	*Intermediate*	*Peripheral*	
<Rs. 100	Count	26	225	237	488
	%	*6.5%*	*28.1%*	*29.6%*	*24.4%*
Rs.101-200	Count	36	128	77	241
	%	9.0%	16.0%	9.6%	12.1%
Rs.201-500	Count	80	111	90	281
	%	*20.0%*	*13.9%*	*11.3%*	*14.1%*
Rs. 501-1000	Count	64	56	12	132
	%	16.0%	7.0%	1.5%	6.6%
Rs.1001-2000	Count	54	14	6	74
	%	13.5%	1.8%	.8%	3.7%
Rs.2001-5000	Count	34	10	0	44
	%	8.5%	1.3%	.0%	2.2%
> Rs.5000	Count	24	20	28	72
	%	6.0%	2.5%	3.5%	3.6%
Nil	Count	68	212	342	622
	%	*17.0%*	*26.5%*	*42.8%*	*31.1%*
Total	Count	386	776	792	1954
	%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

a. Source: Field Survey, 2006.

Table-9.13 Hazara Regin, Paired Samples Correlations[a].

Pairs		N	Correlation	Sig.
Pair 1	Zonal Distribution & Literacy	2000	-.389	.000
Pair 2	Zonal Distribution & Expenditure on Girl's Education	2000	.109	.000
Pair 3	Literacy & Expenditure on Girl's Education	2000	-.190	.000

a. Source: Field Survey, 2006.

Table-9.14 Hazara, Zone Wise Expenditure of the Households on Boy's Education.[a]

Expenditure on Boy's Education.		Zonal Distribution			Total
		Central	Intermediate	Peripheral	
<Rs.100	Count	14	122	120	256
	%	3.5%	15.3%	15.0%	12.8%
Rs100-200	Count	32	122	150	304
	%	8.0%	15.3%	18.8%	15.2%
Rs. 201-500	Count	58	199	164	421
	%	14.5%	24.9%	20.5%	21.1%
Rs. 501-1000	Count	84	106	122	312
	%	21.0%	13.3%	15.3%	15.6%
1001-2000	Count	82	88	24	194
	%	20.5%	11.0%	3.0%	9.7%
2001-5000	Count	62	26	16	104
	%	15.5%	3.3%	2.0%	5.2%
>5000	Count	20	8	2	30
	%	5.0%	1.0%	.3%	1.5%
nil	Count	40	104	190	334
	%	10.0%	13.0%	23.8%	16.7%
Total	Count	392	775	788	1955
	%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

a. Source: Field Survey, 2006.

Table-9.15 Hazara Regin, Paired Samples Correlations[a].

		N	Correlation	Sig.
Pair 1	Zonal Distribution & Literacy	2000	-.389	.000
Pair 2	Zonal Distribution & Expenditure on Boy's Education	2000	-.072	.001
Pair 3	Literacy & Expenditure on Boy's Education	2000	-.018	.420

a. Source: Field Survey, 2006.

9.5 Respondents' perceptions of their socio-economic status

The respondents were asked about perception of their economic status. In the three zones taken as a whole, most of them (57%) perceived themselves to be Poor, followed by 41% placing themselves in the Middle Class, while only 2% placed themselves in the category of 'Rich' people.

In the Central zone, the Middle Class respondents preponderated with the figure of 63%, while in the Intermediate and the Peripheral zones, the Poor category held this position with 60% and 67% respectively. The overall perceptions of the respondents as given in Table 9.16 are in conformity with the commonplace knowledge, their income data, and the general observations made during the survey. As will be seen in table 9.17, there is observed a positive correlation (.332) between the respondents' perception as to their socio-economic class and the literacy level. The correlation is, however, weak.

Table-9.16 Hazara, Zone Wise Socio-Economic Status of the Households.[a]

Socio-Economic Status		Zonal Distribution			Total
		Central	*Intermediate*	*Peripheral*	
Poor	Count	124	483	536	1143
	%	*31.0%*	*60.4%*	*67.0%*	*57.2%*
Middle Class	Count	254	305	258	817
	%	*63.5%*	*38.1%*	*32.3%*	*40.9%*
Rich	Count	22	12	6	40
	%	5.5%	1.5%	.8%	2.0%
Total	Count	400	800	800	2000
	%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

a. Source: Field Survey, 2006.

Table-9.17 Hazara Regin, Paired Samples Correlations[a].

Pairs		N	Correlation	Sig.
Pair 1	Zonal Distribution & Literacy	2000	-.389	.000
Pair 2	Zonal Distribution & Socio-Economic Status	2000	-.259	.000
Pair 3	Literacy & Socio-Economic Status	2000	.332	.000

a. Source: Field Survey, 2006.

9.5.1 Micro-finance loans

Only 38 male and14 female respondents out of the total of 2000 stated that they had been utilising the facility of micro-finance. They were using this source of finance for operating small enterprises.

Table-9.18 Hazara, Zone Wise Males with Micro-Finance Loans.

Males with Micro-Finance Loans.		Zonal Distribution			Total
		Central	*Intermediate*	*Peripheral*	
Yes	Count	8	10	20	38
	%	2.0%	1.3%	2.5%	1.9%
No	Count	392	790	780	1962
	%	98.0%	98.8%	97.5%	98.1%
Total	Count	400	800	800	2000
	%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

a. Source: Field Survey, 2006.

9.5.2 Reasons for not utilizing micro-finance loans

Quite a few factors were mentioned by the respondents for not resorting to micro finance, although this is a much publicised facility. The most mentioned reasons are: lack of awareness about this facility, high mark up, and lack of access to the facility, which between them account for 68% respondents. This kind of loan was not looked for by some 11% respondents as they thought it was difficult to return while 10% stated that they did not need it. Infact the poor peple of both gendes were not having knowlegde due to lack of literacy and education to get access to these micro finance loans.

Table-9.19 Hazara, Zone Wise Reasons for not Utilizing Micro-Finance Loans.

Reasons for not Utilizing Micro-Finance Loans		Zonal Distribution			Total
		Central	Intermediate	Peripheral	
No Access	Count	34	143	222	399
	%	8.5%	17.9%	27.8%	20.0%
No Tendancy	Count	34	62	58	154
	%	8.5%	7.8%	7.3%	7.7%
No Awareness	Count	70	204	232	506
	%	17.5%	25.5%	29.0%	25.3%
High Mark up	Count	88	196	164	448
	%	22.0%	24.5%	20.5%	22.4%
Due to Service	Count	26	18	18	62
	%	6.5%	2.3%	2.3%	3.1%
No Need	Count	80	72	48	200
	%	20.0%	9.0%	6.0%	10.0%
Difficult to return	Count	68	103	56	227
	%	17.0%	12.9%	7.0%	11.4%
Other	Count	0	2	2	4
	%	.0%	.3%	.3%	.2%
Total	Count	400	800	800	2000
	%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

a. Source: Field Survey, 2006.

9.6 Perceptions on impact of poverty on education

The overwhelming majority (76%) of the respondents in the three zones, taken as a whole, was of the opinion that poverty had a negative impact on female education. Also in the three zones taken separately, that was the majority view differing; however. in degree. The corresponding figure for the relatively more developed Central zone is 53%, while it is the highest (87%) in the Peripheral and about 77% in the Intermediate Zone as can be seen in Table 9.20.

Table-9.20 Hazara, Zone Wise Poverty Effect on Female Education.

Poverty affects Education		Zonal Distribution			Total
		Central	Intermediate	Peripheral	
Yes	Count	212	614	696	1522
	%	53.0%	76.8%	87.0%	76.1%
No	Count	188	186	104	478
	%	47.0%	23.3%	13.0%	23.9%
Total	Count	400	800	800	2000
	%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

a. Source: Field Survey, 2006.

9.6.1 Main causes of poverty

What are the main causes of poverty? This question was addressed to the respondents, who had expressed the view that poverty impacted negatively female education in their area. The response to this question is tabulated in table 9.21. Unemployment was mentioned in this context by some 34% respondents in the three surveyed zones taken as a while. The other factors – which may better be called the poverty accentuating factors, given by the respondents are: lack of education (18.7%), lack of resources, which to fall back on in the absence of jobs, accounting for 21% respondents; 'many dependents' 19% and Dearness i.e., inflation pointed out by 7% respondents.

The response pattern from Central to the Peripheral Zones is close to the overall pattern with slight difference of degree. In the Central Zone, 'Unemployment' is not the major factor but is only second to what the respondents described as 'Lack of Resources' (table 9.21).

Table-9.21 Hazara, Zone Wise Main Reasons of Poverty[a].

Main Reasons of Poverty		Zonal Distribution			Total
		Central	*Intermediate*	*Peripheral*	
Unemployment	Count	56	261	220	537
	%	*25.0%*	*40.7%*	*31.4%*	*34.4%*
Lack of Education	Count	46	129	116	291
	%	*21.0%*	*16.1%*	*16.6%*	*18.7%*
Lack of Resources	Count	58	118	146	322
	%	*26.0%*	*20.0%*	*20.8%*	*20.6%*
Dearness	Count	26	36	47	109
	%	11.5%	6.5%	7.5%	7.0%
Many dependents	Count	32	98	171	301
	%	14.0%	14.4%	*24.4%*	*19.3%*
Total	Count	218	642	700	1560
	%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

a. Source: Field Survey, 2006.

9.6.2 Measures to overcome poverty

The respondents were asked for their views on the measures to overcome the problem of poverty. While most of them suggested some specific measures such as providing jobs (25%), developing agriculture in the area (13 %), local development (20%) or alternatively called the Area Development Program through participatory approach, and self help approach (11%), a good 20%

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		Central	*Intermediate*	*Peripheral*	
Unemployment	Count	56	261	220	537
	%	*25.0%*	*40.7%*	*31.4%*	*34.4%*
Lack of Education	Count	46	129	116	291
	%	*21.0%*	*16.1%*	*16.6%*	*18.7%*
Lack of Resources	Count	58	118	146	322
	%	*26.0%*	*20.0%*	*20.8%*	*20.6%*
Dearness	Count	26	36	47	109
	%	11.5%	6.5%	7.5%	7.0%
Many dependents	Count	32	98	171	301
	%	14.0%	14.4%	*24.4%*	*19.3%*
Total	Count	218	642	700	1560
	%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

a. Source: Field Survey, 2006.

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respondents pointed out the need for educational development as the panacea for poverty (Table-22). This recommendation-educational development, is consistent with the views on causes of poverty, as reported in Table 9.21, and is a manifestation of people's awareness as to the utility of education. This much about the three zones taken as a whole.

The views of the respondents, in the present context, in the Intermediate zone and the Peripheral were quite close the overall average as reported above. In the central zone, however, agricultural development and the development of local resources were relatively less emphasised than in the other two zones, but in this zone, too, the main emphasis was on provision of direct employment, and educational development as in the other two zones.

Table-9.22 Hazara, Zone Wise Measures to Overcome Poverty[a].

Measures to Overcome Poverty		Zonal Distribution			Total
		Central	Intermediate	Peripheral	
Provision of Employment	Count	80	191	196	467
	%	25.3%	24.5%	26.4%	25.4%
Agricultural Development	Count	8	108	130	246
	%	2.5%	13.8%	17.5%	13.3%
Development of Local Resources	Count	47	166	158	371
	%	14.8%	21.3%	21.2%	20.2%
Educational Development	Count	66	153	146	365
	%	20.8%	19.6%	19.6%	19.8%
Self Help	Count	54	90	58	202
	%	17.0%	11.5%	7.8%	11.0%
By Avoiding Useless Rituales	Count	22	28	14	64
	%	6.9%	3.5%	1.8%	3.4%
By Reducing Expenditure	Count	11	24	18	53
	%	3.4%	3.0%	2.3%	2.8%
By Part Time Jobs	Count	24	18	20	62
	%	7.5%	2.3%	2.5%	3.3%
Foreign Exchange	Count	4	0	2	6
	%	1.2%	.0%	.3%	.3%
Total	Count	316	778	742	1836
	%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

a. Source: Field Survey, 2006.

9.7 Perceptions on main causes of low literacy

What are the main causes of low literacy amongst women in the Hazara region? The resulting response to this question is given in Table 9.23. It is

interesting to note that while majority of the respondents thought that poverty adversely impacted education, as reported in Table 9.20, this factor-poverty, though given by the single largest group of respondents, is not singled out as the major factor by the majority of them; only about 18% mentioned it. As many as ten factors, including poverty, were identified by the respondents and most of these weigh more or less equal in importance. Broadly speaking, poverty, customary bias against female's education, illiteracy/ignorance of parents, and lack of educational facilities appropriate for women are the major factors responsible for low literacy amongst females, as perceived by the sample respondents. This was the situation in the five surveyed districts taken as a whole.

Table-9.23 Hazara, Zone wise Main Reasons of Low Literacy Amongst Women.

Main Reasons of Low Literacy Amongst Women		Zonal Distribution			Total
		Central	Intermediate	Peripheral	
Poverty	Count	57	135	144	336
	%	14.3%	16.9%	18.0%	16.8%
Many Dependents	Count	23	129	50	202
	%	5.8%	16.1%	6.3%	10.1%
No Custom/ Social Attitude	Count	46	101	99	246
	%	11.5%	12.6%	12.4%	12.3%
Illiterate Parent	Count	35	100	109	244
	%	8.8%	12.5%	13.6%	12.2%
No Access	Count	23	85	139	247
	%	5.8%	10.6%	17.4%	12.4%
Irresponcibility of the Gents	Count	48	61	40	149
	%	12.0%	7.6%	5.0%	7.5%
Gender Discrimination	Count	46	98	118	262
	%	11.5%	12.3%	14.8%	13.1%
No Protection	Count	66	47	16	129
	%	16.5%	5.9%	2.0%	6.5%
Non Local Teachers	Count	18	31	50	99
	%	4.5%	3.9%	6.3%	5.0%
Home task Priority	Count	38	13	35	86
	%	9.5%	1.6%	4.4%	4.3%
Total	Count	400	800	800	2000
	%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

a. Source: Field Survey, 2006.

In the five surveyed districts taken individually the response pattern is broadly the same as described above, except that in Batagram and Kohistan districts,

which are far lying areas, poverty, customary barriers, and lack of educational facilities for females are more frequently mentioned than in the surveyed zones taken as a whole and the other three districts.

The respondents views as given in Table 9.24 and described above; suggest that while no single factor can be held responsible for the phenomenon under analysis, similarly no single remedial measure would solve it. The problem is multi-facial and accordingly the problem solving approaches have to be multi-pronged, as well as multi- dimensional in terms of time and strategy, as will be discussed in some detail in a later section.

Table-9.24 Hazara, District wise Main Reasons of Low Literacy Amongst Women.

Main Reasons of Low Literacy Amongst Women		Districts					Total
		01	02	03	04	05	
Poverty	Count	66	85	92	35	58	336
	%	16.5%	17.0%	13.9%	19.4%	22.3%	16.8%
Many Dependents	Count	52	52	90	5	3	202
	%	13.0%	10.4%	13.6%	2.8%	1.2%	10.1%
No Custom/ Social Attitude	Count	29	44	101	31	41	246
	%	7.3%	8.8%	15.3%	17.2%	15.8%	12.3%
Illiterate Parent	Count	52	63	82	12	35	244
	%	13.0%	12.6%	12.4%	6.7%	13.5%	12.2%
No Access	Count	46	57	72	32	40	247
	%	11.5%	11.4%	10.9%	17.8%	15.4%	12.4%
Irresponcibility of the Gents	Count	59	64	17	6	3	149
	%	14.8%	12.8%	2.6%	3.3%	1.2%	7.5%
Gender Discrimination	Count	43	56	90	27	46	262
	%	10.8%	11.2%	13.6%	15.0%	17.7%	13.1%
No Protection	Count	18	39	69	3	0	129
	%	4.5%	7.8%	10.5%	1.7%	.0%	6.5%
Non Local Teachers	Count	16	7	28	17	31	99
	%	4.0%	1.4%	4.2%	9.4%	11.9%	5.0%
Home task Priority	Count	19	33	19	12	3	86
	%	4.8%	6.6%	2.9%	6.7%	1.2%	4.3%
Total	Count	400	500	660	180	260	2000
	%	100.0%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100.0%

a. Source: Field Survey, 2006.

9.7.1 Perceptions on measures to enhance female literacy

The measures, recommended by the respondents, to enhance female literacy are given in Table 9.25. In so far as the three zones as a whole are concerned, the major emphasis is on (i) providing more and better schools,

equipped with proper facilities and staff, (ii) raising parents' literacy level as well as motivating them in favour of female education, and (iii) providing free schooling. Those recommending these measures account for about 80% of the total respondents. It is noteworthy that the emphasis on free education is not on top of the recommended measures. On the contrary, it is on improving availability of education and removing social barriers to availing it by the women. Financial factor is important but not the most important one in respondents view in the present context, as can be seen in table 9.25. This has important policy implications for planning for literacy improvement in the target area.

The views of the respondents in the three surveyed zones, considered individually, are more or less alike and in conformity with the overall view presented above for the surveyed areas taken as a whole. In the central zone, however, literacy awareness programs, availability of allied facilities for the schools, free education for all are recommended or more emphasized than in the Intermediate and the Peripheral zones. But the overall pattern of recommendations is not materially different in the three zones.

Table-9.25 Hazara, Zone Wise Measures to Enhance the Literacy Rate Amongst Women.

Measures to Enhance the Literacy Rate Amongst Women		Zonal Distribution			Total
		Central	Intermediate	Peripheral	
Remove Gender Prejudice	Count	26	32	42	100
	%	6.5%	4.0%	5.3%	5.0%
Accessible Female Schools at all levels	Count	66	190	220	476
	%	16.5%	23.8%	27.5%	23.8%
Local Teachers	Count	12	44	74	130
	%	3.0%	5.5%	9.3%	6.5%
More Incentives for Parent	Count	8	10	16	34
	%	2.0%	1.3%	2.0%	1.7%
Literacy Awareness Programmes	Count	82	142	124	348
	%	20.5%	17.8%	15.5%	17.4%
Raise Parent's Literacy	Count	54	165	116	335
	%	13.5%	20.6%	14.5%	16.8%
Availability of Allied Facilities in Schools	Count	66	86	72	224
	%	16.5%	10.8%	9.0%	11.2%
Complete Free of Cost Education for all	Count	48	48	84	180
	%	12.0%	6.0%	10.5%	9.0%
Construction of free Model Schools with Boarding	Count	18	26	12	56
	%	4.5%	3.3%	1.5%	2.8%
Protection be provided to Women	Count	20	57	40	117
	%	5.0%	7.1%	5.0%	5.9%
Total	Count	400	800	800	2000
	%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

a. Source: Field Survey, 2006.

9.7.2 Perceptions on new approaches to raise level of women development and education

The respondents were asked if they had some new ideas to raise the level of women development and also the level of their education. Their response in this context is shown in Table 9.26. Eight distinct approaches have been suggested by the respondents. None of these commands favour of the majority, which is understandable, as no single approach would achieve the targeted end.

The emphasis is on equal opportunity approach in the relevant spheres as reproduced below from Table 9.26 in the context of the three zones taken as a whole:

1. There should be No Gender Discrimination 29.7%

2. No Government & Private School Discrimination 10.8%

3. Uniformity in Books, Syllabi, Uniform etc. 13.6%

In the above mentioned three recommendations, emphasising equal opportunity for men and women and different sections of the society, account for a good 54% respondents. This amply reflects the general mode of thinking of the surveyed population and also the overall opinion pattern in the surveyed zones as assessed through general observations.

Accommodative School Environment was recommended by 16% respondents. This is to be interpreted to mean that the school environment should be conducive to the girl students. That a good 16% respondents singled out this particular measure in the given context speaks of the need for it as to be taken a serious note of, for planning of future development approach targeting the women.

Consistent with their views expressed earlier in this survey in literacy related contexts, about 21% respondents are seen in Table 9.26 recommending Parents' Financial Support as an instrument of women development. This view was held by the second largest single group of respondents. The recommended measure would help/ facilitate female education and thus pave way for their future development. This recommendation is consistent with the earlier expressed views of the respondents on low education participation rate of women in which poverty of parents' is pointed out quite prominently.

Table-9.26 Hazara, Zone Wise New Ideas to Raise Women Development and Education.

New Ideas to Raise Women Development and Education		Zonal Distribution			Total
		Central	Intermediate	Peripheral	
No Gender Discrimination	Count	118	242	234	594
	%	29.5%	30.3%	29.3%	29.7%
No Govt & Private School Discrimination	Count	49	87	80	216
	%	12.3%	10.9%	10.0%	10.8%
Uniformity in Books, Syllabal, Exams and Uniform	Count	52	110	109	271
	%	13.0%	13.8%	13.6%	13.6%
Accomodative School Environment	Count	68	129	127	324
	%	17.0%	16.1%	15.9%	16.2%
Application of Research Recommendations	Count	8	20	23	51
	%	2.0%	2.5%	2.9%	2.6%
Parent's Financial Support	Count	80	161	175	416
	%	20.0%	20.1%	21.9%	20.8%
Elder Education	Count	15	30	27	72
	%	3.8%	3.8%	3.4%	3.6%
Informal Education for Girls	Count	10	21	25	56
	%	2.5%	2.6%	3.1%	2.8%
Total	Count	400	800	800	2000
	%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

a. Source: Field Survey, 2006.

9.8 Summary and conclusions

The sources of income of the respondents were found fairly diversified, with no single source emerging as the major source, in the three zones taken as whole. Agriculture and livestock rearing accounted for main source of income of some 32% respondents followed closely by the Service sector with 32%. Casual labour was the main source of income of 22%, and business of 12%, respondents respectively. The individual zone wise corresponding figures show a marked departure from the overall averages. In the Central zone, the Service Sector was the main source of income of about 51% respondents followed by 'Labour' and Business' with 23% and 18% respectively. In the Intermediate zone, no single source was found as a clear leader in this respect. Service Sector (32%), followed by the Agriculture Sector (28%) and Labour (24%) taken together were the main sources of income of 84% of the sample households there. In the Peripheral zone the Agriculture sector as the main source of income accounted for the majority of the respondents, about 53%, followed by Service (23%) and Labour (19%) respectively.

The income profile of the sample households was on the whole the profile of a population characterised by extreme poverty. Only 16% of the sample household had annual income of Rs 100,000 or more, while as many as 56.5% of them had income of below Rs 50,000/ year, which was below the poverty line. In the top income bracket of Rs 500,000-1,000,000 there were only two percent of the income-reporting respondents, in the surveyed zones taken as a whole. Income disparities were quite wide in all zones, but these were relatively less in the Central zone than the other two.

The great majority of the respondents reported that men controlled the budgets in the sample households. This holds true for the three zones taken as whole with the corresponding figure of 80% and also for the three zones taken individually .The highest corresponding figure was reported in Peripheral zone (88.5%), followed by the Intermediate zone with almost 79% and the Central Zone with 64%. The respondents attributed this situation to men's overall dominance over women in all respects including education, contributing to man's hold on the family.

The boys claimed more money than did the girls for their education, while as many as 24% girls claimed <Rs 100/ month for education, the corresponding figure for boys in this bracket is12.8%, and as the amount of outlays increased on education the representation of girls became less and less and of the boys increased.

For low literacy level of women, as many as ten factors, including poverty, were identified by the respondents, and most of these weigh more or less equal in importance. Broadly speaking poverty, customary bias against female's education, illiteracy/ignorance of parents, and lack of educational facilities appropriate for women were the major factors, responsible for low literacy amongst females. This was the situation in the five surveyed districts taken as a whole. In the five surveyed districts taken individually the response pattern was broadly the same as described above, except that in Batagram

and Kohistan districts, which were far lying areas, Poverty, Customary barriers and lack of educational facilities for females were more frequently mentioned than in the surveyed zones taken as a whole and the other three districts.

The views of the respondents on causes of low literacy in the three surveyed zones, considered individually, were more or less alike and in conformity with the overall view presented above for the surveyed areas taken as a whole .In the central zone, however, literacy awareness programs, availability of allied facilities for the schools, free education for all were recommended, were more emphasized than in the Intermediate and the Peripheral zones. But the overall pattern of recommendations was not materially different in the three zones.

In the context on approaches to raise level of women development and education, eight distinct approaches were suggested by the respondents. None of these commands favour of the majority. The single largest group of respondents (about30%) recommended that there should NO Gender Discrimination; followed by about 14% recommending Uniformity in Books, Syllabi, Uniform etc; and about 11% pointed out that there should No Government & Private School Discrimination.

Consistent with their views expressed earlier in this survey in literacy related contexts, about 21% respondents recommended Parents Financial Support as an instrument of women development. This view was held by the second largest single group of respondents. The recommended measure would help facilitate female education and thus pave way for their future development. This recommendation was consistent with the views of the respondents on low education participation rate of women in which poverty of parents was pointed out quite prominently. Accommodative School Environment was recommended by 16% respondents. This is to be interpreted to mean that the school environment should be conducive to the girl students.

SECTION III

Chapter #10

Summary of Findings, Conclusions and Suggestions

10.1 Introduction

This study, as stated in chapters 1 and 5, was conducted to inquire into the spatial and gender distribution patterns, and characteristics of human development in the sense of literacy and basic education in Hazara region of North Western Frontier Province of Pakistan. A detailed discussion on one of the brightest aspects of human development, affected by various socio-demographic, economic, and cultural factors, is finally summed up in this concluding chapter. The study attempts to verify the hypotheses given in chapter 5. The study focuses mainly, but is not restricted to, these hypotheses.

10.2 Summary of main findings

This study is one of the first of its kind in the context of Hazara region. Thus besides making a useful addition of academic interest to the existing body of knowledge on the specific aspects of human development, this study would be of practical interest to gender, spatial and educational planners in the particular context of Hazara. The chapter is divided into two parts. Part one presents summary of the main findings, while the conclusions are stated in the particular context of the study's hypotheses in part two. Based on these findings some suggestions to eradicate the present imbalances in gender literacy and education are given in the end.

10.2.1 Impact of Location and Family Size on Education

As Hazara has variety of topographical features, therefore, the study of the impact of Physiograpy on female literacy was very interesting. This impact was seen with reference to 'location of primary schools; 'physical barrier in between home and school; and the availability of 'means of conveyance' in between home and school, respectively.

In the study area taken as a whole, 35% respondents stated that there were physical barriers between their homes and the Primary schools. The zone-wise corresponding figures were: Central 5.5%, Intermediate 39.3%, and Peripheral 46%. The highest incidence of physical barriers between home and school was recorded in a mountainous district of Batagram (69%) and the lowest in a comparatively plain district of Haripur (19.5%).

In the surveyed zones; taken as a whole, almost 49% of the girls' primary schools were reported to be in mountainous areas. The next closest category, accounting for about 41% schools, was that of schools located in the Piedmonts, followed by the schools located in the Plaines with 11%.

The overall distribution of schools was consistent with the region's physiographic features, largely mountainous and sub-mountainous. When it came to the corresponding sub-regional profiles viz. Central, Intermediate, and Peripheral zones, some sharp departures from the overall profile of the study area were found. In the Peripheral zones the mountainous schools were dominant with 68.3% share. In the Intermediate zones mountainous schools and those in piedmonts were almost evenly represented, while in the Central zone, the schools in Piedmonts (51%) and in the Plains (31%) accounted for the majority.

In the individual districts, the departures from the aggregative averages of the study area as a whole and its three sub- zones were quite sharp. The highest incidence of mountainous schools was reported in Batagram (92%) of Piedmont schools in Abbottabad (68%), and of schools in the Plains in Haripur District (41%): annexure table 6.1. This distribution pattern was in conformity with the physiographic characteristics of the concerned districts.

In the surveyed region (Hazara) taken as a whole, 51% of the girls primary schools were reported to be located within less than one kilometre of the respondents homes, while the corresponding figure for the schools in 1-2 km

distance was 37%. The corresponding figures for schools at 3-4 kms and 4-5 kms distance from home were 8% and 4.5% respectively. The intra zone pattern was similar in character, differing only in degree.

In the Central and the Intermediate zones, bulk of the high schools (around 63%) were located within less than 6 km of respondents homes, while in the Peripheral zones, bulk of them (67%) were located beyond 6 km. This distribution, of course, was shaped by and was in conformity with the area's physiographic characteristics.

About half of the parents (49.5%) were found reluctant to send their girls to a nearby girls' higher school. The percentage of parents not willing to send their girls to next neighbouring higher school was the highest in the Peripheral zone (73%); followed by the intermediate zone (44%) and the central zone (13%).

In the districts, taken separately, the highest percentage of the 'unwilling parents' was recorded in Kohistan (83.1%), followed by Batagram; Mansehra; Haripur and Abbottabad districts with the corresponding figures of 76.7%; 58.8%; 30.5% and 25% respectively.

In the Central zone as many as 77.5% respondents reported that the next neighbouring colleges were located within < 10 km of their homes. On the other extreme, the same proportion (77%) was found in the > 100 km bracket in the case of Peripheral zone. The distribution of colleges by this criterion was less skewed in the Intermediate zone, where the < 10 km category had 39%; followed by < 100 km with 22%.

In the districts, the highest percentage of the longest distance of more than 100 kms was found in Kohistan (100%) followed by Batagram (80%). The highest percentage of the smallest distance of less than 10 km was found in district Abbottabad (60%).

More or less the same set of reasons were given by parents for their unwillingness to send the girls to next neighbouring colleges as noted by reference to this question in the context of next neighbouring high schools for girls. The main ones were: the long distance factor mentioned by 34% respondents concerned, the fact of poverty of parents, 25.5%, and the social taboos or absence of tradition for sending the girls to outside for education, especially where it involved living in hostels, accounting for 21.5% respondents concerned.

Distances of the next neighbouring university from respondents' homes were much longer than of high schools and colleges for girls. In the surveyed zones, taken as a whole, only 6.6% respondents reported that the next neighbouring university was located within 20 km of their homes; and all these respondents belonged to central zone. The corresponding figure for the 21-50 km distance bracket was 29%, while the next higher bracket of 51-100 km accounted for 20% respondents. The single largest group of respondents, 44%, reported > 100 km distances. This much about the surveyed zone taken as a whole, the situation in the three zones considered individually departs somewhat from the overall averages mentioned above. In the central zone, the distribution of respondents in terms of the distances of the next neighbouring university was less skewed than that in the Intermediate zone, and the same held valid for the Intermediate zone vis-à-vis the Peripheral zone. The single largest concentration of cases in the three zones was; 10-20 km in Central; 21-50km in Intermediate; and >100km in Peripheral zones.

All of the respondents in Kohistan and Batagram districts reported the >100km distances in the Peripheral zone. The single largest concentration of cases in the three zones was; 10-20 km in Central; 21-50 km in Intermediate; and >100 km in the Peripheral zones.

Taking the surveyed zones as a whole, majority (61%) of the parents were reported to be unwilling to send the girls to the next neighbouring university. In

the Central zone considered individually, 25% parents fell in this group, while the corresponding figures for Intermediate and Peripheral zones were 60% and 83% respectively.

The literacy level of the sample population and the household size were inversely correlated. This held true for females as well as the males. Thus, in the 2-member households 58.5% female members were literate while the corresponding figure was a mere 1.4% for the 11-memebr households. The corresponding figures for males were 84% and 6% respectively. The inverse correlation under reference was stronger in the case of females as compared with males.

10.2.2 *Impact of Socio-Cultural and Gender Bias on Education*

In the surveyed zones, taken as a whole, 58% of girls and almost 85% of the boys of school going ages-5-15 years were attending schools at the time of the survey. The highest level of female schooling was found in the Central zone (86%), followed by the Intermediate (63%) and the Peripheral (40%) zones. The inter zone differentials in the incidence of schooling were sharper in case of girls as compared with the boys.

Amongst the females aged 16 years or more, about 68% were illiterate .The corresponding figure for the male population was 41%. Of the literate sample population, the majority did not go for college education. Amongst the females, 9.4% had received post-Matriculation education, while the corresponding figure was 17.7% for the literate males.

The literacy profile of the sample population in the Central Zone was distinctly better than of those in the Intermediate and the Peripheral zones. This holds true for female as well as the males. Thus, amongst the females belonging to the Central Zone, 59% were literate compared with the corresponding figures of 34% and 12% in the Intermediate and the Peripheral zones respectively. In terms of level of education attained by the females, the Central Zone had

comparatively higher levels to report followed by the Intermediate and the Peripheral zones in that order; women with post matriculation education comprised 27.5% of the total females in the sample households in the Central Zone, while the corresponding figures were 5.7% and 1.6% respectively in the next two zones in that order.

In respect of Quran literacy, the two genders were almost evenly placed in all zones. Like their general literacy and education, the males' Quran literacy rate (96.6%) was also slightly higher than that of females (95.8%) and it decreased from central to the peripheral zones amongst both genders like that of their general literacy.

The overwhelming majority of the respondents-males (85.3%) as well as females (79.3%) was found in favour of female education in the surveyed zones taken as whole. The corresponding zone wise percentages showed declining trend from central to the peripheral zones in case of both males. Statistical analysis showed that as the incidence of 'No' to the question whether education was necessary for women increased from central to the peripheral zones; the literacy rate decreased in the same sequence showing a negative correlation of -.223.

Of the respondents, who were found opposed to women education, the single largest number of them (48%) stated that their customs opposed it, while 22.6% respondents attributed it to the existence of gender bias in the community against women education, which was the same factor as custom opposing it. A small proportion of the respondents (14%) attributed their opposition to the veil problem, and the same proportion of them thought that education of women was useless. An insignificant number of respondents (1.7 %) mentioned poverty as a reason of opposition of women education.

The single largest proportion (35%) of the respondents thought that education resulted in improving 'Awareness 'of the women, followed by 28%, who

thought that it would help to provide better nourishment to the children, ostensibly as a result of income effect as well as general improvement in women's knowledge of child nourishment related matters. A good 11% respondents thought that education resulted in improving self-confidence of the women concerned. The afore-stated and the other advantages of education as perceived by the respondents indicated that they as also would be the case with the community in general, perceived women education as a productive and beneficial proposition from the view point of the women and their households concerned.

The broad character of perceptions in the three zones taken separately was the same as stated above for the surveyed zones taken as a whole, differing only in degree from zone to zone. The fact that women education leads to "Awareness" was most frequently reported in each of the three zones, followed by the favourable impact on nourishment of the children.

In the Central zone, as many as 87.5% respondents indicated their preference for 'both', Madrassas and Schools and in the Intermediate zone, too, this category was the leading one but with a much smaller proportion (47.5%) of the respondents preferring it. In the Peripheral zone, Madrassa was preferred by the single largest proportion (45.8%) of the respondents.

In the surveyed zones taken as whole, about 30% of the parents didn't like their girls to take up any profession after receiving education. Taking the three zones individually, quite prominent departure was seen from this overall average's. The corresponding figure was a mere 3.85% in the Central zone as opposed to the Peripheral zone's figure of 54.4%, while the Intermediate zone lay in between in this respect with a figure of about 20%. This pattern of attitude towards girls' participation in earning activity was consistent with the level of development in the three zones. The more progressive zones were less hostile to the idea of women participation in gainful employment, and

opposition to this proposition was seen higher in the relatively less progressive zones- the Intermediate and the Peripheral.

The two genders differed quite distinctly on this question: whether women should be customarily allowed to have formal education. Most of the female respondents (52%) said, 'Yes', while most of the males (61.5%) said 'No" in reply, in the surveyed zones taken as a whole. The response patterns were seen to be markedly different when the individual zones were taken up separately. In the central zone the overwhelming majority of both male (79%) and female (80%) respondents favoured the proposition. The opposition held true for the Peripheral zone, where 73% males and 67% females did not approve of this proposition. Overall analysis shows that as the 'No' to the custom of female formal education in family increased from central to the peripheral zones the literacy rate decreased in the same sequence, indicating a negative correlation of -.348.

In the three zones taken as a whole, majority of both males (59%) and females (52%) responded in the negative, to the proposition of equal opportunity to males and females in the matter of formal education. The response pattern was, however, different in different zones. In the Central zone as many as 77% females and 70% males favoured equal opportunity to both genders in the matter of education. In the Intermediate zone, the opinion was slightly against the proposition, while in the Peripheral zone the majority did not favour equal opportunity to women.

The respondents opposed to gender equality in the access to formal education ascribed their opposition to a number of reasons. The main reasons were: customary barriers (24%), males' dominancy (18%); and non-availability of schools for females (17%). There was a negative correlation (-.274) between gender inequality and the general literacy level across the three zones.

10.2.3 *Impact of Gender Socio-Political Inequality on Literacy*

The overwhelming majority of both the female (78%) and the male (85%) respondents, considered separately, stated that the decision making authority vested with men, in the surveyed zones taken as whole. The majority of respondents in the three zones taken individually said the same differing, however, in degree of men's dominance. In the central zone, men were reported to be relatively less dominant, while the extent of their dominance was found relatively higher in the Intermediate and highest in the Peripheral zones. There were cases of joint decision-making; too, where men associated women as well with it, but the overall incidence of such cases was low. Only 13% female respondents stated that both men and women had the decision-making authority while the corresponding figure for male respondents was about 11%.

In the surveyed zones, taken as a whole, about 65% female respondents and 55% male respondents stated that women in their households do cast vote. The corresponding figures were much higher in Central zone (90% and 88% for females and males respectively) and much lower in the Peripheral zone (females 36% and males 30%). Overall analysis showed, as the incidence of opposition to the right to cast vote by women increased from central to the peripheral zones the literacy rate decreased in the same sequence, indicating a negative correlation of -.368.

Should women participate in politics? To this question the majority of the female respondents (55%) replied in "YES" and the majority (58%) of male respondents said "NO" in the three zones taken as whole. The individual zones response pattern was different from the overall average .In the Peripheral zone the overwhelming majority of females (70%) as well as the males (78%) opposed this proposition, while in the Central zone the obverse held true with 79% females and 71% males favouring it. In the Intermediate zone majority of both males and females favoured the proposition of women participation in politics but with a smaller margin, as compared with the other

two zones. Overall analysis shows that as 'opposition' to women participation in politics increased from central to the peripheral zones; the literacy rate decreased in the same sequence, showing a negative correlation of -.327.

Women's participation in election, and contesting election as public representatives, was approved by both genders in the Central and the Intermediate zones but a high percentage of both female (72.4%) and male respondents (79.5%) in the Peripheral zone opposed this proposition. Amongst the respondents approving women contesting the elections, the single largest group (34%) stated that the women may contest elections at all the levels, from local to national, followed by Provincial (21%) and District level elections (26%) and this applied to the respondents in all the zones taken as a whole.

The zone wise response pattern was different in the three zones taken separately. In the Central zone, women participation was approved at "all levels" by the majority (61.4%), in the Intermediate zone the opinion was evenly divided in favour of District (30.2%) and Provincial level (30.2%) election participation of women. In the Peripheral zone, the views were more diverse, thinly spread over each of the five levels, leaning relatively a little more in favour of district level participation.

On the subject, why should not the women contest elections, the respondents' perceptions were diverse but on the whole the factor of illiteracy amongst women was relatively more frequently mentioned in the surveyed zones taken as a whole (28.5%) in general, and also in the Peripheral (30.6%) and Intermediate (27.3%) zones in particular. Women being "restricted to homes" (13%), the presence of 'Gender discrimination (15.7%) 'the absence of tradition' (13.1%) of their political participation, and the women being not well aware of the surroundings and the current issues (11.2%) were the other main reasons given by the sample respondents in the current context, in the three zones taken in general.

10.2.4 *Impact of Gender Economic Resources on Education*

Only approximately 15% women respondents were found engaged in paid jobs and income yielding enterprises in the surveyed region taken as a whole. The corresponding figures were 40% in Central zone; 12% in Intermediate zone and 4% in Peripheral zones respectively.

In the Central zone, which was relatively more developed and was also relatively more urbanised than the other zones, the Service Sector was the main source of income of about 51% respondents, followed by 'Labour' and Business' with 23% and 18%. In the Intermediate zone no single source was found a clear leader in this respect. Service Sector (32%), followed by the Agriculture Sector (28%) and 'Labour' (24%) taken together were the main sources of income of 84% of the sample households there. In the Peripheral zone, the Agriculture sector was the main source of income for the majority of the respondents, about 53%, followed by Service (23%) and Labour (19%).

The annual income profile of the sample households was on the whole the profile of a population characterised by extreme poverty. Only 16% of the sample households had annual income of Rs.100,000 or more, while as many as 56.5% of them had income of below Rs. 50,000/ year, which was below the poverty line. A substantial proportion,19.8%, got below Rs19,000 which was a pitiably low level, and raises doubt as to the fact that probably, they under-reported their income. In the top income bracket of Rs 500,000-1,000,000 there were only 18 households accounting for only about two percent of the income reporting respondents. Thus, the overall profile of the sample population was one of a predominantly poor people .This much about the households in the three surveyed zones taken as a whole.

The corresponding data of the three zones taken individually departs in pattern from the overall average, but not materially. In the Central Zone, the below Rs. 50,000/ annum income households were fewer (34%) than in the Intermediate zone (64%) and the Peripheral (64%). Income disparities were quite wide in all

zones but these were relatively less in the Central zone than the other two. The pattern was consistent with the corresponding situation in respect of level of development of the three zones taken separately. The central one was comparatively more developed and diversified economically.

Most of the respondents reported that mostly the men controlled the budgets in the sample households. The highest figure for men controlling the household budgets was reported in Peripheral zone (88.5%) followed by the Intermediate zone with almost 79% and the Central Zone with 64%. A definite pattern, was observable in the relative placing of the three zones in terms of level of development and the level dominance of men; men were more dominant in the relatively less developed zones probably their dominance in education.

The boys claimed more money than did the girls for their education. As many as 31% of households did not spend anything on their girls' education, while the corresponding figure for boys was 16.7%. As many as 24% girls claimed <Rs. 100/ month for education, while the corresponding figure for boys in this bracket was 12.8%. In the next higher bracket of Rs.101-200, the corresponding figures were 12% (girls) and 15.2% (boys) and as the amount of outlays increased on education the representation of girls became less and less and of the boys increased because of the parents' preference of boys' education than girls'. Boys also claimed more money than girls from their parents for education because of the prevalent gender bias, favouring the son than the daughter in every matter, and also possibly for the reason that boys go to schools at a longer distance as compared with the girls. That entails spending on transport, school snacks, and also hostel expenses as more boys than the girls were studying outside their villages/ towns.

In the three zones taken as a whole, most of the respondents (57%) perceived themselves to be poor, followed by 41% placing themselves in the Middle Class, while only 2% placed themselves in the category of Rich people. In the

Central zone, the Middle Class respondents preponderated with the figure of 53%, while in the Intermediate and the Peripheral zones, the Poor category held this position with 60% and 67 % respectively.

The overwhelming majority (76%) of the respondents in the three zones, taken as a whole, pointed out that poverty had had a negative impact on female education. In the three zones taken separately, that was the majority view differing, however in degree. The corresponding figure for the relatively more developed Central zone was 53%, while it was the highest, 87%, in the Peripheral and about 77% in the Intermediate Zone.

As many as ten factors, including poverty, were identified by the respondents, and most of these weigh more or less equal in importance. Broadly speaking, poverty, customary bias against females' education, illiteracy/ignorance of parents, and lack of educational facilities appropriate for women were the major factors in the present context, responsible for low literacy amongst females. This was also the situation in the five surveyed districts taken as a whole.

In the five surveyed districts taken individually, the response pattern was broadly the same as described above, except that in Batagram and Kohistan districts, which were far lying areas, poverty, customary barriers, and lack of educational facilities for females were more frequently mentioned than in the surveyed zones taken as a whole and the other three districts.

The respondents views as described above, suggested that while no single factor can be held responsible for the phenomenon under analysis, similarly no single remedial measure would solve it. The problem is multi-facial and accordingly the problem solving approaches have to be multi-pronged, as well as multi- dimensional in terms of time and strategy.

In so far as the three zones as a whole are concerned, the major emphasis was placed by the respondents on (i) providing more and better schools,

equipped with proper facilities and staff, (ii) raising parents' literacy level as well as motivating them in favour of female education, and (iii) providing free schooling. Those recommending these measures accounted for about 80% of the total respondents. It was noteworthy that the emphasis on free education was not on top of the recommended measures. On the contrary, it was on improving availability of education and removing social barriers to availing it by the women. Financial factor was important but not the most important one in respondents' view in the present context. This has important policy implications for planning for literacy improvement in the target area.

The views of the respondents in the three surveyed zones, considered individually, were more or less alike and in conformity with the overall view presented above for the surveyed areas taken as a whole. In the central zone, however, literacy awareness programs, availability of allied facilities for the schools, free education for all were recommended or more emphasized than in the Intermediate and the Peripheral zones. But the overall pattern of recommendations was not materially different in the three zones.

Eight distinct approaches haave been suggested by the respondents. The emphasis is on equal opportunity approach in the relevant spheres, as reproduced below from Table 9.26 in the context of the three zones taken as a whole:

There should be no gender discrimination..... 29.7%
No government & private school discrimination.10.8%
Uniformity in books, syllabi, uniform etc..... 13.6%

Between them, the above mentioned three recommendations accounted for a good 54% respondents. This amply reflects the general mode of thinking of the surveyed population and the overall opinion pattern in the surveyed.
The other important recommendations of the respondents in this context were: Accommodative School Environment (16%) and financial support for parents (21%) respondents.

10.3 Conclusion

In the preceding part of this chapter, the main findings of the present study were presented. Alongside these findings, the emerging conclusions were also presented on the main theme of this study. In the present section conclusions are stated in the particular context of the study's hypotheses which are reproduced below from chapter 5:

> *"This study revolves chiefly around Rich's locational theory according to which all regions in any given development system compete for a share in the total human development activity, but by virtue of their location some of the regions suffer from relative spatial disadvantage and inequity in human development. Classifying the regions in terms of their proximity to the urban development centres as Central, Intermediate, and Peripheral, in that order, these regions would stand in the same order in terms of access to development opportunities and the consequent level of development manifested in literacy level and other indicators of human development.*
>
> *Superimposed by Rich's locational theory as alluded to above, the present study was addressed to the following set of hypotheses;*
>
> *Hypothesis 1: The distance, in terms of remoteness, of human settlements from the urban development centres and physical barriers between the homes and the schools negatively impacts in the region:*
>
> 1. *Females' overall literacy level.*
> 2. *Parents' willingness to send girls to next higher schools.*
> 3. *Incidence of females in higher education brackets.*
> 4. *Activity rate of women; in terms of women engaged in paid jobs and enterprises.*
>
> *Hypothesis 2. The economic and demographic factors also negatively impact females' literacy level and their level of participation in nation's mainstream of development.*
>
> *Hypothesis 3. The below stated socio-cultural and political biases more adversely impact the females literacy and poliical participation than of the males:*
>
> 1. *Customary taboos/ restrictions against females' outdoor activity;*
> 2. *Gender bias against women empowerment;*
> 3. *Parents' education*
> 4. *Threats of insecurity of life and honour of females outside of their homes.*

Hypothesis 1

1. The hypothesis about negative impact of location factor and distance between homes and schools, on females' overall literacy level was found valid in the light of the study's findings. The female literacy level was found showing declining trend from the Central zone to the intermediate zone and onward to Peripheral zone; the level being 59 %, 34%, and 12% respectively in the

Hazara region taken as a whole. The same tendency was observed also within the five districts taken individually i.e.; the literacy level of female was relatively higher in the central zone as compared to the Intermediate and the Peripheral zones in that order. A similar tendency was found in the five districts when ordered in terms of theirremoteness from the Abbottabad District, which is the relatively most developed district in the Hazara region. Haripur district, which borders Abbottabad district on the Southern side had female literacy level of about 40%, compared with Abbottabad 61.6% while the corresponding figure for Mansehra district, which borders Abbottabad on the North side, is 34.7% followed by the farther lying districts of Batagram and Kohistan with 7.3% and 3.7% respectively. These findings lend further supportive evidence to confirm the hypothesis under study.

2. The willingness of the parents to send their girls to next higher schools was found by this study to be negatively impacted by the distances of the community from the centre of urban development. The incidence of unwillingness of parents in this context was lowest in the Central zones, relatively higher in the Intermediate zones, and the highest in the Peripheral zones. Or alternatively put, the longer the distance of settlements from the urban development centres, the higher was the percentage of parents' unwillingness to send their girls to next higher schools. The distances of next higher schools from the sample households' within a given zone, were found similarly impacting parents willingness in the present context. That is, the longer the distance of the next higher schools from the abode of the sample population, the higher the incidence of parents' unwillingness to send their girls to these schools. Thus, this hypothesis was found valid in the context of inter zone comparison as well as in the context of distances within a given zone. It was valid also in the context of next neighbouring college and university.

3. The hypothesis that Incidence of females in higher education brackets in the present context was found valid. The level of education attained by

females was highest in Central zones, relatively lower in Intermediate zones, and the lowest in the Peripheral zones. This finding is in conformity with, and further validates, the finding in the context of hypothesis 1.

4. The activity rate of women in terms of paid employment or/and participation in enterprises, was found highest in the Central zones, relatively lower in the Intermediate zones, and the lowest in the Peripheral zones. Thus, this hypothesis was also found valid, in the limited context of women in paid employment. But this finding would not be a valid basis to generalise about women's broader economic role. Their participation in on-farm as well off-farm productive work, though not for wage, is not included in this study, but that is substantial in the Peripheral, Intermediate, and Central zones in that order.

Hypothesis 2

The hypothesis that the economic and demographic factors also negatively impact females' literacy level and their level of participation in nation's mainstream of development was validated by the study's findings in the context of household size and household income. The study found inverse relationship between household size and the level of female literacy. The majority of the respondents viewed poverty adversely impacting female education. Amongst the factors, as given by the respondents, being the causes of low level of child schooling, unwillingness to send girls for higher education, the general causes of low female literacy; poverty and high family size were prominent mentions.

Hypothesis 3

1. This hypothesis was found valid, in the overall context of the Hazara region in general. The force of these factors was found to be stronger in the Peripheral zone as compared to the Intermediate and Central zones in that order. These factors were frequently mentioned by the respondents in the context of factors negatively impacting females' education and their socio-politico-economic empowerment with the overall negative impact on females' literacy more than on males'.

2. The hypothesis that 'negative impact of 'gender bias against women empowerment,' draws support from the findings of the present study. As both male and the female respondents were largely against political participation of women at par with men, and the level of opposition was higher in the Peripheral zone followed by the Intermediate zone and the Central zone in that order. The level of female illiteracy was also higher in that order in these zones as compared with males'. Analysis showed that as 'No' to women participation in politics increased from central to the peripheral zones, the literacy rate decreased in the same sequence, indicating a negative correlation of -.327.That indicates that the factors incorporated in the analysis do negatively impact females literacy more than that of males'.

3. The hypothesis, impact of parent's education' was partially found valid. It is worth noting that the literacy profile of mothers of the female respondents was better than of the mothers of the male respondents. Their literacy rate was comparatively higher and they also led in terms of the level of education attained. The level of education attained by the fathers of the female respondents was comparatively better than that of the male respondents. Of the female respondents' fathers about 19% had had matriculation or higher level education, while the corresponding figures for the male respondents fathers was 9%. However, the fathers of the two genders had a better literacy profile as compared with their mothers again indicating in parents' education is gender bias.

4. The hypothesis that negative impact of threats of insecurity of life and honour of females outside of their homes was found valid. Although, the respondents did not specifically mention this factor in their replies, it was implicit in their reference to social taboo/no custom etc to allow females going away from their homes for education. Informal discussions, general observations, and piecing together of respondents replies to different questions pertaining women's participation in education and other pursuits,

indicated that the security factor weighs heavily in the list of factors that negatively impact females' literacy level than of males'.

10.4 Suggestions

1. Although physical characteristics and the economic and institutional constraints, identified by the study, are serious impediments to access of females to formal education in the Hazara region, the study's findings suggest that it is not only needed but also possible, to bring about a substantial improvement in literacy level of the females in the region. To this end, it is suggested to increase number of primary and higher schools within easy access from the homes of the girl students and also to improve the transport facilities, on a high priority basis in the peripheral zones of all the districts of Hazara and particularly in the districts of Kohistan and Batagram.

2. In view of growing demand for higher education, beyond the high schools, establishing colleges for girls at short distances from dwelling centres should also be pursued as a high priority agenda. The educational institutions for girls should be suitably staffed, well equipped, and have conducive environment for girl students as well as female staff not only in the peripheral zones of all the districts of Hazara but emphasis should also be given to the northern districts of Mansehra, Batagram and Kohistan respectively. .

3. The repeated mention of poverty by the respondents as a cause of low female participation in formal education, points to the need for free and subsidized education, and direct financial support for the poor girl students, especially in the remote regions or peripheral zones of all the districts and most particularly in the complete districts of Kohistan and Batabram.

4. The respondents have given quite a few clearly set out recommendations in the context of female literacy improvement, as stated earlier in this chapter and chapter 9. These need be incorporated in the education plans for females.

5. The recommendations and suggestions of this study must be implemented in a true sense not only in all the other neighbouring districts of northern N.W.F.P but also in FATA and the south western-districts of the province.

6. The study recommendations may be more consequent and fruitful even in the most educationally deprived province of Balochistan and even in the far flung rural areas of the provinces of Sind and Punjab and even in AJK & Northern Areas of Pakistan as the gender and socio-economic problems are the same in almost all the regions of Pakistan.

7. The same study pattern may be implemented commonly in most of the educationally deprived third world countries and particularly in the SAARC countries with confidence as the female literacy and education problems are mostly similar in this region.

Chapter 6

Anx Table-6.1 Hazara, Distric wise Location of Basic Girl's School.

Location of Basic Girl's School		Districts					Total
		01	02	03	04	05	
Mountainous	Count	92	127	362	166	228	975
	%	23.0%	25.4%	54.8%	92.2%	87.7%	48.8%
Semimountainous	Count	144	341	280	14	32	811
	%	36.0%	68.2%	42.4%	7.8%	12.3%	40.6%
Plain	Count	164	32	18	0	0	214
	%	41.0%	6.4%	2.7%	.0%	.0%	10.7%
Total	Count	400	500	660	180	260	2000
	%	100.0%	100%	100.0%	100%	100%	100%

a. Souece: Field Survey, 2006.

Anx Table-6.2 Hazara Region, Distric wise Physical Barrier in between Girl's School and Home.

Physical Barrier in between Girl's School and Home		Districts					Total
		01	02	03	04	05	
Yes	Count	78	136	188	124	178	704
	%	19.5%	27.2%	28.5%	68.9%	68.5%	35.2%
No	Count	322	364	472	56	82	1296
	%	80.5%	72.8%	71.5%	31.1%	31.5%	64.8%
Total	Count	400	500	660	180	260	2000
	%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100.0%

a. Souece: Field Survey, 2006.

Anx Table-6.3 Hazara, District wise Means of Conveyance.

Means of Conveyance		Districts					Total
		01	02	03	04	05	
Walking	Count	352	388	644	176	256	1816
	%	88.0%	77.6%	97.6%	97.8%	98%	90.8%
By Bus	Count	38	86	6	4	4	138
	%	9.5%	17.2%	.9%	2.2%	1.5%	6.9%
Own Conveyance	Count	2	14	6	0	0	22
	%	.5%	2.8%	.9%	.0%	.0%	1.1%
Other	Count	8	12	4	0	0	24
	%	2.0%	2.4%	.6%	.0%	.0%	1.2%
Total	Count	400	500	660	180	260	2000
	%	100.0%	100%	100.0%	100.0%	****	100.0%

a. Source: Field Survey, 2006.

Anx Table-6.4 Hazara, Distance of Primary Girl's School from Home.

Distance		Districts					Total
		01	02	03	04	05	
<1 Kms	Count	160	400	396	36	23	1015
	%	40.0%	80.0%	60.0%	20.0%	8.8%	50.8%
1-2 Kms	Count	240	100	264	72	61	737
	%	60.0%	20.0%	40.0%	40.0%	23.5%	36.9%
3-4 Kms	Count	0	0	0	62	96	158
	%	.0%	.0%	.0%	34.4%	36.9%	7.9%
4-5 Kms	Count	0	0	0	10	80	90
	%	.0%	.0%	.0%	5.6%	30.8%	4.5%
Total	Count	400	500	660	180	260	2000
	%	100.0%	100%	100.0%	100%	100%	100.0%

a. Souece: Field Survey, 2006.

Anx Table-6.5 Hazara, District wise Distance of Next NeighbouringHigher School.

Distance		Districts					Total
		01	02	03	04	05	
<1 Kms	Count	13	98	2	0	0	113
	%	3.3%	19.6%	.3%	.0%	.0%	5.7%
1-2 Kms	Count	88	84	128	36	0	336
	%	22.0%	16.8%	19.4%	20.0%	.0%	16.8%
3-5 Kms	Count	139	110	134	0	0	383
	%	34.8%	22.0%	20.3%	.0%	.0%	19.2%
6-10 Kms	Count	160	108	132	36	38	474
	%	40.0%	21.6%	20.0%	20.0%	14.6%	23.7%
>10 Kms	Count	0	100	264	108	222	694
	%	.0%	20.0%	40.0%	60.0%	85.4%	34.7%
Total	Count	400	500	660	180	260	2000
	%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100%	100.0%

a. Souece: Field Survey, 2006.

Anx Table-6.6 Hazara, District wise Parents' Willingness to send Girls to Next Neighbouring Higher School.

Willingness		Districts					Total
		01	02	03	04	05	
Yes	Count	278	375	272	42	44	1011
	%	69.5%	75.0%	41.2%	23.3%	16.9%	50.6%
No	Count	122	125	388	138	216	989
	%	30.5%	25.0%	58.8%	76.7%	83.1%	49.5%
Total	Count	400	500	660	180	260	2000
	%	100%	100%	100.0%	100%	100%	100%

a. Souece: Field Survey, 2006.

Anx Table-6.7 Hazara, District wise reasons[a] For Not Sending Girls to Next Higher school.

Reasons		Districts 01	02	03	04	05	Total
Distance	Count	24	36	38	30	66	194
	%	12.4%	18.6%	*19.6%*	15.5%	34.0%	100%
Poverty	Count	26	45	92	12	66	241
	%	10.8%	18.7%	*38.2%*	5.0%	*27.4%*	100%
No Tradition	Count	34	8	118	28	84	272
	%	12.5%	2.9%	*43.4%*	10.3%	*30.9%*	100%
Pardah	Count	24	20	66	24	0	134
	%	17.9%	14.9%	*49.3%*	17.9%	.0%	100%
Co Education	Count	14	14	72	12	0	112
	%	12.5%	12.5%	*64.3%*	10.7%	.0%	100%
Other	Count	0	2	2	32	0	36
	%	.0%	5.6%	5.6%	*88.9%*	.0%	100%
Total	Count	122	125	388	138	216	989
	%	12.3%	12.6%	39.2%	14.0%	21.8%	100%

a. Source: Field Survey, 2006.

Anx Table-6.8 Hazara, District wise Distance of Next Neighbouring College.[a]

Distance		Districts 01	02	03	04	05	Total
<10 Kms	Count	164	300	264	0	0	728
	%	41.0%	60.0%	40.0%	.0%	.0%	36.4%
10-20 Kms	Count	156	100	0	0	0	256
	%	39.0%	20.0%	.0%	.0%	.0%	12.8%
21-50 Kms	Count	0	0	132	0	0	132
	%	.0%	.0%	20.0%	.0%	.0%	6.6%
51-100 Kms	Count	0	0	0	36	0	36
	%	.0%	.0%	.0%	20.0%	.0%	1.8%
>100 Kms	Count	80	100	264	144	260	848
	%	20.0%	20.0%	40.0%	80.0%	100%	42.4%
Total	Count	400	500	660	180	260	2000
	%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100%	100.0%

a. Souece: Field Survey, 2006.

Anx Table-6.9 Hazara, District wise Parents' Willingness to send Girls to Next Neighbouring College.[a]

Willingness		Districts 01	02	03	04	05	Total
Yes	Count	226	341	256	38	28	889
	%	56.5%	68.2%	38.8%	21.1%	10.8%	44.5%
No	Count	174	159	404	142	232	1111
	%	43.5%	31.8%	61.2%	78.9%	89.2%	55.6%
Total	Count	400	500	660	180	260	2000
	%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

a. Souece: Field Survey, 2006.

ANX Table- 6.10 Hazara Region, Reasons for not sending Girls to Next Neighbouring College.[a]

Reasons		Districts 01	02	03	04	05	Total
Distance	Count	38	71	132	80	60	381
	%	21.6%	44.2%	32.5%	56.3%	25.9%	34.2%
Poverty	Count	68	48	90	22	56	284
	%	38.6%	30.2%	22.2%	15.1%	24.1%	25.5%
No Tradition	Count	46	16	110	16	52	240
	%	26.1%	10.1%	27.1%	11.3%	22.4%	21.5%
Pardah	Count	24	24	74	24	64	210
	%	13.6%	15.1%	18.2%	16.9%	27.6%	18.8%
Total	Count	176	159	406	142	232	1115
	%	100%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100%

a. Source: Field Survey, 2006.

ANX Table- 6.10 Hazara Region, Reasons for not sending Girls to Next Neighbouring College.[a]

Reasons		Districts 01	02	03	04	05	Total
Distance	Count	38	71	132	80	60	381
	%	21.6%	44.2%	32.5%	56.3%	25.9%	34.2%
Poverty	Count	68	48	90	22	56	284
	%	38.6%	30.2%	22.2%	15.1%	24.1%	25.5%
No Tradition	Count	46	16	110	16	52	240
	%	26.1%	10.1%	27.1%	11.3%	22.4%	21.5%
Pardah	Count	24	24	74	24	64	210
	%	13.6%	15.1%	18.2%	16.9%	27.6%	18.8%
Total	Count	176	159	406	142	232	1115
	%	100%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100%

a. Source: Field Survey, 2006.

Table- 6.11 Hazara Region, Distance of Next Neighbouring University.

Distance		Districts					Total
		01	02	03	04	05	
<10 Kms	Count	0	0	2	0	0	2
	%	.0%	.0%	.3%	.0%	.0%	.1%
10-20 Kms	Count	0	0	130	0	0	130
	%	.0%	.0%	19.7%	.0%	.0%	6.5%
21-50 Kms	Count	16	300	264	0	0	580
	%	4.0%	60.0%	40.0%	.0%	.0%	29.0%
51-100 Kms	Count	302	100	0	0	0	402
	%	75.5%	20.0%	.0%	.0%	.0%	20.1%
>100 Kms	Count	82	100	264	180	260	886
	%	20.5%	20.0%	40.0%	100%	100.0%	44.3%
Total	Count	400	500	660	180	260	2000
	%	100.0%	100.0%	100%	100%	100.0%	100.0%

a. Source: Field Survey, 2006.

ANX Table- 6.12 Hazara Region, Reasons for not sending Girls to Next Neighbouring University.

Reasons		Districts					Total
		01	02	03	04	05	
Distance	Count	116	83	96	68	66	429
	%	57.4%	41.7%	22.0%	46.6%	28.5%	35.3%
Poverty	Count	42	56	106	14	42	260
	%	20.8%	28.1%	24.2%	9.6%	18.1%	21.4%
No Tradition	Count	20	22	130	24	94	290
	%	9.9%	11.1%	29.7%	16.4%	40.5%	23.8%
Pardah	Count	24	20	46	32	16	138
	%	11.9%	10.1%	10.5%	21.9%	6.9%	11.3%
Co Education	Count	0	16	60	8	14	98
	%	.0%	8.0%	13.7%	5.5%	6.0%	8.1%
Other	Count	0	2	0	0	0	2
	%	.0%	1.0%	.0%	.0%	.0%	.2%
Total	Count	202	199	438	146	232	1217
	%	100%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

a. Source: Field Survey, 2006.

Table- 6.13 Kohistan district, People, who Perform trancehumancē.

Perform trancehumance?		Communities					Total
		Komila	Kasir	Shelkenbad	Ghundo	Marin	
Yes	Count	14	36	42	44	40	176
	%	26.9%	69.2%	80.8%	84.6%	76.9%	67.7%
No	Count	38	16	10	8	12	84
	%	73.1%	30.8%	19.2%	15.4%	23.1%	32.3%
Total	Count	52	52	52	52	52	260
	%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100%

a. Source: Field Survey, 2006.

Anx Table-6.14 Hazara, District wise Respondents' Household Sizē.

Household Size		Districts					Total
		01	02	03	04	05	
2	Count	81	78	45	2	1	207
	%	20.3%	15.6%	6.8%	1.1%	.4%	10.4%
3	Count	60	102	45	15	32	254
	%	15.0%	20.4%	6.8%	8.3%	12.3%	12.7%
4	Count	51	67	164	18	33	333
	%	12.8%	13.4%	24.8%	10.0%	12.7%	16.7%
5	Count	115	67	154	32	47	415
	%	28.8%	13.4%	23.3%	17.8%	18.1%	20.8%
6	Count	26	56	58	38	46	224
	%	6.5%	11.2%	8.8%	21.1%	17.7%	11.2%
7	Count	17	44	40	10	33	144
	%	4.3%	8.8%	6.1%	5.6%	12.7%	7.2%
8	Count	5	19	28	14	30	96
	%	1.3%	3.8%	4.2%	7.8%	11.5%	4.8%
9	Count	5	19	10	6	13	53
	%	1.3%	3.8%	1.5%	3.3%	5.0%	2.7%
10	Count	19	26	38	17	11	111
	%	4.8%	5.2%	5.8%	9.4%	4.2%	5.6%
11	Count	21	22	78	28	14	163
	%	5.3%	4.4%	11.8%	15.6%	5.4%	8.2%
Total	Count	400	500	660	180	260	2000
	%	100.0%	100.0%	100%	100.0%	100%	100.0%

a. Souece: Field Survey, 2006.

Anx Table- 6.15 Hazara, District wise[b] Surveyed Population Household Size.

Household Size		Districts					Total
		01	02	03	04	05	
2	Count	174	243	168	16	2	603
	%	12.7%	11.7%	8.4%	1.9%	.2%	7.9%
3	Count	163	306	108	35	18	630
	%	11.9%	14.8%	5.4%	4.1%	1.4%	8.3%
4	Count	238	297	199	128	52	914
	%	17.4%	14.3%	10.0%	15.1%	4.0%	12.0%
5	Count	264	302	253	115	213	1147
	%	19.3%	14.6%	12.7%	13.6%	16.3%	15.1%
6	Count	162	300	163	129	122	876
	%	11.9%	14.5%	8.2%	15.2%	9.3%	11.5%
7	Count	84	278	210	56	191	819
	%	6.1%	13.4%	10.5%	6.6%	14.6%	10.8%
8	Count	40	96	162	78	240	616
	%	2.9%	4.6%	8.1%	9.2%	18.4%	8.1%
9	Count	54	108	320	36	90	608
	%	4.0%	5.2%	16.0%	4.3%	6.9%	8.0%
10	Count	100	100	281	100	140	721
	%	7.3%	4.8%	14.1%	11.8%	10.7%	9.5%
11	Count	88	44	132	153	237	654
	%	6.4%	2.1%	6.6%	18.1%	18.2%	8.6%
Total	Count	1367	2074	1996	846	1305	7588
	%	100.0%	100.0%	100%	100%	100%	100.0%

b. Source: Field Survey, 2006.

Chapter 7

Table-7.1Anx Hazara, Gender & District wise Quran Education[a].

Gender	Quran Education		Districts					Total
			01	02	03	04	05	
Female	Yes	Count	198	329	288	75	62	952
		%	96.6%	98.8%	98.0%	91.5%	77.5%	95.8%
	No	Count	7	4	6	7	18	42
		%	3.4%	1.2%	2.0%	8.5%	22.5%	4.2%
	Total	Count	205	333	294	82	80	994
		%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100.0%
Male	Yes	Count	192	167	358	94	161	972
		%	98.5%	100%	97.8%	95.9%	89.4%	96.6%
	No	Count	3	0	8	4	19	34
		%	1.5%	.0%	2.2%	4.1%	10.6%	3.4%
	Total	Count	195	167	366	98	180	1006
		%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100.0%

a. Source: Field Survey, 2006.

Table-7.4 Anx Hazara, District wise Reasons for' No' to Female education.

Reasons for not Necessary		Districts					Tota l
		01	02	03	04	05	
No Custom	Count	30	22	34	20	64	170
	%	68.0%	40.7%	60.7%	35.7%	44.4%	48.0%
Veil	Count	4	6	8	0	30	48
	%	9.1%	11.0%	14.2%	.0%	20.8%	13.6%
Useless	Count	10	6	14	2	16	48
	%	22.7%	11.0%	25.0%	3.5%	11.0%	13.6%
Gender Bias	Count	0	14	0	32	34	80
	%	.0%	25.9%	.0%	57.1%	23.6%	22.6%
Poverty	Count	0	4	0	2	0	6
	%	.0%	7.4%	.0%	3.5%	.0%	1.7%
No Awareness	Count	0	2	0	0	0	2
	%	.0%	3.7%	.0%	.0%	.0%	.6%
Total	Count	44	54	56	56	144	354
	%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%

a. Source: Field Survey, 2006.

Table-7.5 Anx Kohitan, Gender & Community wise Reasons for 'No' to Female education.

Gender	Reasons		Communities					Total
			0501	0502	0503	0504	0505	
Female	No Custom	Count	3	0	2	6	2	13
		%	60.0%	.0%	14.3%	50.0%	25.0%	30.2%
	Veil	Count	0	0	8	0	6	14
		%	.0%	.0%	57.2%	.0%	75.0%	32.5%
	Useless	Count	0	2	0	2	0	4
		%	.0%	50.0%	.0%	16.6%	.0%	9.3%
	Gender Bias	Count	2	2	4	4	0	12
		%	40.0%	50.0%	28.6%	33.3%	.0%	27.9%
	Total	Count	5	4	14	12	8	43
		%	100%	100%	100.0%	100%	100%	100.0%
Male	No Custom	Count	7	4	10	14	16	51
		%	77.8%	66.7%	38.5%	43.8%	57.1%	50.4%
	Veil	Count	0	0	8	4	4	16
		%	.0%	.0%	30.8%	12.5%	14.3%	15.8%
	Useless	Count	0	0	2	2	8	12
		%	.0%	.0%	7.7%	6.3%	28.6%	11.9%
	Gender Bias	Count	2	2	6	12	0	22
		%	22.2%	33.3%	23.1%	37.5%	.0%	21.8%
	Total	Count	9	6	26	32	28	101
		%	100%	100%	100.0%	100%	100%	100.0%

a. Source: Field Survey, 2006.

Table-7.6 Anx Hazara, District wise Parent's Choice of Girl's Education.

Parent's Choice of Girl's Education		Districts					Total
		01	02	03	04	05	
Formal	Count	58	92	38	0	10	198
	%	14.5%	18.4%	5.8%	.0%	3.8%	9.9%
Religious	Count	88	96	240	122	180	726
	%	22.0%	19.2%	36.4%	67.8%	69.2%	36.3%
Both	Count	254	312	382	58	70	1076
	%	63.5%	62.4%	57.9%	32.2%	26.9%	53.8%
Total	Count	400	500	660	180	260	2000
	%	100%	100%	100.0%	100%	100%	100%

a. Source: Field Survey, 2006.

Table-7.7 Anx Hazara, District wise Parent's Choice of Girl's Institution.

Parent's Choice of Girl's Institution		Districts					Total
		01	02	03	04	05	
No where	Count	24	6	4	4	58	96
	%	6.0%	1.2%	.6%	2.2%	22.3%	4.8%
School	Count	70	150	92	2	10	324
	%	17.5%	30.0%	13.9%	1.1%	3.8%	16.2%
Madrassa	Count	50	78	208	122	118	576
	%	12.5%	15.6%	31.5%	67.8%	45.4%	28.8%
Both	Count	256	266	356	52	74	1004
	%	64.0%	53.2%	53.9%	28.9%	28.5%	50.2%
Total	Count	400	500	660	180	260	2000
	%	100%	100%	100.0%	100.0%	100%	100.0%

a. Source: Field Survey, 2006.

Table-7.8 Anx Hazara, District wise Paren's Choice of Profession for Girls after Education.[a]

Choice of Profession		Districts					Total
		01	02	03	04	05	
Doctor.	Count	91	104	179	26	35	435
	%	22.8%	20.8%	27.1%	14.4%	13.5%	21.8%
Teacher	Count	168	206	271	26	47	718
	%	42.0%	41.2%	41.1%	14.4%	18.1%	35.9%
Nurse	Count	54	88	62	2	8	214
	%	13.5%	17.6%	9.4%	1.1%	3.1%	10.7%
Any other	Count	2	16	4	2	0	24
	%	.5%	3.2%	.6%	1.1%	.0%	1.2%
Nil	Count	85	86	144	124	170	609
	%	21.3%	17.2%	21.8%	68.9%	65.4%	30.5%
Total	Count	400	500	660	180	260	2000
	%	100.0%	100.0%	100%	100.0%	100%	100%

a. Source: Field Survey, 2006.

Table-7.9 Anx Batagram District, Community wis Parent's Choice of Profession forGirls after Education.[a]

Choice of Profession		Communities					Total
		0401	0402	0403	0404	0405	
Doctor.	Count	12	14	0	0	0	26
	%	33.3%	38.9%	.0%	.0%	.0%	14.4%
Teacher	Count	18	8	0	0	0	26
	%	50.0%	22.2%	.0%	.0%	.0%	14.4%
Nurse	Count	2	0	0	0	0	2
	%	5.6%	.0%	.0%	.0%	.0%	1.1%
Any other	Count	0	2	0	0	0	2
	%	.0%	5.6%	.0%	.0%	.0%	1.1%
Nil	Count	4	12	36	36	36	124
	%	11.1%	33.3%	100%	100%	100%	68.9%
Total	Count	36	36	36	36	36	180
	%	100.0%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100.0%

a. Source: Field Survey, 2006.

Table-7.10 Anx Hazara, Gender & District wise Equal Opportunities of Formal Education.

Gender	Equality		Districts 01	02	03	04	05	Total
Female	Yes	Count	144	202	102	6	18	472
		%	70.2%	60.7%	34.7%	7.3%	22.5%	47.5%
	No	Count	61	131	192	76	62	522
		%	29.8%	39.3%	65.3%	92.7%	77.5%	52.5%
	Total	Count	205	333	294	82	80	994
		%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100%	100%	100.0%
Male	Yes	Count	122	107	134	14	32	409
		%	62.6%	64.1%	36.6%	14.3%	17.8%	40.7%
	No	Count	73	60	232	84	148	597
		%	37.4%	35.9%	63.4%	85.7%	82.2%	59.3%
	Total	Count	195	167	366	98	180	1006
		%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100%	100%	100.0%

a. Source: Field Survey, 2006.

Table-7.11 Anx Batagram, Gender & Community wis Equal Opportunities of Formal Education.

Gender	Equal Opportunity		Communities 0401	0402	0403	0404	0405	Total
Female	Yes	Count	0	0	0	0	0	6
		%	.0%	.0%	.0%	.0%	.0%	7.3%
	No	Count	14	8	22	16	16	76
		%	100.0%	57.1%	100%	100.0%	100.0%	92.7%
	Total	Count	14	14	22	16	16	82
		%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100.0%	100.0%
Male	Yes	Count	6	8	0	0	0	14
		%	27.3%	36.4%	.0%	.0%	.0%	14.3%
	No	Count	16	14	14	20	20	84
		%	72.7%	63.6%	100%	100.0%	100.0%	85.7%
	Total	Count	22	22	14	20	20	98
		%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100.0%	100.0%

a. Source: Field Survey, 2006.

Annex Chapter 8

Anx Table-8.1 Hazara, Gender &District wise Imposition of Decisions in Family Matters.[a]

Districts		Imposition of Decisions in Family Matters			Total
		Gent	Lady	Both	
Haripur	Count	374	22	4	400
	%	93.5%	5.5%	1.0%	100.0%
Abbottabad	Count	338	58	104	500
	%	67.6%	11.6%	20.8%	100.0%
Mansehra	Count	487	39	134	660
	%	73.8%	5.9%	20.3%	100.0%
Batagram	Count	176	4	0	180
	%	97.8%	2.2%	.0%	100.0%
Kohistan	Count	260	0	0	260
	%	100.0%	.0%	.0%	100.0%
Total	Count	1635	123	242	2000
	%	81.8%	6.2%	12.1%	100.0%

a. Source: Field Survey,2006.

Anx Table-8.2 Hazara Region, Reasons for No Women Assistance in Decision-making.[a]

Reasons		Districts					Total
		01	02	03	04	05	
Illiteracy	Count	34	10	86	4	19	153
	%	28.5%	13.1%	26.4%	16.6%	18.4%	23.6%
No awareness	Count	18	16	76	0	14	124
	%	15.1%	21.0%	23.1%	.0%	13.4%	19.1%
No wisdom with her	Count	18	10	54	0	20	102
	%	15.1%	13.1%	17.2%	.0%	19.6%	15.7%
Inferior Gender	Count	49	40	104	20	50	263
	%	41.2%	52.6%	31.9%	83.3%	49.2%	40.6%
Other	Count	0	0	6	0	0	6
	%	.0%	.0%	2.0%	.0%	.0%	1.0%
Total	Count	119	76	326	24	103	648
	%	100%	100.0%	100%	100%	100%	100.0%

a. Source: Field Survey,2006.

Anx Table-8.3 Hazara, Gender& District wise Women should Cast votes?

Women should Caste votes		Districts					Total
		01	02	03	04	05	
Yes	Count	324	412	366	48	46	1196
	%	81.0%	82.4%	55.5%	26.7%	17.7%	59.8%
No	Count	76	88	294	132	214	804
	%	19.0%	17.6%	44.5%	73.3%	82.3%	40.2%
Total	Count	400	500	660	180	260	2000
	%	100.0%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%

a. Source: Field Survey, 2006.

Anx Table-8.4Hazara Region, District wise Women Participation in Politics.

Women should Participate in Politics		Districts					Total
		01	02	03	04	05	
Yes	Count	288	364	278	16	22	968
	%	72.0%	72.8%	42.1%	8.9%	8.5%	48.4%
No	Count	112	136	382	164	238	1032
	%	28.0%	27.2%	57.9%	91.1%	91.5%	51.6%
Total	Count	400	500	660	180	260	2000
	%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100.0%	100%

a. Source: Field Survey, 2006.

Anx Table-8.5 Hazara Region, District wise Reasons to' No' Women Participation in Politics.

Reasons		Districts					Tota l
		01	02	03	04	05	
Illiteracy	Count	52	32	110	60	94	348
	%	46.4%	23.5%	28.7%	36.5%	39.4%	33.7%
No awareness	Count	20	28	62	26	22	158
	%	17.8%	20.5%	16.2%	15.8%	9.2%	15.3%
No wisdom with her	Count	22	38	38	2	0	100
	%	19.6%	27.9%	9.9%	1.2%	.0%	9.6%
On the cost of domestic work	Count	18	28	50	8	0	104
	%	16.0%	20.5%	13.0%	4.8%	.0%	10.0%
No Decision Power	Count	0	4	42	10	0	56
	%	.0%	2.9%	10.9%	6.0%	.0%	5.4%
No Ttradition	Count	0	2	80	44	72	198
	%	.0%	1.4%	20.9%	26.8%	30.2%	19.1%
Shameless Act	Count	0	4	0	14	28	46
	%	.0%	2.9%	.0%	8.5%	11.7%	4.4%
Un-Islamic	Count	0	0	0	0	22	22
	%	.0%	.0%	.0%	.0%	9.2%	2.1%
Total	Count	112	136	382	164	238	1032
	%	100.0%	100%	100%	100.0%	100%	100%

a. Source: Field Survey, 2006.

Anx Table-8.6 Hazara Region, Favour for Women Contesting Election.

Favour for Women Contesting		Districts					Total
		01	02	03	04	05	
Yes	Count	274	105	270	34	28	984
	%	68.5%	75.6%	40.9%	18.9%	10.8%	49.2%
No	Count	126	122	390	146	232	1016
	%	31.5%	24.4%	59.1%	81.1%	89.2%	50.8%
Total	Count	400	500	660	180	260	2000
	%	100%	100.0%	100.0%	100%	100.0%	100%

a. Source: Field Survey, 2006.

Anx Table-8.7 Hazara Region, Education of Women Contesting Election.

Education of Women Contesting		Districts					Total
		01	02	03	04	05	
Matric	Count	85	105	89	16	12	307
	%	31.0%	27.7%	32.9%	47.0%	42.8%	31.1%
Graduate	Count	173	217	176	18	16	600
	%	63.1%	57.4%	65.0%	52.5%	57.0%	60.9%
More than Graduate	Count	0	50	3	0	0	53
	%	.0%	13.2%	1.1%	.0%	.0%	5.3%
No Education	Count	4	6	2	0	0	12
	%	1.4%	1.5%	.7%	.0%	.0%	1.2%
Primary	Count	12	0	0	0	0	12
	%	4.3%	.0%	.0%	.0%	.0%	1.2%
Total	Count	274	378	270	34	28	984
	%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%

a. Source: Field Survey, 2006.

Anx Table-8.8 Hazara Region, Women's Administrative Level of Contesting Election.

Women's Level of Contesting		Districts					Total
		01	02	03	04	05	
Local	Count	8	38	20	6	8	80
	%	2.9%	10.1%	7.4%	17.6%	28.5%	8.1%
District	Count	68	97	56	20	14	255
	%	24.8%	25.7%	20.7%	58.8%	50.0%	25.9%
Provincial	Count	54	87	64	2	0	207
	%	19.7%	23.0%	23.7%	5.9%	.0%	21.0%
National	Count	30	52	26	0	0	108
	%	10.9%	13.8%	9.6%	.0%	.0%	10.9%
All	Count	114	104	104	6	6	334
	%	41.6%	27.5%	38.5%	17.6%	21.4%	33.9%
Total	Count	274	378	270	34	28	984
	%	100.0%	100.0%	100%	100.0%	100%	100%

a. Source: Field Survey, 2006.

AnxTable-8.9 Hazara Region, District wise Reasons to 'No' Women Contesting Election

Reasons		Districts					Total
		01	02	03	04	05	
Illiteracy	Count	56	46	86	52	50	290
	%	44.4%	37.7%	22.0%	35.6%	21.5%	28.5%
No awareness	Count	6	18	56	8	24	112
	%	4.7%	13.1%	14.3%	5.4%	10.3%	11.0%
No wisdom with her	Count	10	8	35	0	0	53
	%	7.9%	6.5%	8.9%	.0%	.0%	5.2%
No Decision Power	Count	18	18	48	2	0	86
	%	14.2%	14.7%	12.3%	1.3%	.0%	8.4%
Restricted to Home	Count	36	18	59	20	0	133
	%	28.5%	14.7%	15.1%	13.6%	.0%	13.0%
No Ttradition	Count	0	8	72	16	38	134
	%	.0%	6.5%	18.5%	10.9%	16.3%	13.1%
Gender Discrmination	Count	0	6	34	44	76	160
	%	.0%	4.9%	8.7%	30.1%	32.7%	15.7%
Shameless Act	Count	0	0	0	4	14	18
	%	.0%	.0%	.0%	2.7%	6.0%	1.7%
Un-Islamic	Count	0	0	0	0	30	30
	%	.0%	.0%	.0%	.0%	12.9%	2.9%
Total	Count	126	122	390	146	232	1016
	%	100%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

[a] Source: Field Survey, 2006.

Annexure "B"

Questionnaire

Reasons of female low literacy and basic education in Hazara region.

(Interview schedule for households)

Community Code [ ] Questionnaire No. [ ]

SECTION 1 HOUSEHOLD PROFILE

1.1. Respondent's Sex_____ Caste/Tribe_____ Sub-caste_____

a. Adults

S/No.	Sex	Age	Relationship	Occupation	Place of work	Education	Income	Expenditure
1								
2								
3								
4								
5								
6								
7								
8								
9								
10								
11								
12								
13								
14								
15								

b. Children.

S/No.	Sex	Age	Relationship	Education Status	
				Going to School	Not going to School
1					
2					
3					
4					
5					
6					
7					
8					
9					
10					

1.2 Male_____ Female_____ Total_____

1.3 If children above 5 years are not going to school, explain reasons?

1.4 Reasons for boys 1 _____2 _____3 _____

1.5 Reasons for girls 1 _____ 2 _____3 _____

SECTION 2 PHYSICAL FACTORS

3.1 Is there any physical barrier in between your girl's school and home? (1) Yes (2) No

3.2 Would you like to send your daughters to a neighbouring higher school? (1) Yes (2) No

3.3 If no, explain reasons? 1. _____2. _____3. _____

3.4 What is the distance of other neighbouring higher school?
(1) 1-2 kms. (2) 3-5 kms. (3) 6-10 kms. (4) 10+ km

3.5 What is the distance of neighbouring College/ University?
(1) 10 kms. (2) 25 kms. (3) 50kms. (4) 100+ kms.

3.6 How your children go to school? (1) On foot. (2) By bus. (3) Any other way

3.7 Do you change your habitations during summers and winters? (1) Yes (2)

3.8 If yes, what about your children's schooling?
(1) Continue (2) Discontinue (3) No effect

SECTION 3 SOCIO CULTURAL FACTORS

2.1 What is your education? (1) Illiterate (2) Metric (3) Graduate (4) More

2.2 If not graduate, why could not you resume your further education?
1. _____2. _____3. _____

2.3 What is your mother's education? (1) Illiterate (2) Metric (3) Graduate (4) M

2.4 Have your females learnt Quran by domestic religious education? (1) Yes (2) No

2.5 If yes, then, (1) Nazra (2) Hifz (3) With understanding/meaning.

2.6 Have your females learnt any other religious book as informal education? (1 Yes (2) No

2.7 If yes, name the book _____

2.8 Where would you like to send your girls? (1) School (2). *Madrassa* (3) Both

2.9 Which type of education you prefer for girls? (1) Modern (2) *Religious* (3) Bo

2.10 Is there any custom of female modern/technical education in your family? (1 Yes (2) No

2.11 If no, explain reasons? 1. _____2. _____3. _____

2.12 Is it necessary for women to get education? (1) Yes (2) No

2.13 If no, explain reasons? 1. _____2. _____3. _____

2.14 Do your girls get chances of modern/technical education equal to boys? (1) Yes (2) No

2.15 If no, explain reasons? 1. _____2. _____3. _____

2.16 If yes, what are the benefits? 1. _____2. _____ 3. _____

2.17 After completion of education, which profession would you prefer for your girls?

(1) Doctor. (2) Teacher. (3) Nurse. (4) Any other. (5) Nil

2.18 Have you any source of information at home? (1) Yes (2) No

2.19 If no, explain reasons? 1. _____2. _____3. _____

2.20 If yes then, which type of source?
(1). Radio (2) T.V. (3) Cable (4) Internet (5) Newspaper. (6) Books/Journal (7) Other.

SECTION 4 GOOD GOVERNANCE AND WOMEN'S EMPOWERMEN

4.1 Do your women assist gents in decision -making? (1) Yes (2) No

4.2 If yes, then at which level? (1) Domestic (2) Social (3) Political

(4) All

4.3 Should women caste their votes like men to elect their reps? (1) Yes (2) No

4.4 If yes, should they participate in politics? (1) Yes (2) No

4.5 If no then what are the reasons? _____

4.6 Should women be educated before participating in politics? (1) Yes (2) No

4.7 Will you like to elect a woman member? (1) Yes (2) No

4.8 If yes, then what should be her qualification?

_____

4.9 If yes, then at which level? (1) District (2) Provincial (3) National (4) All

4.10 If no then what are the reasons? _____

SECTION 5 ECONOMIC FACTORS

5.1 What type of property you have?

1. House a. Owned b. Rented c. Other
2. Land a. Owned b. Rented c. Other
3. Farm a. Owned b. Rented c. Other
4. Other a. Owned b. Rented c. Other

5.2 What are your major sources of Income?

1. _____ 2. _____ 3. _____ 4. _____

5.3 How many men (other than farmers) are employed in your family_____?

5.4 Where are they employed? 1._____ 2._____ 3._____

5.5 How many women (other than housewives) are employed in your family?_____

5.6 Where are they employed? 1._____ 2._____ 3._____

5.7 Where you spend most of your money?

1. Ration 2.Clothing 3. Shelter 4. Education 5.Litigation 6. Disease 7. Other_____

5.8 How much you spend on your children's education? Approx ._____/mo

5.9 How much you spend on your girl's education? Approx Rs._____/month.

5.10 Where you place yourselves in society? 1. Poor 2. Middle Class 3. Rich

5.11 Does poverty effects your children's education? (1) Yes (2) No

5.12 If yes, then what are the major reasons of poverty?

1. _____ 2. _____ 3. _____

5.13 How you can overcome poverty locally?

1. _____ 2. _____ 3. _____

5.14 What measures should be taken by government to improve your economic resources?

1. _____ 2. _____ 3_____

5.15 What are the main reasons of low literacy amongst women in your area?

_____

_____

5.16 What measures should be taken by government to enhance the literacy rate of your area?

RECOMMENDATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

_____

_____

_____

5.17 Any other idea or point related to women development and education you want to say?

_____

_____

Common Abbreviations Used

A.D.	Anno Domini/ anno Dominic
a.m.	Ante meridian
ADB	Agricultural Development Bank
ANX	Annexure
A/O	Anglo/Oriental
APWA	All Pakistan Women's Association
B.C	before Christ
BOS	Bureau of Statistics
℃	degree centigrade
Chaps	Chapters
CIDA	Canadian International Development Agency
CEDAW	Convention on the Elimination of all forms of Discrimination Against Women
DC	Deputy Commissioner
DCOs	District Council Organisations/District Coordinating Officers
DCR	District Census Report
Dr.	Doctor
D.Sc.	Doctor of Science
Edu.	Education
EFA	Education for All
e.g.	Example gratia
EIROP	Essential Institutional Reforms Operationalisation Programme
FATA	Federally Administrative Tribal Area
FOA	Faculty of Arts
Fig	Figure
GDP	Grand Domestic Production
GGPS	Government Girl's Primary School
GMPS	Government Mosque Primary School
GNP	Grand Domestic Production
GO	Governmental Organizations
GONWFP	Government of North Western Frontier Province
GOP	Government of Pakistan
GPS	Government Primary School
GOVT	Government
Haq, M	Mehboob-ul-Haq
Haq, K	Khadija Haq
HDC	Human Development Centre
HDR	Human Development Report
HH	Household
HJP	Himalayan Jungle Project
HHS	Household Size
HSS	Higher Secondary School
ICBP	International Council for Bird Preservation
ILO	International Labour Organisation
KKH	Karakoram Highway
Km	Kilometre
Kms	Kilometres
Lab	Laboratory
Lt Col	Lieutenant Colonel

Lt Gen	*Lieutenant General*
MDG	*Millennium Development Goals*
M.Phil.	*Master of Philosophy*
NACS	*Northern Areas Conservation Strategy*
NCHD	*National Commission for Human Development*
NEP	*National Education Policy*
NGO	*Non Governmental Organizations*
NWFP	*North Western Frontier Province*
OPEC	*Oil Producing and Exporting Countries*
PBUH	*Peace Be Upon Him*
PCDP	*Palas Conservatory Development Programme*
Ph.D.	*Doctor of Philosophy*
PTA	*Parents Teachers Association*
Retd	*Retired*
Rs.	*Rupees*
SAP	*Social Action Programme*
Sep	*September*
SMC	*School Management Committee*
SPCS	*Sarhad Provincial Conservation Strategy*
SPSS-PC	*Statistical Package for Social Sciences-Personal Computer*
Sq. Kms	*Square Kilometres*
TA/DA	*Travelling Allowance/Duty Allowance*
UC	*Union Council*
UCs	*Union Councils*
UK	*United Kingdom/ Umm-e-Kulsoom*
UN	*United Nations*
UNDP	*United Nations Development Programme*
UNESCO	*United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization*
US	*United States*
USSR	*Union of Soviet Socialist Republics*
VEC	*Village Education Committee*
WCCD	*Women Child care Development*
WDC	*Women Development Cell*
(WPA	*Wildlife Protection Agency*
WWF	*World Wild Fund*
Yrs.	*Years*

Annexure "D"

Number and composition of union councils constituted under the provision of section-3 of local government elections ordinance – 2000 in district Haripur.

Sr/ No	Name of Tehsil	Name of Union Council	Name of Patwar Circle/ Mouzziat included in (composition)	Population
1.	Haripur	Tofkian	PC Tofkian: Badalpur, Gorham, Julian Katha, Mamrial, Archibald, Mirpur, Nikray, Pind Gakhrra, Sultanpur & Tofkian.	14925
2.	Haripur	Najifpur	PC Choi: Bhera, Chatti, Choi, Dobandi, Nain Sukh, Mohrra Ghazan, Saradhna, Shohal, Tarnawa, PC Najifpur, Babutri, Dartain, Dhunia, Kamalpur, Khooi Kaman, Najifpur, Tarmakan.	18793
3.	Haripur	Khanpur	PC Khanpur: Khanpur, Pambala, Khraila & Surajgali.	15108
4.	Haripur	Hattar	PC Hattar: Vijian, Chak Kamalpur, Hattar, Raniwah, Kamalpur & Shadi.	16468
5.	Haripur	Bherrary	PC Bherarray : Baghpur Dehri, Bakka, Beesban, Bherarray, Cheskalan, Kohi Bagran, Kotla, Narota, Pakshahi, Ranjiha, Sarbaroot & Shah Kabul. PC Garamthoon: Garamthoon, Kainthla, Karwali, Kot Jandan, Kotehrra, Nartopa, Rajdhani, Sabra, Sohawa, Tarmakki.	16094
6.	Haripur	Bandi Sher Khan	PC Gandhian: Gandhian & Shawan PC Drushkhel: Bandi Sher Khan, Drushkhel, Barthal, Bhuttary, Bajwala, Ghari Sharian & Phallahgali.	18136
7.	Haripur	Barkot	PC Kharian : Banth, Barkot, Narliala, Jalees, Kharian, Komal, Makhnial, Neelan Bhoto and Roneela PC Halli : Desra, Halli, Jandi, Seri.	17366
8.	Haripur	Darwesh	PC Darwesh: Darwesh, Meelam, Alam, Doian Aabi and Bhand Block No. 1 of Circle No. 6 of urban area. Block No. 3 of Circle No. 6 and block No. 6 of circle No. 6.	13808
9.	Haripur	Bareela	PC Bareela: Bandi Munim, Chak Bandi Munim, Bareela & Kohi Nara.	12175
10	Haripur	Sirya	PC Mang : Bandi Guloo, Bandi Sirya, Kali Tarli, Kali Trar Utli, Khido Pinju, Mang, Sirya.	12216
11	Haripur	Panian	PC Painan: Panian, Kangra, Abdullahpur, Todoo, and Ganai.	15744

12	Haripur	Dingi	PC Dhedar: Cganba Pind, Cgaar Dhedar, Dhedar, Dingi, Ladha, Mohri Malia, Mohri Pir Bakhash and Motian.	14604
13	Haripur	Rehana	PC Noordi: Chitrri, Ding, Kamalpir, Koka, Kotha-Pirkot, Noordi, Pind Jamal Khan and Rehana. PC Chaijian: Chajjian, Airal and Siribang.	16005
14	Haripur	Bakka	PC Bhera: Bhera, Gudwalian, Kalu Pind, Sari PC Bakka Bakka, Gehrra, Koklia and Paharro.	16155
15	Haripur	Dheendah	PC Jagal: Jagal, Dheendah and Kalas PC Choher: Chek Sikandarpur, Choher, Khewa, Padhana and Qazian PC Khalabat: Bahdo, Khalabat, Marnaya, Narra.	16163
16	Haripur	Mankrai	PC Mankrai: Kahaka, Mankarai, Bajeeda Jogi, Mohrs, Mohammado, Pharhala, Mohra, PC Makhan Baseera, Dobandi, Jama and Makhan.	18230
17	Haripur	Sikandarpur	PC Haripur : Dheri, Haripur, Miepur, Malkiar & Sikandarpur	15337
18	Haripur	Pandak	PC Pandak: Gher Khan, Mirpur, Pandak and Talokar.	15399
19	Haripur	Ali Khan	PC Ali Khan: Ali Khan, Chak Shah Mohammad, Chak Talokar, Kahal, Muradabad, Mocasa and Shah Mohammad.	12808
20	Haripur	Serai Saleh	PC Serai Saleh : Changi Bandi, Garr, Sarai Saleh.	18614
21	Haripur	Maqsood	PC Maqsood Akhoon Bandi heba, Kalawan, Maqsood, Maira Toot, Mothri, Nikapah and Thanda Choha.	12182
22	Haripur	Bagra	PC Bagra: Bagra, Baldhar, Karwala, Ratta Banna and Shoraag.	12901
23	Haripur	Kholian Bala	PC Kholian Bala: Chiti Dhati, Toroo Dhoke, Dobandi, Kailag, Kholian & Qazi Maira.	15615
24	Haripur	Pind Kamal Khan	PC Pind Seran : Bandi Seran, Chechaian, Dhoke, Doia Khushki, Galham, Pind Kamal Khan Rarra, Thalla and Thipra PC Jab: Jab, Kohala Pian, Sanjiala.	17135
25	Haripur	Pind Hasham Khan	PC Pind Haasham Khan : Magri, Nartopa, Phararri, Pind Hasham Khan, Rakh Sarkar and Teer.	14031
26	Haripur	Serai Niamat Khan	PC Sarai Namat Khan: Banda Munir Khan. PC Norpur Paswai: Serian Dharam Pani, Talhad, Serai Niamat Khan, Bandi Pirdad, Bayan Ahmed Ali Khan, Kandal, Noorpur Paswal, Shingrri.	20018
27	Haripur	Kot Nejeebullah	PC Kot Najeeb Ulah: Ganja Kamala, Kot Najibullah and Sarai Gadai.	20154

28.	Haripur	Jatti Pind	PC Dragrri : Kag, Jatti Pind, Alooli, Phuldhar, Paniala. PC Darri : Chappar, Darri, Jorra Pind, Kot.	12426
29.	Haripur	Beer	PC Beer : Beer, Kanger Arrigah and Soha PC Kakotri : Banda Nayian, Banda Bakhtawar, Banda Mughlan, Beheki, Bahat, Karan, Ganhari, Nelore, Kakotri and Nulakki PC Kacchi : Chanjiala, Chati, Darwaza, Gorrakki and Kacchi.	20081
30.	Haripur	Kalinjar	PC Kalinjar : Kalinjar PC Gandf : Ganaf, Kanikot Khairi, Marri and Tavi. PC Swabi Maira: Kundriala, Swabi, Maira and Thapla, PC Dheri: Dheri Buraj Khanpur. PC Pind Khankhel: Pind Khankhel, Ladrakki, Kangar, Muradpur, Saidpur. PC Kharkot: Kharkot, Anorra.	15545
31.	Haripur	Ladarmang	PC Lalogali: Darya Doga, Dera, Kariplian, Lalogali and Maira Khairoo PC Ladarmang: Badhora, Badgran, Ladarmang, Roh. PC Dalrri: Bandi Labial, Choprra, Beghdara, Dakhot, Dalrri, Hall Judal Janjaka, Karlakian, Kharan, Kund Kalu Khan, Kundiala, Maliara, Sado Ban, Baralian, Sanda Ganda and Chaintry.	15414
32.	Haripur	Jabri	PC Jabri : Jabri, Akhorra, Badhar, Bandi Kiala, Darkot, Kohala Bala, Nullah, Tial.	9847
33.	Ghazi	Ghazi	PC Ghazi: Bhai, Barwasa, Ghazi, Essa, Jalo, Khalo, and Sobra.	19042
34.	Ghazi	Qazipur	PC Mian Dheri : Chak Mirpur, Mian Dheri, Mirpur Garhi, Naqarchian and Shiekh Choor PC Qazipur: Aldo Jabbi, Hassanpur, Jammu and Qazipur.	11095
35.	Ghazi	Kundi	PC Mohat : Mohat, Dall. PC Salam Khand : Kundi Omer Khana and Salam Khand	15832
36	Ghazi	Sirikot	PC Sirikot: Sirikot. PC Gojra: Gojra, Bail and Garhan.	15451
37.	Ghazi	Kotehrra	PC Kotehrra: Amgah, Darchitti, Kotehrra, Thalkot and Baghdarra . PC Badaros: Badaros, Dhoke, Jabbar, Kala Katha, Khoi Darra and Padarra PC Khairbarra: Bandi, Chamiari, Garra, Khairbarra, Pipliala.	23762
38.	Ghazi	Baitgali	PC Ashra : Ashra, chakli, Choora, Devi and Gali. PC Baitgali: Amb Baitgali and Kaneer PC Keva Keya PC Sithana Laqab, Batag and Sithana PC Khabal Khabal.	13417
39.	Ghazi	Nara Amazai	PC Kali Larr: Choora, Charwai and Kali Larr , PC Narrs: Bring Wall , Bela, Dheryan Kupla Nara, Shah Mohammad	14450

			Garhi and Shingrri, PC Parba Parba and Degra PC Kuprri Kuprri	
40.	Haripur	Haripur North	Cirle No Block No 3 of Circle No.3 Block No. 1,2 & 4 of Circle No. 2	14358
41	Haripur	Haripur Central	Block No . 1,2 & 4 of Cercle No . 3 Block No. 3,5 and 5 of Circle No. 2 Block No . 1,2 and 5 of Circle No. 4	13879
42.	Haripur	Haripur South	Block No. 3 & 4 of Circle No .4 Bock No . 1,2,3,4 & 5 of Circle No 5. Block No. 2,4 & 5 of Circle No 6.	15975
43.	Haripur	Tarbela	Circle No 1 Circle No 2 Block No .9 of Circle No 4.	16250
44.	Haripur	Khalabat	Circle No. 3 Circle No 4 except Block No 9	17688

Source: Collected by the author form the office of the D.C.O Haripur.

Number and composition of union councils constituted under the provision of section-3 of local government elections ordinance - 2000 in district Abbottabad.

S/No.	Name of Tehsil	Name of Union Council	Name of Patwar Circle/Mouzziat included in (composition)	Population
1.	Abbottabad	Dalola	PC Dalola Dalola, Dabban, Narokam	18900
2.	Abbottabad	Boi	PC Boi: Boi, Bandi Samand, Barbeem Batangi, Didal , Nakka, Pal Rankot, Tori, PC Sambli Dheri Sambli Dehri, Bandi Hamza, Bandi Pahar , Chak Gali, Mohri Phogran,	17001
3.	Abbottabad	Kukmong	PC Kukmong Kukmong, Kothiala , Pattan, Khurd,	10843
4.	Abbottabad	Nambal	PC Nambal Nambal, Majuhan.	14173
5.	Abbottabad	Pattan Kalan	PC Pattan Kalan Pattan Kalan. PC Sialkot Bandi, Saraha, Banota, Chamiali, Khokhriala, Larri,	16116
6.	Abbottabad	Bakot	PC Bakot Bakot, PC moolia Moolia Sanga.	23153
7.	Abbottabad	Berote Kalan	PC Berote Kalan Berote Kalan Kahoo Sharqi, PC Berote KhurdBerote Khurd, Kahoo Gharbi,	26012
8.	Abbottabad	Palak	PC Palak Palak, Arwar, Darwaza, Sorijal PC Riala. Riala, Kala Ban, Longal, Malkot.	18997
9.	Abbottabad	Nagri Bala	PC Nagrii Bala Nagri Bala, Akhroota, Makool Bala, Tahtreela	12911
10.	Abbottabad	Nathagali	PC Malach Malach Keri,	16702

			Saralali Pasala, PC Bagan Bagan , Jhansa, Lassan,	
11.	Abbottabad	Seer Garbi	PC Seer Garbi Seer Garbi, Basbher , Malmola PC Tajawal Tajawal , Nowshera, Pirkot, Taplal	18660
12.	Abbottabad	Nagri Totial	PC Nagri Totil Nagri Totil PC Seer Sharqi Seer Sharqi, Bhatian, Taror,	17632
13.	Abboottabad	Namli Maira	PC Namli Maira Namli Maira, Dhaki Khaitar, Noormang, Pangoora PC Bagnotar Bagnotar, Bandi, Maira, Chhan.	20440
14.	Abbottabad	Beerangali	PC Beerangali Beerangli, Andarseri, Jhafar.	12329
15.	**Abbottabad**	**Sarbhana Phalkot**	**PC Sarbhana Sarbhana** Aziz Abad Dang ,Desal Khan , Mohar Khurd, Sadra, Seergah PC Phalkot Phalkot Malsa	21121
16.	Abbottabad	Bagh	PC Bagh Bagh, Jaggian, Kohalian, Kehal	13240
17.	Abbottabad	Kuthwal	PC Chatri Calri, Bandi Mansoor, Galp Banian Kuthwal, Maira Rehmat Khan , Mohar Kalan	11669
18.	Abbottabad	Gharhi Phulgran	PC Ghari, Phulgran Ghari Phulgran, Harnara , Ghora Bazgran , Mannan , Kiala , PC Rajoya Rajoya Thith ocher .	20433
19.	**Abbottabad**	**Bandi Atti Khan**	**PC Bandi Atti Khan** Bandi Atti Khan, Burseen, Batopni, Kotla Majhat , **Phulan wali** , Pipal, Salwatan, Sareela.	13853
20.	Abbottabad	Jhangra	PC Jhangra Jhangra, Chamba, Kalu Maira, Nowshera, PC Havelian Havelian (Rural)Darooni Mairra, Mala, Sultanpur, Wazeera.	23629
21.	Abbottabad	Majohan	PC Majohan Majohan Garba, Masah Gojri, Masah Syedan, Mera, Tarla, PC Riala, Chamnaka, Chandu, Maira, Dahank, Hajia, Karach, Mohari, Sanwala, Termuchian.	15528
22.	Abbottabad	Langrial	PC Langrial Langrial , Dabra, Karhaki, Gali, Batgran, PC Danna, Nooral Danna Nooral, Baseera, Chotala, Faqir Muhammad , Lassan , Mania.	12451
23.	Abbottabad	Nara	PC Nara Nara, Gohra, Maira Utla, Mohri-bad PC Satora Satora,Dakhan , Ghangah, Kanger, Hoter, Kehan Mari.	15690
24.	Abbottabad	Dewal Manal	PC Sajikot Sajikot, Ghehr, Dewal , Mannal , Makool Tarli,	10899

			Nagri, Taili.	
25.	Abbottabad	Goreeni	PC Goreeni ,Kotal, Palasi PC Danah Danah, Bagla. Bajarian, Banwari, Suma Garhaga.	15516
26.	Abbottabad	Phallah	PC Ghambeer Ghambeer, Ateran, Dheri, Rakhala, Galli, Kashmir, Ropar, Phallah PC Rahi Rahi, Battal Kund, Bhajoora , Charbat, Dhakan, Paisar, Maira, Sher pur.	18996
27.	Abbottabad	Lora	PC Lora Dheri Koala, Ghari, Ghora Narhoter, Noorpur,Seri, Thath , Karam Shah.	11733
28.	Abbottabad	Banda pir Khan	PC Bandi Dhundan Bandi Dhwndan Banda Pir Khan PC Ternawal Tarnawal	25385
29.	Abbottabad	Baldheri	PC Baldheri Baldheri , Gojri, Hal Mira Tarla, Hal Maira Utla, Jalalpura, More Kalan, Sajikot, Tannan.	14796
30	Abbottabad	Mirpur	PC Mirpur : Mirpur	18765
31	**Abbottabad**	**Kakul**	**PC Kakul : Kakul**, Balolia, Mandroch Kalan, Mandroach Khurd, Nawansher Shamali : Nawansher Shamali Nawansher Janoobi: Nawansher Janoobi.	17411
32	Abbottabad	Dhamtour	PC Dhamtour: Dhamtour, Banda Shohalian, Gul dhok PC Nagaki Nagaki, Handa Banda Bazdar, Jaswal, Ukhrela.	18493
33	Abbottabad	Sheikhulbandi	PC Sheikhulbandi: Sheikhulbandi, Qasba Abbottabad, Rakh Civil Military.	18193
34	Abbottabad	Salhad	PC Salhad: Salhad, Khokar	21211
35	Abbottabad	Jhangi	PC Jhangi : Jhangi, Banda Amlok, Banda Batang, Banda Faizullah, Banda Gasan, Banda Khair Ali Khan, Banda Lamba, Banda Noor Ahmed, Banda Phagwarian, Banda Qazi, Banda Sher Khan, Dheri, Dobather.	26226
36	Abbottabad	Pawa	PC Kakot : Kakot, Bandi Matrach, Bazurgal, Chatrhi, Garamri, Gogarhi, Pando Thana, Pasial, Patheri, Seydan, Peshail, Sargal, Sherbai, Sial, Talehar, Thathi PC Pawa, Banda Jaghian, Kamhar, Bandi Kishna, Lalely- deBandi, Mochi Kot, Paswal Mian, Rechbhen, Sohlan Bala, Sohlan Tarli.	18326
37	Abbottabad	Chamhad	PC Chamhad: Chamhad, Bagh-Darah, Beramglai, Bisala,	17824

			Chamak Mera, Fateh Bandi, Khani Thathiara, Sarbangala, Shadial PC Kasaki Kalan : Kasaki Kalan, Kasaki khurd, Baghati, Bain Gojri, Bain Noora, Ban Seri, Bhoraj, Botiala, Daroparh, Jattal, Mehal, Thana.	
38	Abbottabad	Pind Kargu Khan	PC Pind Kargu Khan : Pind Kargu Khan, Barkot, Haal, Khalora, Tarla khalora, Utla, PC Lakhala : Lakhala, Gandah, Kangrora, Kahanda Khoo, Pind. PC Seri Sher shah: Seri, Sher Shah, Bandi Nikra, Bareela, Bacha Kalan, Bacha Khurd, Chahar, Chatha, Tandhara, Kanger Bala, Pohar, Rata.	17755
39	Abbottabad	Kuthiala	PC Kuthiala: Kuthiala, Gheley, Gup, Joghan Mar, Mukhdabi, Nallah, Paswal, Salyut, Sobra, Thali, Todoo PC Jarral: Jarral, Bacha Sani, Bhajwar, Gul Bandi, Jabbi, Khuliala, Kotnali, Nakhey.	18592
40	Abbottabad	Sherwan	PC Sherwan Sherwan Kalan, Sherwan Khurd, Bamochi, Bhateel Kalar, Khaitar, Kumbar, Amir Abad Shaheedabad, Beri, Chakair, Bain, Chorgran, Juna, Kamila, Kangar, Paian, Khalabat, Kharperh, Thathi Ahmed Khan.	15307
41	Abbottabad	Langra	PC Langra: Langra, Banda Sahib Khan, Lari.	16705
42	Abbottabad	Havelian (Urban)	PC Havelian: (Urban) Moh, Loharan, Moh Bega, Street Rozi Shah, National Bank, Lnda Bazar, Post Office Road, Moh Upper Bega, Forest Check Post, Moh, Kashmarian, Street Sarhadi, Moh, Tanki, Moh, Tall, Moh Tamber, Market, Moh Qabli, Moh, Mehboob Abad, Moh, Al-e-Hadees, Moh, Behram Khan, Zaib St, IQbal Market, Moh, Toli Khan, Moh, Roshan Din, Moh, Qasab, Moh, Zaman Shah, Cali Chan Pir, Gali Mohd Din, Moh Azam Khan, Abali, Tel, Kxchmage, etc, PC Kokal Kokal, Gajial, Jandaka.	20556
43	Abbottabad	Malikpura (Urban)	Circle-B-1 Shimla Hill, B-2 Chari & Chandni Vhowk, B-3 Mob, Sher Mohd, B-1 Moh, Qoli Khan B-1 Moh Kair, B-3 Khan,	16530

			B-5 Moh , Jail Circle-11-B Moh, Dhakki, B-2 Moh, Nazami Darul Khair, B-2 Moh, Maira Darul Khair, B-4 Chitta Pul, Madni Moh, B-5 Chitta Pul New Tehsil, Circular Road Kanshipura.	
44	Abbottabad	Central Abbottabad	Circle –II: B-6 Bus Stand, Moh, Sapan, Sabzi Mandi, Circle- II : B-1, Moh, Forerst, Moh Sikandar, Ahata Kutchary, Moh Raiskhana, B-2 Moh, Noor-ud-Din, Ahata Mian, Diggi mohallah B-3 Moh, Thakar, Gardwara, Jalian, Moh, Wakeel Mohallah, B-4 Karim Board Office, Aram- Bagh, Circle IV B-1 Kunj Jadeed , B-2 Kunj Qadeem B3 Dak Bunglow, Kund Ground, Qabli Mosque, Comp, School, B7, Kund Jadeed,Chari Moh, New Abadi.	15096
45	Abbottabad	Kehal (Urban)	Circle- IV : B-4 Moh, Mag, Moh Asif Shah, Abu- Zar Street, B-5. Saddiqua Moh, B-6 Moh Farooq Azam, Moh, Urmanian Circle-V : B- 1, Karbala Lower Kehal, B – 2 Upper Kehal, B-3 Khola Kehal, Moh, Kassi, Moh, Piran, B- 4 Khola Kehal, Moh, Sardar Sadiq , B.5 R,O office, Makki Moh, B-6 Moh, Uchari, Arambagh.	15983
46	Abbottabad	Nawansher (Urbsan)	Circle 1 to 3 Mohallah Mohammad Zai, Mohallah Nia, Ilyasi, Mohallah Sohaib Zai, Mohallah Imran Zai, Joggan, Mohllah Mosa Zai, Kund, Mohallah Khalil Zai Dhodial.	19874

Source: Collected by the author form the office of the D.C.O. Abbottabad.

Number and composition of union councils constituted under the provision of section-3 of local government elections Ordinance - 2000 in district Mansehra.

S/No.	Name of Tehsil	Name of Union Council	Name of Patwar Circle/Mouzziat included in (composition)	Population
1	Balakot	Kaghan	Kaghan, Phagal, Kalas, J. Mari, Kamal Ban, Patan, Des.	22548
2	Balakot	Mohanbdri	Manoor, Arsala, Manoor, Bostan, Manoor, Mohd Jan, Manoor, Hafiz, Jared.	22597
3	Balakot	Kewai	Kewai, Paras, Bhonja.	13788

4	Balakot	Ghanool	Ghanool, Sangerr, Hassain Abad, Bhangian, Josacha.	20274
5	Balakot	Hangari	Hangrai, Ghaneela, Ban Bagarr, Bela Sacha, Bageer, Sowan, Shakriah, Choshal.	18252
6	Balakot	Satbani	Satbani, Khel Sarash, Jigan, Banbara, Pailang.	15940
7	Balakot	Balakot	Balakot, Miti Kot, Tarana, Shohal, Najif.	19255
8	Balakot	Garlat	Garlat, Nokot, Batkerrerr, Hassa, Kanshian.	18466
9	Balakot	Shohal Mazullah	Sh: Mazullah, Jabrti Kalish, Laso Sultani, Kanwara,Laso Zamindari, Patserl, Bajmorri, Kuml Khabngirl.	13277
10	Balakot	Talhata	Talhata, Lunda, Jabi, Gul Maira, Sughdar, Batora, Hasara, Kashterra, Kot Bhala, Pateko.	13112
11	Mansehra	Gahri Habib Ullah	Garhi, Bararkot.	19306
12	Mansehra	Karnol	Doga, Bisian, Jagir Balota, Khair Abad, Bhoraj, Sial, Karnol.	17806
13	Mansehra	Atter Shisha	Atter Shisha, Mandhiar, Phagla, Kahoter, Jaba, Arab Khan.	13879
14	Mansehra	Pairan	Pairan, Narr Beerr, Banda, Syedan, Jabrri, Shah Khel, Garhi, Cherh, Malra Amjad Ali.	12590
15	Mansehra	Sandasar	Sandasar, Chitta Batta, Reerh Mangan, Hathi Maira, Machi Pol.	15629
16	Mansehra	Laber Kot	Laber Kot, Kotkey.	13376
17	Mansehra	Mansehra City No 1	Lower Nogazi, Sufeda road & noth area Population of Lower Regazi, Moh Gulab Abad, Larri Abad, Taj Abad, Kehistan Abad, Dheri Mufu Abad, Moh, Qazall, Hanlf Abad, MohKangrr, Moh, Khan, Bahader, Moh, Ayub Phan & Moh, Narri.	16240
18	Mansehra	Mansehra City No 2	Mohallati Jarider banda, Moh, Circle No 3, Moh Banda Labyal Moh, Atllang Abad, Pohstan Abass Child Dheri, Banda Lal Khan, Dab 1, Chiknyall, Whole Population of West Side of Dhangri.	15696
19	Mansehra	Mansehra City No 3	Dab No. 3. All Population of Dhagri, Dhanulan, NBaik Abad, Township Upper Chanai, Lower Chanarai, Moh Jumma Khan, BelaMutran, Kohistan Abad, Moh,Neelan, Qllaah Dipast, All	20159

			Population of South Side of Sufeda Road, Tower Nogazi & Upper Nogazi.	
20	Mansehra	Datta	Datta, Ghaviket, Harnyala, Khrshaha, Chakiali.	15501
21	Mansehra	Behall	Behall, Garala, Hursenian, Reharr, Raitian, Matyal, Potha, Ogro, Pakhwal.	16716
22	Mansehra	Lassan Thakral	Lassan, Thakral, Nawan, Gehal, Kala, Nanoha, Morr Bata Kalan, Mangloor, Paisn Gah, Khawarri, Janlkiari, Barat, Tahli, Mohalan, Jareer.	13176
23	Mansehra	Jaloo	Jaloo, Bhoraj, Bihag Bala,Bihag Payeen, Morr Bafa Khurd, Shehlla, Dedbgran, Sheikh Abad, Basund, Dhalaki, Medan, Lalo Basund, Chanja, Bao Bandi, Baidrra.	16740
24	Mansehra	Hamsheria n	Hamsherian, Timber Khola, Marri Muqatab Sh, Marri Shah Wall, Maswal, Maira Jia, Bherkund Teria.	14407
25	Mansehra	Inayat Abad	Inyat Abad, Banda Piran, Chitt Gati, Ghandian Lung, Hafiz, Bandl Utli, Hafiz Bandi Terll.	16346
26	Mansehra	Dhodial	Dhodial Malkal, Shanal Bala, Geerwlal, Dhodial Arghoshal.	21045
27	Mansehra	Shinkiari	Shinkiarl, Okhrila, Bedadi.	22826
28	Mansehra	Sum Alahl Mong	Dharryal, Timbri, Sum, Elahi, Mong.	16675
29	Mansehra	Bhogerr Mong	Bhogermong, Berri Behk, Andarasi.	12907
30	Mansehra	Jaborri	Jaborri, Banda Geesuch, Kanog, Chela Bagh, Booz Bela.	13521
31	Mansehra	Sacha Kalan	Sacha Kalan, Kalas Recharri, Banda, Sacha Khurd, Serl, Kamashian, Glar Sacha,	14024
32	Mansehra	Devli Javerr	Jaberr, Jacha, Panjool.	21862
33	Mansehra	Hilkot	Hilkot, Chaprrl, Bgrroo, Dheri, Malim, Neel bun, Bali Mong, Ashwal, Dher Numberdaran, Phulal, Malookrra, Kund Utla, Baleeja.	15560
34	Mansehra	Chater Plain	LachiMong,Dheri, Saidullah, Sharkoolai, Ban Sacha, Kandal, Malkan, Gall Gada, Shakoora, Khan.	14229
35	Mansehra	Battal	Battal, Khakhoo Arorri, Nasurdi, Chaludri Suldhar, Karrmong, Payeen,Karrmong Bala, Jalgall.	20708

36	Mansehra	Icherrian	Icherrian, Koti Bala, Kund Terla, Kolll Terli, Terkanal, Ahl, Bal Tarli,Chinar Kot, Saloona, Herr.	21375
37	Mansehra	Tanda	Tanda, Bajna.	12395
38	Mansehra	Bafa Town	BafaLughmant, Bafa Lughmant, Bafa Dhadlori, Bafa Lughmani, Titwal, Liarri, Bafa Twon.	32117
39	Mansehra	Trangri	Gull Bagh, Trangrri Shah, Nokot,TerhaBala,Terha,Payeen	17614
40	Mansehra	Shoukatabad	Afzal Abad, Susal.	15509
41	Mansehra	Mallk Pur	Malk Pur, Shanal Tell, Khwajgan,Sikandra, Sher pur, Banda Shekhan, Murad Pur.	12329
42	Mansehra	Bherkund	Bherkund Utla, Harri Malra, Kehnian, Marri Safder Shah, Neelor, Khaki.	17047
43	Mansehra	Perhinna	Perhinna, Jhangi, Goojran, Thaker Malra, Kala Malra, Thathi Kalan, Bandi Kenth.	18328
44	Mansehra	Phulrra	Phulrra, Karrka, Kotena, Gojra, Mondgran, Taleyala, Bandi, Ghulam,Haider,Sarni,Granthalli, Bathl, Kamar Doga, Chitabatta, Garrwal.	18328
45	Mansehra	Trerri	Trerri, Dum Nullah Payeen, Dum Nullah Bala, Klamal, Devrrian, shalayan, Hatnagi, Gojra Di Gali, Bandi Dost Mohd, Kalwal, Qamer Marri, Tegerr,Ghazlkot, Matseri, Bandi Khankhel, Ahl Seri, Karan, Sum,Timber,Manewal, Pastisin, Darwaza.	13313
46	Mansehra	Sawan Maira	Mangal Doga, Khel, Sheh Kot, Trappi, Khalyala, Lower Gran, Bareeta, Suneyara, Masand, Mahal, Kund, Swan Maira, Moharr Kalan, Degri, Sheikhwal Salaya, Sinjli, Dher, Moharr Khurd, Jatian.	13009
47	Mansehra	Lassan Nawab	Lassan Nawab, Dheri, Shakoki, BaiBohat,Lyas,Sehki,Chandoor, Budhan, Khamlan, Palsala, Dhanaka, Karkala, Athanl, Hal Kaloo, Adda, Jasgran Bala, Jhokan, Bandi Kargawal.	15484
48	Oghi	Dara Shanaya	Shanaya, Doo Kot, Dewel, Khand Gran, Dara, Sokal, Shah Kot, Chaki Pansyal, Karram, Sehra, Barra, Bai Baryal.	15152

49	Oghi	Darband	Methan, Dokarn, Porkt Bat, Chohan, Bagwal, Do Larrian, Gamian Seri.	15634
50	Oghi	Nika Pani	Nika Pani, Angar Behan,Ghaziko, Chamerri, Chamb, Bela, Kajla, Jindrri, Braderr.	12395
51	Oghi	Karoori	Karorri, Doga, Harryala, Charmyal, Jodan, Akhoon Bandi, Narryair, Naliar, Nambal, Badial, Danda Khollan, Narryala.	23600
52	Oghi	Shergarh	Gali Badral, Bitho Bandi, Seri, Goiya, Aher Garh, Bajna, Chanser, Gojer Bandi, Ismiel Bandi, Rehm Kot.	22589
53	Oghi	Bandi Shungli	Bandi, Chathqa, Patian, Beer Bat, Phagrra, Jiggi, Neel Batla, Shungli.	13621
54	Oghi	Oghi	Oghi, Arborra, Dharra.	21674
55	Oghi	Shamdara	Shamdara	15833
56	Oghi	Kathai	Kathi, Chalundrian, Khabal.	13182
57	Oghi	Belian	Belian, Kolaka, Tarawarra.	18664
58	Oghi	Dilborri	Bagrrian,Jiskot,Ghanian,Dilborri	16208

Source: Collected by the author form the office of the D.C.O. Mansehra.
Note:- The details of the communities Karna K.D (Kala Daca) and Madakhel K.D (Kala Daca) were not available as both the villages fall in the Tribal Area of District Mansehra.

Number and composition of union councils constituted under the provision of section-3 of local government elections ordinance - 2000 in district Batagram.

Sr No.	Name of Tehsil	Name of Union Councils	Composition	Papulation of Union Council
			Name of Patwar Circles/ Mouzziat (Included in Composition).	
1	Batagram	Ajmera	Ajmera, Noshera, Matta, Maidan,Chapargram, Tarnai.	19098
2	Batagram	Batagram	Batagram, Arghashori.	13775
3	Batagram	Batamori	Batamori,Shamali, Batamori, Jonobi,Kakarshang, Kadiay, Jesol Bazar, Habib Banda, Chita Bata, Rajmera.	18720
4	Batagram	Shamlai	Shamlai, Bansair, Kohiat, Shah Khel, Hill, Malkal Gali.	17727
5	Batagram	Rajdahri	Phagora,Neelishang,Neelish ang, Sharqi, Neellishang Gharbi,Rajdahri, Shamali, Rajdahri Jonobi.	15952
6	Batagram	Banian	Banian, Dagai, Dedal, Bandigo, Bandigo, Chohan, Dahrian.	15530

7	Batagram	Kuza Banda	Kuza Banda, Blundkot, Saidra, Tickri,Maira, Satrna.	16412
8	Batagram	Trand	Trand, Gidri, Pirhori.	13749
9	Batagram	Gijbori	Gijbori, Shingli Bala, Chilar Sokar.	14543
10	Batagram	Peshora	Pesbora, Kotgalla, Aughaz Banda, Shingli Payeen.	12752
11	Batagram	Thakot	Hutal Deshan, Hutal, Rathay, Chanjal,Qinjbori, Thakot, Basan, Mehkot.	23212
12	Batagram	Paimal Sharif	Paimal Sharif, Dabri, Shamanad, Treenabad.	10524
13	Allai	Batkul	Hutal Batkul, Marid, Bob, Aban, Sangri.	18579
14	Allai	Jambera	Jambera, Shaltai, Bransi, Cheeran, Saj Biar.	12409
15	Allai	Banna	Banna, Tailoos, Kass, Koshgram, Bari, Asharban.	12339
16	Allai	Biari	Biari, Pokai, Karg, Rabat, Bandi.	15734
17	Allai	Rashang	Rashang,Gangwal, Gantar, Nehr.	16396
18	Allai	Bateela	Bateela, Bojri, Nogram, Bandi Ropkani.	12677
19	Allai	Pashto	Pashto, Mir Ali Qala, Batangi, Null, Jangrim, Pakka Baig.	13308

Source: Collected by the author form the office of the D.C.O Batagram.

Number and composition of union councils constituted under the provision of section-3 of local government elections ordinance - 2000 in district Kohistan.

Sr No.	Name of Tehsil	Name of Union Councils	Composition	Papulation o Union Council
			Name of Patwar Circles/ Mouzziat (Included in Composition).	
1	Palas	Bataira Payan	Bataira Payan, Zeer, Masoor, Bar Masham, Mamin, Bar Sarr, Desham Sair, kuz Masham, Kuz Sair, Kaprey, Kori, Darat, Karen, Khatra, Kamat, Kharsha, Kabbri, Barchu, Kora, Jamra, Cham, Haji Abad, Dongla, Maidan, Mandar, Mula Patey, Saidan, Bataira Bala, Bandi, Kanshair, Lorin, Bar Lori, Hilala, Karr, Zari, Bilala, Akhori, Baz Batil, Dilghando Sharif Abad, Kufri, Murad, Onara, Sonia, Chandhari, Coochban, Kontarbaz, Moyun, Sajri, Bala, Banda Jalu, Band Kalah, Dandan, Gidar Bala, Gidar, Maarnay, Hirani, Haloon, Jalo, Jishaar, Kachor, Lotu, Mori, Par,	12139

			Thapar.	
2	Palas	Mada Khel Abad	Mada Khel Abad, Adda, Bari Kot, Lafri, aghaz, Takki, Safia Bar, Safia Koz, Dil Asad, Gugar Khail, Kot, Kulia, Tangi, Towa, Akhorri, Dari, Dheri, Hawari, Bandi, Khatoi, Chor Kandao, Nairri, Nola, Jabba, Baros, Bilgay, Garang, Gharban, Juz, Kasri, Landai Sar, Nakka, Nakka Azas Khel, Dhar, Barri, Gano, Hara Baroos, Jabri, Jangal Banda Jashor, Petao, Sadique, baunda, Datir, Gnidar, Bala , Gandan Namdar khail, Balheja, Chapto, Chara, Chara, Chora, Danta , Donga, Kachar, Paizo Sar, Sonchal, Joni Bela, Khasri, Bar Darat, Kait, Khana, Kuz Darat Meral, Yardad, Chapro, Koi, Band Kot, Banda kot, Dewar, Bin Sarn, Mareen, Bar Jamra, Kuz Jamra, Mir Bat, Gali, Shamal Gul, Kanjat, Shah Murad, Khowar, Doga, Anla,Jabba, Shadi Kot, Banda, Jashar, Galgo,	11210
3	Palas	Kolai	Kolai, Bar Killi, Haji Abad, Batangi, Koz Kolui, Koz Seri, Koz Gabeerr, Kossen, Gakoi, Sago, Kanadal, Qallah, Maidan, Nor Koi, Barodar, Gat, Kafar Banda, Kamar Banda, Rajam Kot, Degari Bar, Kunshair, Jelo Dar, Shamial, Bib Banda, BarKandao, Kuz Kandao, Pagal Koz, Pegal bar, Las Darn, Dak, Togral, Moos,Ahuz, Bar Sair Bela, Bela, Khakaro, Bar Khakaro, Chor Banda.	11261
4	Palas	Shalkanabad	Shalkanabad, Baugh, Bar Karr, Gathar, Kharat, Sigal Karr, Taboi, Shalkan Abad No 2 Bar Sair, Bar Seer, Bass, Bakri, Bela, Jat, Karan, Muslim Abad, Ghazi Abad, Paroos, Joi Sair, Qallah, , Rato, Shain, Shai, Bar Gabeer.	15301
5	Palas	Kunshair	Kunshair, Sarkur, Lot Moseen, Mojal, Sorai, Shabay, Banalo, Dalgay, Ahavey, Gor, Jorjar,Banda, Kapar Banda, Karr Baik, Kareen, Kuz Tagai, Nai Banda, Polai, Seri, Kot Village, Gembeer, Kunshair, Nargis Abad, Pari Parai, Sholkbah, Shoo Baik, Shatoi, Soreen Baik, Kuz Sair, Kuz Sair.	12152
6	Palas	Sharrakot	Sherakot, Tandri (Dani), Dat Gato, Jamgali, Bandri, (Basni), Donat, Ahogat.	12166
7	Palas	Haran	Haran, Badakot, Yanjool, Battal, Barabarr, Yun, Palosar, Naro, Koya	12173

			Sar, Guli Bagh, Gaidar, Kandro, Ishaq, Key, Kuz , Moseen, Bar Moseen.	
8	Palas	Bar Sharyal	Bar Sharyal, Andrak Banda, Bin Banda, Bar Gaidar, Bar Nairri, Dadair, Dheri, Gaidar, Gakoi, Kachar Banda, Kat Banda, Khana Banda, Bakri Banda, Maidan, Murid Baik, Sheri Banda, Shoom Jamat, Ganja Banda.	12186
9	Palas	Kuz Sharyal	Kuz Sharyal, Bakro, Bar Khowargay, Barmi Banda, Gakoi, Gaso Huk, Jal Baik Jamia Baik , Jumia Baik Jnhangiro Banda, Koi, Koghana (Ghano) , Kot Banda, Kuz Khowargay, Tor Banda, Moman Banda, Uchoi Banda, Baik Jaglat, Dagoo, Magri Banda, Bakri Banda.	11110
10	Palas	Kuz Paro	Kuz Paro, Sair, Fajoni, Fajoni, Khel, Nazro, Landi, Bado Bela, Gatobo, Khori, Kuz Sair, Mughal Abad , Banda Bar & Kuz, Bali, Banda Sair, Akhunzadgan, Sigal Belo, Bar Banda, Bela Banda, Kuz Banda, Gohar Abad, Bandi, Bela, Doak, Shahi Balgai, Baush Masi, Seer, Tor Walo, Kalnd, Jijal, Masi Kot, Kalvi, Balagay and Banil, Under, Sair, Jamia, KhalyarKot, Kalai, Barri, Joai, Kuz & Bar , Bar & Kuz Jal, Bar jal, Chari, Khalyar, Azizabad, Dheri, Dam Sing, Dehri, Koto Baik, Kotar Khel Gaidar,Goi Baik, Jamal Khano Baik, Malgari, Najam, Parni Bar, Shamat Gaidar, Sood Khel Bar Paro, Khalyar Jamra, Baneel.	11083
11	Palas	Kota Kot	Pul Bela , Baro Bela, Kuz Bela, Manjo Beal Takri, Kareen, Kota Kot ,Zaro Kuz, Char Kuz Banjo, Charbar, Gatobo, Jaseel, Dakrai, Khowar Kot , Seer, Kareen, Bando Gaidar, Gabar Sair, Kanari Baik , Azmosa, Bar Dhero , Balgay, Koz Dhero, Karoseer, Band Baik, Band saer, chumar Kot , Ganga, Ouchoi, Joi Sair, Chot Dadoi, Donga, Gaidar, Khana, Gali Gaidar, Gali Khana , Khant , Gatay Baik, Jamra, Kaseer Khel, Kachoor, Kaik, Khanna, Kali, Kato seer Baik, Sas Baik, Toka Banda, Daroon Bela.	11083
12	Palas	Shared	Shared , Bonisar, Bassi, Sero, Malgai, Qallah Deen Dagoon, Tarno Baik , Umal Khel, Baro Baik , Akhori Sar, Sasnat, Kuz Sair, Ahkori sar, Maughalrat, Shuki Sair, Khel, Maidan, Gheen Baik , Daroo, Eil Baik, Hoo Baik, Narang Bela, Sermorat 1.	14632

			Sermorat 2. Shah Baik , Tapoon , Tako Sair, Bar Sair, Pir Dostan, Darto,, Bajal, Gotam, Dheri, Jail Baik, Manwar Sair, Nakka, Sham Bela, Shaheed Bela, Dewan Bela, Farorrgah, Mararr, Bado Goast, Akhro Bela, Dewan Bela, Kundal, Damzai, Serto, Raja Sair, Kandro, Kandas, Danar, Soail, Danga, Balo Bela, Pakey Bela, Khel Rafiullah, Khaba Kot.	
13	Palas	Peach Bela	Peach Bela, Doke Bela, Kayal, Dheri Bela, Khel, Barri Ledi, Marat, Narri, Hukamabad, Hukam Koz, Hukam Bar, Chalo Bela, Tandi Baik, Lakhi Seri, Put Bela Kunaali, Kot Bela, Knima Bela Khowarrn Bela Beto Kundala, Choki Kunara, Danat, Lslnq, Kunmtno Baik,, Yari Baik, Thoki , Baik, Zab, Paroki, Paaliorat, Sartai, Tadori, Kalgay Saween, Janas, Lakhi Dar, Sarkas, Dheri, Dka Khoo , Dandi, Baik, Urni, Shaheed Bela, Selo Belox Karr Baik Bela, Choi Baik, Satloon, Althro Baik, Thaoni, Tharoto, Shaman, Akhro Bela, Qallah, Neel Gah, Band Gali, Akhoon Khowar, Banjroon,m Bari Jakh, Kanaa, Rarri Dheri, Bar Now , Kuz Now Walio Bela, Garoom, Gagah Bela, Ghazianogah, Gohara, Goi Baik, Karangahooo, Dum Bela, Koten Bela, Khari Dheri, Larri Kas, Baro Bar, Dum Pati, Gahari, Gaidar, Habib Kas, Nashri, Bari Dheri, Ghuzano Sar, Lekhi Jakh , Lekhi Nar Mara.	154230
14	Palas	Bankhad	Bankhad, Khanai, Charto, Kuz Moreen, Bar Marin, Sholgara, Zamakhel Beld Chakai, Chaloi, Kuzkandao, Barkandao, Kuz, Minsara, Bar Minsara, Seri Barri, Palalo, Palalo, Gull Gee, Kuz Sangri, Ughaz Sar, Gahari, Bar Sangri, Kaar, Kuz Dheri, Mans Khapa, Dano, Ouch Khowarr, Bela Rustam Khel, Charona. Chorlak and Dossa.	11107
15	Palas	Ranolia	Zore Kalley , Khani, Dhango, Gaidar, Kokiyal/Kakro, Thapanb, Thapan Ali Dad Khail, Charr, Nairri, Bar Kallay,k Ashal,m Sangri, Manwan, Darto, Dhar Mirkan Khel, Moni Khel Bela, Dhan Snli Khel, Pirano Dar, Chochang, Soya, Moreen, Dhar, Jai Khel, Daro, Goshi, Bela Goshi, Doga , Domi khel Dara, Jalkot, Alqal, Jhangrri, Dhand Domi Khel , Dhand Moni, Khel,	13390

			Moharla, Yakta, Tangu, Zerbela, Martong, Shabi Khel Dara, Bhoi, Nao, Charri, Mata Baik, Bela, Kareen , Kashmir, Narri, Chola Kareen, Geel, Kuz Kelley, Jareen, Takht Dhar, Dabri.	
16	**Pattan**	**Dubair Pain**	Bela Dubair, Dehar, Segah , Dero, Qallah , Saoh, Kanao,m Seri, Khowar, Nao , Sanagai, Gat, Karko, Faqir Patti, vanjarr, Jamara, Shungial, Tangai, Shungial Khas, Doman, Delo, **Ghundo,** Rawan deer, Sali Khel Nao, Kass.	11405
17	Pattan	Dubair Khas	Dubair Villlage, Bogar Village Shalkiy , Rooi Dad/ Barat, Noori, Sach , Doop , Sairgah, Baneel, Geel, Jhag Vollage, Bar Paiza, Jhag, Dandokey, Daro Mano Patey , Daklai, Kuz Paiza, Saproona Paiza, Jhag, Dandokey, Daro Mano Patey Daklai, Kuz , Sharr, Baneel Qallah Ambowa.	12715
18	Pattan	Dubair Bala	Soya Khail Dar, Mula Khel dar, Gutar Khel Dar Saidan Bela , Seri Gutar Khel , Sheikh Dara, Chawa, Gaya , Mujgali, Lundhair, Osool, Ochar, dilgat, Qallah No,1 Qallah No 2, Nairri, Belgay.	11536
19	Pattan	Jijal	Bela Jajaal, Bela No, 1 Bela No 23, Belgay , Runir Bela, Shahi, dair, Ghawan (Village) , Seri, Dango,, Gabar, Deep, Mali Darra ,Kotial, Delo, Sandari, Sughahi, Khowann Buhadar Khel, Khusi, Khail Bela, Dar Chala Khel, Jehan Bela, Bazar Bela Bela Ayam Khel, Serto, Bangi ba-ela, Kuza Banda, Tehsil Banda, Zore Keley.	10009
20	**Pattan**	**Pattan**	Pattan Seri, Muslim Bagh, Todot, Dachi, Pattan Village, Khel, Bar Khel Juran Khel, chamber, **Kasir,** Kawai, Kawyoun, Nadjohi, Khelto, Rango No, 1 Seri, Saroti Zardad/Rasuldhar, Chorbanda.	13226
21	Pattan	Sagayun	Sagayun, Noorjehan Abad, Dayoun, Daro, Kashday Galgan, Raja Youn, Janchal, Shamsher, Qalagay Karamaro, Galango, Mazo, Tangi, Baneel, Baneel , Qalla , Chor Bairy, Boon, Shamal Boon, Munir, Kotya, Muniryoun, Masssreena, Koz Dair, Bar Dair, Kacher Baik, Shamalgul Begokhel, Shamalgul Nelo Khil, Dop Shamalgul, Chilari, Dand, Kamar Banda, Datra Dabeck, Laju Khel	12724

			Datra, Galoli, Shamalgul, Chilari, Dand, Kamar Vanda, Datra, Dabeck, Laju Khel Datra, Galoli, Shamalgul Bahkhail, Qallah Shamalgul , Tangori, Kahata, Shanti, Gundial , Barang Banda, Jamra, Alla Baik, Ah Baik Chontra, Zarrgay.	
22	Pattan	Chowa Dara	Chowa, Sangah, Ajdeer, Dar Kelley, Mekoi, Tango, Karbeach , Dang, Arfolai, Dara, air Bosa, Chobat, Kal Pattan, Bar Chowa, Jai, Talbat, Datoool, Zarbat, Dadar, Jai, Barargo , Sholan, Ziarat, Gufar Banda, Kara , Baik Pat Daro, Darotki, Jai=aito, Narri, Keen , Semoo, sab, Shan Dair, Bar Dergai, Bayoun, Boon Gatlo, Mankhar No 1 Gantarr, Kayoun, Shakeel Karr, Kaslo, Yanjool, Qallagay, Sago Bairr, Domna, Dargai, Katlo, Mankhar No2.	12958
23	Pattan	Kahal	Shishai Kayal, Soyan Bair, Phagyal , Ghalai, Daro, Bachgai, Harigan, Banjehan , Doop, Sangi, Sero NOo 1 , Serto No 2 Bairrlo, Kayoun Sair , Bairr, Kayal Villlage , Charto, Peshwa, Jehano Boon, Sawar Steel, Sun Steel, Banda, Maidan, Oso ,Jab Qallah, Balian Darat, dabri, Bandlo, Kuz Mandrasa, Dasni Jalai, Allah , Aahian No 1. Sangri ,Kiro, Ashal No 1 Ashal No 2, Tarasd, Dogah, Maswal, Sago Bairr, Kash Bairr, Dergi No, 1 Dabro, Owni, Dergi No, 2 Sayalk, Doband, Barri, Singar, Dadair, Maidan Sair, Ashian No 2 Delon Bairr , Kandro Bairr, Dheri, Lio.	13339
24	Dasau	Bariyar	Shaha, Jarno Baig, Dar Kandow, Jakh, Baick, Bang, Chando, Karosair, Siglo, Serto , Nazir Bela, Bariyar, Bandlo Bela, Jalo Seer, Danki, Sair, Sheroga, Rohi Bage, Daadogoon, Dodro, Achoi Back, Talon Wai, Shato,m Sharo Baick, Daro , Kanowey, Akro Back, Baick , Baja < Bar Kaparkot, Barmi=el Back, Bar Lohi, Push, Dadir, Maidan ,Doli, Aslan, Jamra, Kachro, KJhel Baick, Kaparkot, Kuz Kandaro , Kuz Lohi, Mutast, Mirwali Dadir, Moos, Pir Bela, Surma Dadir Serto, Jook.	13654
25	Dasau	Goshali	Goshali, Shegoband, Slwani, Ochi Bar, Ochi Kuz, Gorr Bah, Jabrai, Dadair Bar, Dadair Kuz, Jail, Serto, Buck, Maidan, Vharo Much, Pashoot, Qaisar Dadir, Harpo Dadir, Buck Too,	13754

			Seri Kuz & Ba, Bela. Bela. Sachoi, Zar Bari, Kuz Kintal, Bar Kintal, Shatoi, Shahi, Banda, Khel, Thoki, dadair, Gujar, Banda, Slab Dadir, Khel Dadir, Doga, Sachai, Gagoi, Gujari Back, Qareeb, Banjar, Shoki Seer, Runga, Kilto Back, Qadar, Baroga, Mandori, Serto, Gabat Seer, Uchro, Jabadh, Pashool, Kaneen, Gadatr, Utlook.	
26	Dasau	Bar Jalkot	Kuz Jalkot Village, Jur, Jandar Bela, Raj Kot, Colony, Coro/Gawadar Khan, Dadair, Kandrot, Donst, Bosses, Jhandar/Jal Back, churto Bar, Charto, Kuz, Jallo, Ajmela, Bairr, Kuz Bela, Peshot, Eil, Sosak, Sarr.	14614
27	Dasau	Bar Jalkot	Ajal Gat, Dadair, Chaliskhel Dadir, Sikandar Dadir, Maidan, Bush, Shillo, Kuz Ghaeen, Dado, Jafar Dadir, Bar Ghaeen, Saidan Dadir, Kalot, Mir Shahi, Askal Dadi, Bilgai, Koop, Gaidar, Jabri Kuz, Jabri Bar, Hamdi Bar, Hamdi Kuz Sair, Kot Bar Bela, Moos, Barri, Bar Mashwam, Kuz Mashwnl, Aska khel Dadir, Sali Khel Dadir.	15244
28	Dasau	Dasau	Lootar, Doch Bah, Bah, Sudrat Jeshal, Uchar, Jal Back, Jandar, Char, Dadair, Kass, Tall, Zarif Dadir, Kaiga, Bar Seen, Pani Bah, Thcki, Dassu, Danka, Teyal, Chuchong, Kuz Chuchang, Logra, Morga, Koshi, Shal/kai.	10996
29	Dasau	Sazeen	Sazeen Village, Goneen, Shang, Dogah, Sazeen Banda, Lachi Nalam,Sumar Nala, Shuri Nala, Dalagul, Shatyal Bazar, Dass, Baidal,m Dabeach, Saralo.	10727
30	Dasau	Harban	Theeng, Bakki, Dargah, Gadooz, Harban Kot, Baboi, Liko, Baray Bar, Baray Kuz, Garoshang, Chichalat, Bakooz, Basha, Lal Band, Basha Bazar, Garoshang Basha, Misrang Bar, Misrang Kuz, Dass Kot Ghee, Sagi Moos, Garhi, Shytyal Village.	11129
31	Dasau	Komila	Komila Kuz- & Bar, Kass, Kanda, Sohna, Zaidkar Bar, Dadair, Serai, Pecho, Doong, Mashroot Jain, Zaid Kar Kuz, Kandao, Kar, Zuilly, Shanlegi, Daro, Bair, Sailoon, Chichar Kuz, barri Rango, Segal ango, Sach< Pishwai, Romal, Shamal, Bar Chichar.	12695
32	Dasau	Seo	Seo Old Village, Seo Vilage, Purwa, Janchal, Jagi Boon, Harboon, Dahar,	11475

			Gaidar, Kuz Wall, dairgate, Dogah, Ashien Bairr, Seena Bairr, Bairr, Zorre Banda, Saica Kundno, SukarKhel Kandao.	
33	Dasau	Sigloo	Sigloo, Taloi, Kahun, Mangoii, Shingle Bala, Kogai, Shingli Pain, Anlas, Chando Musa Dadair, Ashat, Sliarr Kuz Sharr Bar Ayun, Bairr, Gabbar, Aroholai, Tatoli, Kar Pain Lodair, Maidan, Chino Dar, Dahar, Kai, Panseri, Kar bala, Kuz Bair, Achoi, Bairr, Kumma.	12313
34	Dasau	Kuz Parwa	Kuz Parwa, Dahar Barri,, Kai, Bush Bairr, Kuz Sair, Pattai, Bar Parwa, Silwar, Jakai, Makan Dadair, Gali, Numar, Rupan Bairr, liko, Sodal, Sodali, Barri, Bar Serto, Kuz Sarto, Bairr, Darlo, Ouch, Dara Band, Jali, Gilto Sair, Amzal, Sair, Daiwar, Kodal, Barat, Zodal, Bairr/Kandi, Kandah, Kandah malarr.	10918
35	Dassu	Thoti	Bairr, Khoshi, Kotgal, Natbel, Ushal, Saproona, Salaxh, Thoti Bar, Thoti, Dantarr, Shokharr, Bairr, Gantarr, Sderi, Kafar Banda, Randa, Rango, Bela, Dogah, Kangri, Serlo, Lohar Tholl, Naro, Bangi, Seri Dara, Dombail Aftab Thoti, Akhorri, Barrlo, Derto, Kangal, Zango, Dheri, Bar Kot, Pool.	11474
36	Dassu	Kareen	Dong, Janch, Serai, Sayal, Kacharr, Kareen, Khowar, Gaidar, Dogha, Jajshoy, Mashbail Domi Sair, Churla, Dambail, Sair Seri, Kachar, Akhorri, Karrango, Jamra, Darlo, Multan, Asgal, Serto, derghari, Thor, Domail, Bairr.	12089
37	Dassu	Karang	Barti, Bari Go No, 1 , Barii Go No, 2, Jari Go, DDhongwi, Ashdo, Bagro Dara, Bagro No, 2, Shangoi, Pitaw, Bagro No, 1, Jof, Jianch, Pao, Pari Bar, Pari Kuz,Kari,Kari Kuz , Pari Kahar , Brto,Gaider, Gujri, Back, Gat, Kuz , Kachar, Tarkan, Karang, No 1 , Dass, Kanda serial serto, Karang No.2, Lorri Bar , Lorri Kuz, Mashdar, No.2 Kat, Zambail, Tanch,	11639
38	Dassu	Gabral	Barigo, Richoo, Toor, Sagal, Mir, Shahi, Serto, Mir Shahto, Sandrah , Parow, Asphadar, Bangai, Sangro ,Bari, Dheri/ Londi,Kabri, Kotala, Naro, Shar, Kari, Gabral Mula Ser, Dahdar, Richao, Reu, Goshalkhel,Karang No2. Kalto, Somi,Shodam Khel, Dombela, Dombela No. 1 , Bartiu, Dara Baro,	12025

			Karovi, Maidan Molu, Back, Koghi, Dombeil . No 2 Khoj Balo, Bagro, Rekaro, Bagh, Seri, Swnto,Gabral, Parri, Shadom Khel Gabral, Band, Baro, No.1, Naro , Bari, SIgat, Sari, kori, Kai, Kala, Kori, Dahri, Bondi, Khatan, Dara, Bar Dom , Kuz Dom , Karas Bar, Karas , Kuz Nakho, Pando, Shangoi, Gano, Belo,	

Source: Collected by the author form the office of the D.C.O Kohistan.

1. Development of Education in Pakistan

Education Development in Pakistan can be divided in to three distinct phases. The first phase relates to the state of affairs that prevailed from August 1947 to the publication of Education Commission's Report in 1959. The second phase is concerned with the developments from 1959 to 1971.The third phase, started in 1972, was a big change in education system of Pakistan and is still in vogue.

1.2 Phase-I: 1947-1958

In spite of the fact that Pakistan was faced with colossal problems on the eve of independence, the administrative machinery had to be established, millions of refugees were to be provided with shelter, and a host of other problems surrounded the leaders of the country. The educational aspect was given priority that it rightly deserved and an All Pakistan Educational Conference was convened in November 1947, to consider the reorganisation of the educational system. The Father of the Nation Quad-e-Azam Mohammad Ali Jinnah gave special message to the conference in which he stated the educational goals of the country in these words:" You know the importance of education and the right type of education cannot be over emphasised. Under foreign rule for over a century, in the very nature of things, I regret, sufficient attention has not been paid to the education of our people, and if we are to make any real, speedy and substantial progress, we must earnestly tackle this question and bring our educational policies and programme on the lines suited to the genius of our people, consonant with our history and culture, and having regard to the modern conditions and vast development that have taken place all over the world" (**Malik, 1999**).

The conference was presided over by Mr. Fazal-ur-Rehman who was then the Minister of Education at the Centre. In addition to other provisions, he also dealt with the provision of universal, compulsory and free education to all, extensions of facilities for girl's education and improving the quality of university education (**Iqbal, 1981**).

This conference, made the following major recommendations:

1. Educational system should be remoulded according to the teachings of Islam.
2. Elementary education should be made free and compulsory.
3. Emphasis should be laid on technical and professional education.

1.2.1 National Education Conference, 1951

The deliberations of the Conference led to the formulation of Six-Year National Plan for Educational Development. However, the plan, which expressed educational objectives in physical and financial terms, was found to be

unworkable because of its incompatibility with the prevailing socio-economic realities.

1.2.2 First Five-Year Plan (1955-60)

The Plan aimed at improving physical facilities, expanding technical and professional studies, and providing ideological orientation. The priorities of the Plan laid focus on achieving balanced development of elementary, technical, and higher education. However, actual allocation of resources showed otherwise. Only 18% of allocations were meant for primary education and 8% for higher education. Moreover, the Plan's overall implementation was only to the extent of 60%, thereby severely reducing the impact and scope of its educational programmes. Similarly, no significant improvement took place in the quality of education (**Iqbal, 1981; Malik, 1999**).

The country undoubtedly made some improvements and progressed in the sphere of education during this period but there was no cause of complacency. The majority of the people remained illiterate. The aim of free and compulsory education was still a dream.

1.3. Phase-II 1959-1971

Immediately on coming into power in October 1958, Field Marshal Mohammad Ayub Khan; the then president of Pakistan; gave top priority to education and announced his determination to bring about radical reforms. According to his directive the Commission on National Education was appointed to consider ways and means to improve the quality of education and bring it in line with the country's needs and requirements. The Commission presented its report in August, 1959 and made the following recommendations:

1. Character development through compulsory religious education.
2. Compulsory schooling of age group 6 to11 within 10 years and of age group 11 to14 within15 years.
3. Diversification of curricula to introduce technical and vocational subjects in secondary schools.
4. Extension of Bachelor Degree Programme from 2to3 years.

1.3.1 Second Five-Year Plan (1960-1965)

The commission's recommendations were incorporated in the Second Five Year- Plan (1960-65) with enhanced allocations for education as a whole, particularly for primary and technical education. In primary sector, there were two million additional children and in secondary education, the target of 430,000 for enrolment was achieved. Courses like industrial arts, agriculture, business education and home economics were introduced in a number of pilot and model secondary schools.

However, the Commission's report could not be implemented due to non-availability of funds and outbreak of hostilities with India.

1.3.2. Third Five-Year Plan (1965-1970)

The Third Plan was formulated in the framework of a perspective plan (1965-85), which had also contained the long term objectives of development, which was committed to double the existing level of national income in Fourth plan and to make it four fold in Sixth Plan. The Third Five-Year Plan indicated the following basic objectives for education:

1. To provide an education system, which will facilitate the transition of society into an era of science and technology?
2. To provide the youth of the country with conditions conducive to the development of their individual capacities and characters, and
3. To raise the quality of education at all levels.

The overall evaluation of the Third Five Year Plan (1965-1970) indicated that the performance during this period was extremely poor. The war with India in 1965 resulted in a substantial reduction in the flow of external aid, a short fall in public sector development expenditure and a complete distortion of the plan priorities and specially the allocations for education were drastically reduced (Saeed, 2002).

1.3.3 New Education Policy, 1970

The policy laid emphasis on:

1. Ideological orientation of educational system.
2. Development of scientific and technical education.
3. Decentralization of educational administration.
4. Concerted attack on illiteracy.
5. Promotion of elementary education through National Education Corps.

The implementation of this policy was thwarted by widespread political upheavals in the country.

1.4. Phase-III 1972

The final and the longest phase of educational development in Pakistan started in 1972 with the implementation of the National Education Policy 1972-80. Prier to evaluate the policy it may be mentioned here that the provision of education has also been mentioned as a Government responsibility in the Constitution of Pakistan, passed by the National Assembly on 10th April 1973. Relevant articles are: Article 37 "The state shall (a) promote with special care the educational and economic interest of backward classes or areas; (b) remove illiteracy and provide free and compulsory education within the minimum possible period" Article 38 "The state shall (d) provide basic necessities of life such as food, clothing, housing, education and medical relief for all such citizens, irrespective of classes, caste as are permanently or

primarily unable to earn their livelihood on account of infirmity, sickness or unemployment" (**Malik, 2000**).

1.4.1 The Education Policy 1972-80

The objectives of this policy were:-

1. Preservation, promotion and practice of the basic ideology of Pakistan.
2. Building up the total personality of the individual. Mobilizing the youth for leadership.
3. Eradication of illiteracy.
4. Equalizing access to education.

The most important feature of this education policy was the provision of free education up to class ten. As for the provision of compulsory education the education policy states as:" Compulsion places a direct responsibility on parents to send their children to school on pain of punishment. The final decision regarding compulsory education has been left over for decision by the National Assembly of Pakistan". The education policy had also anticipated that primary education up to class five would become universal for boys by 1979 and for girls by 1982 and up to class eight for boys by 1985 and for girls by 1990.

1.4.2 Fourth Five-Year Plan (1970-75)

The fourth Five Year Plan was formulated at a critical juncture in the history of the nation as there was uncertainty prevailing, and the rivalries between East and West Pakistan had been enormously expanded and exploited. The objectives of education in the Fourth Five Year Plan were as follows:

1. To create a literate population and an educated electorate.
2. To make the educational system more functional.
3. To make optimum use of the available resources.
4. To stress quality in education to consolidate the programme of educational research.

The Fourth Five Year Plan gave high priority to primary education to achieve the goal of universal education up to class five by 1980, and provided for the opening of 23 thousand new primary schools in Pakistan. Notwithstanding its conceptual, technical and administrative deficiencies, the experiment of Plan proved an effective tool and techniques for the progress of National Economy in the future; this was amply manifest in the subsequent Fifth and Sixth Five-Year plans.

1.4.3 Non- Plan Period (1970-78)

The period from 1970 to 1978 is considered to be the non-plan period in the planning history of Pakistan. The People's Party Government decided to run the economy through annual plans, rather than through comprehensive five

year plans, mainly because of considerable political and economic uncertainties (**Uzair, 2004**).

1.4.4 Fifth Five-Year Plan (1978-83)

The annual development plans, introduced during the non-plan period; totally failed to accelerate the pace of economic development. The Martial Law Government in 1977 decided to formulate Fifth Five Year Plan. The plan was launched in a period of serious economic difficulties and the government expenditure on education as a proportion of GNP declined from 1.8% in 1977-78 to 1.5% in1982-83 and the female participation rate remained far less than the average (**Saeed, 2002**).

During the Fifth Plan period; insufficient long-term investment in physical infrastructure and human resource development resulted in a very low level of educational literacy and poor health facilities.

1.4.5 National Education Policy, 1979

It suggested the following broad guidelines for revamping the educational system:

1. Revision of curricula with a view to reorganizing course contents with reference to Islamic thought.
2. Merging of traditional madrassas education with modern education.
3. Use of national language as medium of instructions.
4. Training of students for productive work.
5. Setting up of separate educational institutions for female students with specially designed curricula.

This policy was meant as a general reference document for budget framers but did not take any concrete shape from the point of view of implementation.

1.4.6 Sixth Five-Year Plan (1983-88)

In this plan; several innovative projects to improve the quality of education were launched. For education; Iqra (to read) surcharge was levied on imports, which yielded additional resources of Rs. 13.1 billion and 6922 primary schools were opened in the rural areas during the last two years of this plan. The concept of spatial planning in education was introduced so that no geographical area remained deprived of basic educational facilities.

The Sixth Five Year Plan was a mixed success and fulfilled most of its targets; however, specific targets of 48% for literacy were too ambitious and unrealistic, which could not be achieved as the experts had felt and later on admitted by the Planning Commission that level would not rise above 30% (**Uzair, 2004**).

1.4.7 Seventh Five-year Plan (1988-93)

The seventh plan strategy emphasized on provision of at least basic primary education to every boy and girl in the country. It also aimed at improving the physical as well as human infrastructure by providing buildings to shelterless schools and by adding classrooms in overcrowded schools. In addition, the sector of education envisaged the following principal objectives during the plan period:

1. Broaden the resource base for education;
2. Universalize access to primary education;
3. Substantially improve technical and vocational training facilities; and improve the quality of education at all levels and in particular of university education.

The Seventh Plan period also witnessed a number of initiatives of managerial nature for the acceleration of educational development. These include:

1. Education Foundations were established for encouraging the private sector's participation in the establishment of new educational institutions on non-commercial basis, particularly in the rural area.
2. The *Tameer-e-Watan* (country construction) programme was launched. Under this programme; the legislators identified the immediate needs of the people at the grassroots level (including most prominently, education) and developed projects for implementation through normal channels under their supervision.
3. Foreign assistance for education sector was made available to the provinces.
4. The pay scales of school teachers were upgraded by one step and the upper age limit for appointment of primary school teachers was relaxed.
5. The Social Action Programme (SAP) was launched in 1992-93 to accelerate integrated development of social sectors. Basic education; including primary education; functional literacy and female education form the largest component of the social action programme.

1.4.8 National Education Policy, 1992

Almost five years of sustained deliberations led to the formulation of this policy. Its recommendations were meant to be implemented over a period of ten years, from 1993-2002. It was a comprehensive document spread over 26 chapters, addressing all aspects of education.

It proposed to:

1. Structure the society as dictated by the teaching of Islam.
2. Universalise primary education and eliminate dropouts.
3. Raise literacy ratio to 70% through extensive adult education programmes of functional literacy.

4. Rationalize the problem of medium of instruction.
5. Tackle women education and education of urban and rural poor through special programmes for equal access to education and for bringing them within the fold of literate and productive citizens.
6. Promote sports and games in educational institutions.
7. Streamline examination system and establish merit-based admission procedures to be devised by National Testing Service.
8. Create an overall operational framework to enable provinces to insure effective translation of agreed policies into action; leading to improvement of delivery of services institutional level, thereby attaining the ultimate goal of enhanced quality.
9. Insure effective translation of agreed policies into action, leading to improvement of delivery of services at institutional level, thereby attaining the ultimate goal of enhanced quality.

The above recommendations could not be implemented because of the change of government.

4.4.9 Eighth Five-Year Plan, (1993-98)

The Government of Pakistan, Planning Commission, Islamabad released a pamphlet including landmarks of the Eighth Five Year Plan in June1994. The Plan focused on the following major aspects of education:

1. Universalisation of access of primary education for all boys and girls of 5-9 years of age.
2. Enactment and enforcement of legislation for compulsory primary schooling for all children of relevant age group, wherever primary school available.
3. Quantitative and qualitative improvements by removal of gender; urban and rural imbalances.
4. Reform of management and financing of universities, depoliticisation of their campuses, and elimination of duality of their administrative control by the Provincial Government and financial control by the Federal Government.
5. Qualitative improvements in education system in terms of curricula, textbooks, teacher training programmes and examination systems at all level.

This Plan also failed to achieve its major targets and remained handicapped by not allocating adequate funds or not fully releasing the allocated funds, or not utilizing the released funds fully or judiciously.

4.4.10 Ninth Five-Year Plan (1998-2003)

After long deliberations, it concluded that the present structure of education had completely lost sense of direction and therefore needed thorough

revamping, in the light of our own national requirements as well as experiences of western and newly advanced countries. The Ninth plan focused on the implementation of the following recommendations:

Pakistan's educational system is remoulded to consist of the following separate but interconnected tiers:

Elementary:	Class I to Class VIII
Secondary:	Class IX to Class XII
Tertiary:	Class XIII to Class XVI
Advanced	M. Phil. /Ph.D. / D.Sc. and other advanced degrees.

This division is necessary for bringing Pakistan's educational system in line with international practice, removing confusion about the existing educational framework and helping planners and policy makers to identify and lay balanced emphasis on all educational tiers.

1. Institutions with classes I to VIII should be called elementary schools, with classes IX to XII as secondary schools, with classes XIII to XVI as colleges, and those offering professional and other advanced degree programme as universities. This may help in simplifying current diversity of nomenclature of educational institutions.
2. Secondary education will consist of classes IX to XII and should form a separate entity, along with classes XI and XII, which should be gradually delinked from degree colleges.

Constitutional guarantee will be provided for the Universalization of elementary education, in all geographical areas and among all groups, with special focus on girls and rural areas.

1.5 National education policy (1998-2010) (Iqra)

The New Education Policy (1998-2010) has been framed in the perspective of historical developments, modern trends in education; training and emerging requirements of society in terms of national integrity; economic and social development. The state of literacy within the context of historical and cultural heritage of an Islamic society, presents a paradoxical picture. Islam emphatically requires the quest for knowledge for all individuals and makes provision of education as an obligation for the state. During the dark ages of Europe, Muslim societies all over the world carried the torch of knowledge and advanced its frontiers. According to the reports on literacy published during the last decade of the 19th century, literacy rate amongst the Muslims of the sub-continent was 65%. The 1951 census indicates that the literacy rate had declined to 13% at the time of the independence of Pakistan. The present rate of literacy is estimated to be 49.9% (HDR, 2006), which means that literacy has been increasing approximately at the rate of half percent during the last 54 years. Consequently Pakistan stands at 142nd position amongst 160 countries, where as amongst SAARC countries, the position is 6th. It is certainly a depressing scenario (Mehmood, 1998).

Therefore, the first major thrust of the New Education Policy is on the eradication of illiteracy. The policy stipulates to use all possible formal and informal means for expansion of basic education. The concepts, procedures and targets as envisaged in Social Action Programme (SAP-II) shall be adhered. Full utilization of existing capacity at the basic level has been ensured by providing for introduction of double shift in existing schools of basic education. It is envisaged that expansion of basic education at unprecedented rate shall enable the Government to promulgate and implement Compulsory Primary Education Act. The utilization norms for the existing schools shall be laid down and redeployment of schools will be undertaken accordingly. It is expected that by the year 2010 the gross enrolment of children aged 5-10 would rise to 100%.

1.5.1 Objectives of the literacy

1. To achieve the global objective of Education for All and All for Education.
2. To complement and supplement the formal system to achieve the target of Universal Primary Education (UPE) through community involvement in the shortest possible time.
3. To impart functional literacy for adolescent (10-14) who missed out the chance of primary education.
4. To provide lasting functional literacy and income generation skills for rural women of 15 to 25 age group.
5. To provide basic educational facilities to working children and reduce the child labour.
6. To expand the facilities and services of middle level education through community involvement and non-formal means.

1.5.2 Objectives of the elementary education

1. To integrate primary and middle level education into elementary education (Class I-VIII).
2. To enhance gross participation rate at primary level from existing 71% to 90% by the year 2002-03 and 100% by 2010.
3. To increase participation rate at middle level from 46% to 65% by the year 2002-03 and 85% by 2010.
4. To enhance retention and completion of primary education cycle up to 90% students (both boys and girls) by the year 2010.
5. To ensure achievement of minimum level of learning up to 90% primary education students by the year 2010.
6. To reduce the existing disparities to half by the year 2010.

1.5.2.1 Policy provisions

1. Democratisation of education through the expansion of elementary education both formal and non formal methods, and extended programmes of adult education, literacy and functional

literacy programs, as a basic requirement for economic development, modernization of social structure and for providing equality opportunity for all citizens.

2. Pakistan's International Commitment to double the rate of literacy by the year 2000 cannot be accomplished without achieving Universal Primary Education (UPE). This will be achieved by complementing the formal school system by a strong non-formal basic education initiative.
3. The Asian Development Bank sponsored pilot project for 15-25 year old rural women on successful completion shall be replicated nationwide.
4. Attainment of literacy, social and occupational skill training programmes will equip the beneficiaries with appropriate income generation skills to ensure socio-economic development of Pakistan.
5. Additional strategies, such as the tested Quran Literacy Programme and other methods in collaboration with the other sectors, will be used to achieve universal literacy.
6. A Literacy Fund will be created to finance the literacy movement in the country.
7. Quality of elementary education shall be improved.
8. Access to elementary education shall be increased through effective and optimum utilization of existing facilities and services as well as provision of new facilities and services.
9. *Kachi* (nursery) class at primary level shall be introduced as a part of the effort to improve the achievement of pupils.
10. Disparities and imbalances of all types shall be eliminated so as to promote equity.
11. Financial resource base of elementary education shall be diversified.

1.5.2.2 Physical target

The current literacy rate of about 39% will be raised to 55% during the first five years of the policy and 70% by the year 2010.

1.6 Education sector reforms action plan 2001-2004

Education Sector Reforms (ESR) programmes was cast in the long term perspective of National Education Policy (1998-2010), and the Ten Year Perspective Development Plan (2001-2011). ESR was an Action Plan for 2001-2004, strategically positioned in the objective conditions prevailing in the country:

ESR was a comprehensive sector-wide program for increased access, enhanced equity and improved quality at all levels of education. The most avowed objective was to develop an educated citizenry in which every person has completed at least a minimum level of education such as universal

primary education. To this end, Compulsory Primary Education, linked to provision of appropriate facilities, was introduced gradually.

For those who missed the first chance, new opportunities was created on mass scale through non-formal basic education and adult literacy programs. These programs would cater for three different age groups viz.; 5-9, 10-14, and 15+ using appropriate strategies and instructional materials. The younger age-groups will be enabled to enter mainstream education whereas the older groups would be assisted to acquire functional literacy, undergo skill training, benefit from micro-credit facilities and engage in economically rewarding activities. One of the Policy statements of ESR was education of women and men were vital for socio-economic development in Pakistan and, educational opportunities shall be enhanced in a phased manner (GOP, 2002).

1.7 National Commission for Human Development (NCHD)

In order to promote Human Development by supporting Government line departments, non-governmental organizations and elected officials at the district level in primary education, literacy, income generating activities and provision of basic healthcare services, the National Commission for Human Development (NCHD) was established by the Government of Pakistan in July 2002, which is striving to run the following programs in education sector:-

1.7.1 Universal primary education (UPE)

The UPE project starts by developing collaboration with the District Education department. NCHD conducts training of the Education department officials and the teachers on enrolment, dropout prevention and quality education. Project implementation starts by collecting baseline data in a door-to-door survey that is conducted by the teachers of the Education department and supported by the community volunteers of NCHD. Data collection is followed by enrolment campaign in which all the identified out-of-school children are enrolled in the schools by the teachers of the Education department, and supported by the volunteers (GOP, 2002).

1.7.2 Feeder schools

In the areas, where Governments education infrastructure is inadequate to meet the needs of the community, community-based Feeder Schools are being opened for enrolling the children of 5-7 years of age. Each Feeder School operates as a part of the nearest Government school and the Head Teacher of the school is responsible for supervising that Feeder School. The space for these schools is provided by the community while teaching aids like blackboard, chalks, etc. are provided by the Government school (GOP, 2002).

1.7.3 Adult literacy

The current Literacy rate in Pakistan is only 49% which ranks Pakistan amongst the least literate countries in the region. To fight illiteracy in the country, NCHD has established centres for adults in the age group 15-39

years for imparting basic literacy skills. This is a three month course. Space for the centre is provided by the community and the books are provided by NCHD. Teacher is selected from the local community and NCHD provides salary to the teacher.

1.7.4 Non formal basic education

Apart from supporting Education department in bringing improvement in formal education, NCHD has also launched a project of non formal education for children in the age group of 8-14 years. This is a three month course for imparting basic literacy skills (GOP, 2002).

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