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# INSIGHT

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School of Education and Behavioural Sciences  
**UNIVERSITY OF KASHMIR**  
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# INSIGHT

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Vol. 21

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## From the Chief Editor's Desk

I am delighted to present INSIGHT - Journal of Applied Research in Education, Volume 21., No. 1 (2016) to field practioners in general and devoted researchers, teachers, scholars and students of various schools of education across the country in particular. The present volume contains forty three research and general papers which include topics on educational psychology, teacher education, Indian education, social psychology, educational technology and test construction. Besides, I am proud to record that this volume has received an overwhelming response from all over India and abroad. It is, of course, believed that the research collections presented in this volume will prove helpful to the readers and the users in their research endeavours.

I put on record my sincere and humble gratitude to *Prof. Khurshid Iqbal Andrabi*, the honb'le Vice-Chancellor of our University for his sagacious guidance and patronage. *Prof. Musadiq Amin Sahaf*, the Registrar of our University is acknowledged with thanks for his academic and administrative support.

The members of Advisory and Editorial Board of this journal are acknowledged with pleasure and honour; as they devoted their time with dedication and commitment to see this journal in its practical shape.

Prof. Mohammad Iqbal Mattoo deserves appreciations for his keen interest in the collection of research papers and finally their consolidation with care and caution.

**Prof. Mahmood Ahmad Khan**





## **RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PERSONALITY PROFILES AND PARENTAL ACCEPTANCE/ REJECTION OF CHILDREN OF NON-WORKING MOTHERS**

*Syed Riyaz Ahmad Shah\**  
*Mahmood Ahmad Khan\*\**

### **Abstract**

The present study explored the relationship between personality profiles and parental acceptance/rejection of children of non-working mothers. A sample of 400 children of non-working mothers were randomly selected from the elementary schools of two districts Srinagar and Shopian of Kashmir valley. The sample subjects were comprised of 8<sup>th</sup> class students within an age range of 13-14 years. High school personality questionnaire (HSPQ) of Cattell (1969) and Rohner's Parental Acceptance-Rejection Questionnaire (PARQ) 1978, was used for measuring personality and parental acceptance/rejection of children of non-working mothers respectively. The data were analyzed by using mean, S.D and correlation. The result indicated that, there is partial significant relationship between personality profiles and parental acceptance/rejection (composite score) of children of non-working mothers.

**Keywords:** Personality Profiles, Parental Acceptance/Rejection, Children, Non-Working, Mothers

### **Introduction**

The family is regarded as one of the primary group of society concerned with face to face relationship. In the family the most important role towards the development of the child is played by the mother, as child usually spends maximum time with his/her mother. It is therefore, the mother who leaves a strong and a long lasting impact on the child and lays the foundation for his future development. The early warmth and affection of a mother is associated with calm, happy and cooperative behaviour of the child. The mother acts as a model and the way in which she is

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perceived by the child may determine his/her later stages of development. A mother has more opportunities than the father to influence the child's growth, behaviour and development. Thus among the parents the most important role towards child is performed by the mother which in turn may affect the personality of the child.

The researchers like Sharma(2013), Andrabi (1997), Mittel (1997), Smith (1981), Moore (1975), Miller (1975), Nelson(1971), Hoffman (1963), Roy (1963), etc. studied the self-concept, social adjustment, academic achievement, scholastic achievement, achievement motivation, stress, personality adjustment, aggression, socialization, social maturity, cognitive development, emotional adjustment etc. of children of non-working mothers. Therefore, these studies highlight the **research gap** in the area of children of non-working mothers and signify the need of the study to be taken in relation to the variables which have been selected for the proposed study. Few studies have been conducted on personality profiles and parental acceptance/rejection of children of non-working mothers till date and no study has been conducted in this regard in Kashmir. Thus it is hoped that this study may contribute to the literature on personality and parental acceptance/rejection of children of non-working mothers and hence it acted as a great motivating force to the investigators to conduct research in this area.

### **Objectives**

The following objectives were framed for the present study:

1. To identify the children of non-working mothers.
2. To study the relationship between personality profiles and parental acceptance/rejection of children of non-working mothers.

### **Hypothesis**

The following hypothesis was framed for the present study:

There is significant relationship between personality profiles and parental acceptance/rejection (composite score) of children of non-working mothers.

### **Operational definitions of the terms used:**

#### ***Personality Profiles:***

The personality profiles in the present study referred to scores obtained by the sample subjects on High School Personality Questionnaire (HSPQ), of Cattell (1969).

#### ***Parental Acceptance/Rejection:***

The parental acceptance/rejection of children of non-working mothers in the present study referred to the scores obtained by the sample subjects on Parental Acceptance/Rejection Questionnaire (PARQ), of Rohner (1978).

**Non-Working Women:**

Non-working women in the present study referred to educated women with educational qualification as graduation and above, but are not engaged in any government, semi- government or private job.

**Plan and Procedure**

The sample for the present study comprised of 400 children of non-working mothers. They were selected randomly from the elementary schools of two districts Srinagar and Shopian of Kashmir valley. The sample subjects comprised of 8<sup>th</sup> class students within an age range of 13 -14 years. High School Personality Questionnaire (HSPQ), of Cattell (1969) and Parental Acceptance/Rejection Questionnaire (PARQ), of Rohner (1978) were administered to all the 400 sample subjects after building rapport with the subjects and the concerned teachers and headmasters of respective schools.

**Tool used:**

High School Personality Questionnaire (HSPQ) of Cattell (1969) and Parental Acceptance/Rejection Questionnaire (PARQ), of Rohner (1978) were used to measure the personality and parental acceptance/rejection of children of non-working mothers.

**Analysis of data:**

The test was administered as per the instructions provided in the test manual. The collected data was analyzed through statistical techniques viz, mean, S.D and correlation. The analysis is given in Table 1.1.

**Table 1.1: Coefficient of Correlation between Personality of Children of Non-Working Mothers in relation to their Parental Acceptance/Rejection (N=400)**

	<i>Personality (Factors)</i>													
	A (Reserved Vs Outgoing)	B (Dull Vs Bright)	C (emotionally Less Stable Vs Emotionally Stable)	D (Undemonstrative Vs Overactive)	E (Submissive Vs Assertive)	F (Serious Vs happy-go-lucky)	G (Low superego-strength vs Superego strength)	H (Shy Vs Adventurous)	I (Tough-minded Vs Tender-minded)	J (Liking group action Vs internally restrained)	O (Secure Vs Insecure)	Q <sub>2</sub> (Group dependency Vs Self Sufficiency)	Q <sub>3</sub> (Uncontrolled Vs Controlled)	Q <sub>4</sub> (Relaxed Vs Tense)
<b>PARQ</b>	0.46**	0.06	-0.23**	0.44**	0.23**	0.15**	-0.17**	0.114*	-0.56**	0.25**	0.160**	0.113*	-0.21**	0.160**

\*\*Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level. \*Correlation is significant at the 0.05.

### Interpretation and Discussion:

#### Coefficient of correlation between Personality and Parental Acceptance/Rejection (composite score) of Children of Non-working Mothers (N=400)

The perusal of table 1.1 makes it clear that the co-efficient of correlation between parental acceptance/ rejection with the factors of personality of children of non- working mothers viz: factor 'A' (Reserved v/s outgoing), factor 'B' (Dull v/s bright), factor 'C' (emotionally less stable v/s emotionally stable), factor 'D' (undemonstrative v/s over active), factor 'E' (submissive v/s assertive), factor 'F' (serious v/s happy-go-lucky), factor 'G'(low superego -strength v/s superego-strength), factor 'H' (shy v/s adventurous), factor 'I' (tough-minded v/s tender minded), factor 'j' (liking group actions v/s internally restrained) factor 'O' (secure v/s insecure), factor 'Q<sub>2</sub>' (group dependency v/s self- sufficiency), factor 'Q<sub>3</sub>' (uncontrolled v/s controlled), and factor 'Q<sub>4</sub>' (relaxed v/s tense) is 0.46, 0.06, -0.23, 0.44, 0.23, 0.15,-0.17, 0.114, -0.56, 0.25, 0.160, 0.113, -0.21 and 0.160 respectively. The table reveals that positive significant relationship at 0.01level has been found between parental acceptance/rejection with the factors of personality viz: factor 'A' (Reserved v/s outgoing), factor 'D'(undemonstrative v/s over active), factor 'E' (submissive v/s assertive), factor 'F' (serious v/s happy-go-lucky), factor 'j' (liking group actions v/s internally restrained) factor 'O' (secure v/s insecure) and factor 'Q<sub>4</sub>' (relaxed v/s tense),which indicates that children of non-working mothers who score low on PARQ, are reserved, undemonstrative, submissive, sober, zestful, secure and are relaxed. However with factor 'H' (shy v/s adventurous) and factor 'Q<sub>2</sub>' (group dependency v/s self- sufficiency) of personality of children of non-working mothers, the relationship has been found significant at 0.05level, which indicates that children of non-working mothers with low score on PARQ are also shy and group dependent. With factor 'B' (Dull v/s bright) of personality of children of non-working mothers the relationship has been found positive but not significant hence no conclusion can be drawn. The table also reveals that negative significant relationship at 0.01level has been found between parental acceptance/rejection with the factors of personality viz: : factor 'C' (emotionally less stable v/s emotionally stable), factor 'G'(low superego -strength v/s superego-strength), factor 'I' (tough-minded v/s tender minded) and factor 'Q<sub>3</sub>' (uncontrolled v/s controlled) of children of non-working mothers, which indicates that children of non-working mothers with low score on PARQ are emotionally stable, have high superego-strength, are tender minded and are controlled.

The results reveal that children of non-working mothers score low on parental acceptance rejection questionnaire (PARQ). These children receive love, care, support and acceptance from their parents especially mothers. This caring and loving attitude affects their personality. Acceptance on the part of their parents makes these children as reserved, emotionally stable, submissive and sober. Their parents especially their mothers provide every support to these children and due to this, these children feel a

sense of security, tender-mindedness and feel a sense of dependence. The regular and proper check of their parents especially their mothers makes them obedient, sound follower, controlled and are relaxed. However the interference from their mothers in every task makes them to feel in-active, slow and sluggish in their approach. As non-working mothers have ample time to spend with their children to give them love, care and support that is why such children do not face any hindrances in making different adjustments of life.

The results analyzed, interpreted and discussed above of the tables 1.1 are in line with: Symonds (1939), Dhoundlyal (1984), Rohner and Khaleque (2002), Takeuchi, H.et. al. (2011), Seham (2012) and Sidora (2014). Symonds (1939) states that parentally rejected children found to be emotionally unstable, restless, over-active, given to trouble making, resentful of authority more inclined to steel and quarrel some while as parentally accepted children showed personality traits like cooperativeness, friendliness, loyalty, honesty, emotional stability, calmness, enthusiasm and cheerfulness respectively. Dhoundlyal (1984) found that home environment is closely associated with the emotional development of adolescents. Rohner and Khaleque (2002) study revealed that family accepted children have stable positive self-concept, emotional stability and least aggressive behavior as compared to rejected parental children. Takeuchi (2011) findings depict that personality attributes such as temperaments sentiments emotions etc. are highly stable among accepted children. Whereas rejected/overprotected children have emotional instability, and quickly losses the temper in different several situations. Seham (2012) found that Parentally Accepted children have stable personality Profile characterized by positive self-concept, high level of self-esteem and also perform well in academic side. On the other hand rejected secondary students have low academic performance ` and negative self-concept about themselves. Sidora (2014) found that acceptance Level of parenting resulted high scholastic achievements and strong cognitive powers characterized by giftedness, creativeness of children. Whereas rejected children usually suffer from high level of anxiety stress which also become hurdle in their scholastic achievement.

Therefore, in the light of above findings and with the support of above studies the hypothesis which read as: *“There is significant relationship between personality profiles and parental acceptance/rejection (composite score) of children of non-working mothers” stands partially accepted.*

#### **Conclusion:**

1. Positive significant relationship has been found between parental acceptance/rejection with the factors of personality of children of non-working mothers viz; factor ‘A’ (Reserved v/s outgoing), factor ‘D’ ( undemonstrative v/s over active), factor ‘E’ (submissive v/s assertive), factor ‘F’ (serious v/s happy-go-lucky), factor ‘H’ (shy v/s adventurous), factor ‘j’ (liking group

actions v/s internally restrained) factor 'O' (secure v/s insecure), factor 'Q<sub>2</sub>' (group dependency v/s self-sufficiency) and factor 'Q<sub>4</sub>' (relaxed v/s tense).

2. Negative significant relationship has been found between parental acceptance/rejection with the factors of personality viz: factor 'C' (emotionally less stable v/s emotionally stable), factor 'G' (low superego-strength v/s superego-strength), factor 'I' (tough-minded v/s tender minded) and factor 'Q<sub>3</sub>' (uncontrolled v/s controlled) of children of non-working mothers.

#### **Inferential suggestions:**

- Non-working mothers should not impose undue control and restrictions on their children. As excessive control may lead to psychological problems and poor performance in academics.
- The non-working mother while stay at her home should give due attention to child mostly during the period of infancy of her child.
- Children of non-working mothers should be motivated to take part in different co-curricular activities so that they could develop their more skill of dealing with people and companions in a friendly manner.
- The non-working mothers have to be guided on how they have to care and educate their children in the changing scenario.
- Teachers should try to develop sound educational atmosphere in the class rooms as well as in the schools so that the students do not confront with any problem.
- Well planned programmes of physical and mental health should be started in all educational institution for the children of non-working mothers.
- Parents, Teachers, Principals can work together in providing highly satisfactory climate at home and schools by way of giving affection, security and freedom of decision making, which is helpful to enhance, academic achievement, values and social, emotional, home, school adjustment of the students.
- The school administrators must also understand the effects of changing family structure and should find the ways to promote child growth and development in this context.

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## Case Study

# **EVALUATION AND RE-EVALUATION - NO NEGLIGENCE PLEASE: ACADEMIC ACTIVITIES DEMAND METICULOUS APPROACH**

*Nazir Ahmad Gilkar\**

June 18,2015 (Thursday),was the first day of Muslim month of fasting. An engineering aspirant Mohammad Adnan (17 year old) went to his, alma mater, Govt. Polytechnic College Gogi Bagh, Srinagar as usual. The first semester result was out and he was awarded 28 in physics paper of 100 marks .Thus, got a backlog to re-appear in order to clear the semester. He could not bear the brunt and reportedly jumped into the river Jehlum from foot bridge at Rajbagh. The body was fished out at Safakadal 5 days after. A missionary school pass out( Burn Hallian), Adnan got distinction in matriculation. His father Hilal Ahmad Gilkar (ZEO) applied for re-evaluation of the answer script that obtained 48 marks and the boy topped the semester posthumously ! When the same answer script was sent to a panel of experts at IIT ,Delhi for third evaluation the score jumped to 50 marks.

This tragic event generated debate and discussion in the society. The issue has been deliberated upon thoroughly by academics, legal experts, psychologists, sociologists, and other members of civil society through adequate space provided by electronic and print media . On third December, 2015 Jenab Nayeem Akhter Education Minister in a meeting at civil secretariat ,Jammu took serious note of this tragic event in presence of educational administrators, practitioners and subject matter specialists and suggested to look into all pros and cons with a view to avoid recurrence and fix responsibility for negligence wherever takes place. Next day the state level consultations on National Education Policy -2015, reforms in examinations and evaluation were again deliberated up on .In this context it is essential to study valued opinions, evaluation policy, strategic gaps and structural changes to understand the subject in a perspective .

### **Valued Opinion**

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\* Controller of Examinations, Central University of Kashmir. Srinagar

As regards the subject under discussion varied valued opinions have been gathered and reproduced hereunder, says Syed Asma, media reporter, in this regard that the "cruel" evaluation process has left Adnan's parents and fellow students in distress and has compelled them to feel it is not a case of suicide but a "murder". Jenab Raza Ansari, Minister for Technical Education declared the evaluator, lecturer from a Govt. Higher Secondary Institute, a "dead wood" thus, to retire from services mandatorily. During the course of frequent conversations with Hilal Ahmad Gilkar, an emancipated education officer, he holds Board of Technical Education equally accountable when he raises a relevant question to the system, "how a general physics lecturer at +2 level was allowed to evaluate technical papers of an engineering subject".

B A Bashir well known advocate, opines to set the system right by way of a comprehensive policy to put in place by fixing responsibility for setting wrong questions, wrong keys and wrong evaluation so that persons suffer for this very seriously which serves deterrent to others. He questions, Who is responsible for selection of such irresponsible people as examiners? Such things are to be taken on priority so that the situation does not worsen, sooner the better. Neyaz Elahi, teacher, asks why to rely on re-evaluation? The students do believe that evaluation system in J&K is rotten one and majority of evaluators commit blunders and follies while evaluating answer scripts of examinees. He further adds that we do not need re-evaluation system if evaluation system is effective and accountable..

Javaid Iqbal Bhat, University teacher, says that over a period of time with commercialization and mindless inflation of marks, evaluation process has become very sloppy. The entire process is very primitive. Sometimes marks are awarded for quantity of leaves filled by the students and other times it is amusing how easily blue-eyed students, courtesy some magic pen, get the marks desired. Evaluation of an answer book is very often, for many teachers, a race against time. The quicker the answer book is finished, faster the money is earned. While going through the valued write ups the unanimous opinion is that describing examiner "dead wood" and pitching for his forced retirement is not going to solve any problem. However, there is a note of caution that law must take its course of action in case of negligence and the system is to be strengthened with more transparency and accountability.

### **Evaluation Policy**

The evaluation policy may move around to attain the following preset objectives: 1) assess with a view to improve upon the quality of student learning, 2) address all issues concerning evaluation process in an organized, efficient, fair, transparent and professional manner, 3) demonstrate student capabilities in applying acquired knowledge in a multi-dimensional way across all subject inputs, 4) forge bondage between examinations and education as examination system and teaching-learning process are interlinked and interdependent, 5) focus simultaneously on methods of evaluation viz-a-viz methods of teaching by teachers and methods of

learning by students, 6) collect valid and reliable information about the level of student academic attainment, 7) gather evidence for analysis and forming judgment and decision making, 8) to focus on decisions for diagnosis, achievement and growth of student learning, 9) enhance co-operation, sharing, trust, thinking, understanding and application, 10) attain course, programme, institutional and societal purposes.

### **Strategic Gaps**

In the backdrop of aforesaid discussion two very important questions need answers : 1.Has evaluation system failed to encourage co-operation, sharing, trust, thinking, understanding ,seriousness and application with a wider view to attain course, programme, institutional and finally societal objectives? 2.Have teachers failed to develop personality of students to face real life challenges? Academic evaluation research reflects there can't be uniformity in the award by two evaluators of the same answer script. Or, the same evaluator does evaluate the same script after an interval. A study conducted by Gauhati University reveals that the error may be between 5-7 marks. It is because of the fact that evaluation is sum total of measurement and value judgment. Further, obtained score is equal to true score plus/minus error score .

Now it is a practice that examinees ask for Xerox of answer scripts to be satisfied as regards first evaluation. There are provisions for re-evaluation also. There is scope for third evaluation as well in case the first two evaluators are in disagreement by more than 20 % marks as policy adopted in certain institutions. Of course, different academic institutions or examination bodies have ordinances that are student friendly and encourage transparency-accountability in the entire system .The students need be educated with regard to rules and regulations that govern process of examinations and evaluation before they appear in. A variety of strategic gaps are noticed during process of academic evaluation preferably at secondary level. The Standard Operational Procedures (Evaluation Manuals )are not followed and a team of evaluators does not consult each other before evaluation is started .It is also seen that Expected Answers for every question are not constructed by the evaluators and the task of assigning and implementing value points for every part of a question is not taken seriously. The award rolls are not analyzed to find stability and consistency in awards by a number of evaluators evaluating a particular course of study jointly.

There is no practice to review award with highest top (more than 80% marks obtained) and lowest down (below threshold). Had the first evaluator in the present case reviewed the award of the examinees not meeting the threshold, perhaps such a tragic event could have been avoided. Furthermore, the practice of evaluating answers step-wise is not adopted uniformly. Of course, some evaluators may prefer bullet style of responses. Evaluators are so busy that they do not take cognizance of word limit ,time allotted and marks allocated per answer. This haste many a time results in non evaluation of answers of some questions.

Before the start of award at least 20-50 answer books depending on the size of the course need be studied meticulously and one/two scripts made as highest and lowest benchmarks with due regard to Expected Answers. Head Examiners test check only a certain percentage of answer scripts evaluated by the sub-examiners on the round table. The practice of double evaluation adopted in some institutions is quite unique as two evaluators evaluate similar answer scripts independent of each other. However answer scripts with more than 80% award and those less than the minimum pass limit are sent for double evaluation in certain institutions before results are declared.

### **Structural Changes**

The following activities need be under taken to effect a positive change: 1) select a course of study of one's choice; 2) peruse question papers set until now for last three years ; 3) find flaws ,if any, in the construction of questions in different segments, 4)construct questions, not run of the mill, in all sections with due weightage, 5) focus on "How" and " Why" questions 6) prepare question-wise Expected Answers, 7) evaluate learning outcome matches preset learning objectives, 8) analyze variations between expected answers and answers attempted by examinees, 9) evaluate academic depth in the responses and arguments built, 10) make a SWOT analysis .

### **Sum Up**

As a follow up of the aforesaid meeting the subject was discussed in two day workshop at Govt. College of Education, Srinagar between 21-22 December, 2015. Lastly it may be asked ...Do we really evaluate student academic performance? Do we work for further improvement of examinations and evaluation system? Evaluation ethics demands that evaluators must be current as regards course content and its transaction. Every answer attempted by examinees is evaluated meticulously to do justice with the job assigned. Besides systemic failure Syeda Asma very aptly reports about how peer pressures and parental attitude kick students to a cut-throat competition. All the stakeholders need to think over aforesaid well identified dimensions. No negligence please. Academic activities are sensitive and demand meticulous approach .

### **Discussion Points**

- 1) Do we really evaluate student academic performance?
- 2) Do we need a higher order change in evaluation mechanism?
- 3) Do we explore alternatives to add value to the system ?
- 4) Do we equip with current content and pedagogy before evaluation starts ?
- 5) Do we follow ethical norms and stand accountable to conscience?

## **A STUDY OF SOCIAL COMPETENCE, LEVEL OF ASPIRATION AND ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT OF PARENTALLY ACCEPTED AND REJECTED CHILDREN**

*M. Y. Ganai\**

### **Abstract**

The Present Study has been selected by the investigators to study and compare parentally accepted and rejected children on social competence, level of aspirations and academic achievement in various educational zones of Pulwama district of J&K. The investigators employed Rohner's parental acceptance rejection questionnaire (PARQ), V.P Sharma, Prabha Shukla and Kiran Shukla's social competence scale and Mahesh Bhargava's and M.A Shah's level of aspiration scale for the purpose of collection of data. The sample for the present study consists of 162 parentally accepted children and 162 parentally rejected children. The study revealed that parentally accepted male and female children have high social competence, level of aspirations and academic achievement as compared to parentally rejected children.

**Key Words:** Competence, Level of Aspiration, Parentally Accepted Children, Parentally Rejected Children.

### **Introduction**

A good home is said to be one in which the child is given the fullest opportunity for self expression within the limits of parental acceptance and supervision. The parents which love with one another, as well as their child, and who are sufficiently alert in recognizing and caring for his needs have an excellent chance of seeing the child become a well adjusted adult. If they are to be optimum, parent-child relationship should be conjoined effort in which the activities and aspirations of the family are shared as a unit. In the adequate home parents share experiences and plans with their children. They win the confidence and respect of their children by showing a sincere interest in their activities. Such parents provide an environment in which the

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child receives not only acceptance and protection but optimum cultural benefits. Social competence is a complex, multidimensional concept consisting of social, emotional, cognitive and behavioral skills, as well as motivational and expectancy sets needed for successful social adaptation. Social competence also reflects having an ability to take another's perspective concerning a situation, learn from past experiences, and apply that learning to the changes in social interactions. Social competence is the foundation upon which expectations for future interaction with others are built, and upon which individuals develop perceptions of their own behavior. Level of aspiration is defined as the degree or quality of performance which an individual desires to attain or feels he can achieve. It is the probable attainment by the individual in the near future. It may vary individual to individual and place to place as factors affecting the level may increase or decrease. Academic achievement refers to the level of schooling one has successfully completed and the ability to attain success in one's studies. It is something we do or achieve at school, in class, in laboratory, library or field work. Academic achievement is sometimes purely quantitative. It also refers to knowledge attained and skills developed by the students in school subjects.

### **Importance of the study**

The relationship of parent and child is one of the most important relationships of the world. The nature of this relationship definitely has bearing upon the life of the child. Parental acceptance plays a very important role in the overall development of the child whether in education, vocation, family and classroom situation, childhood or infancy is a most impressionable age just like a clean slate on which anything can be written. A child's behavior during the early years can be modeled and shaped in desired form and direction provided that a suitable socio-psychological environment is made available by the parents. If the negative impression is provided to the child at home, it is very difficult to remove during these years of schooling of the child and if the child is reared in an open affectionate and free environment with due care and attention, later development of the child is healthy. Parents, therefore, play a very significant role in laying the foundation of a child's personality in terms of cognitive, social, emotional and moral development. The encouragement support and access to the activities by the parents enable their children to master key developmental tasks. They expose their child to the age appropriate challenges which allow their children to explore their own and learn from experiences by interacting with their environment. The parents are primary care givers which make their children healthy and safe equip them with skills and resources to succeed as adults and transmit basic cultural values which help in the socialization of the child. Parents can become the role model to his child by understanding him and develop qualities like happiness, self-respect, generosity, self discipline, diligence, kindness, bravery and compassion. The parent is the child's first teacher and should remain their best teacher throughout life by inspiring their child.

Despite great significance of social competence in the process of adaptation of modern civilization, relatively little attention has been paid by the social scientists in its measurements. Level of aspiration and academic achievement are very essential for the future development of the child, the review of literature has revealed that only a few studies have been conducted on parentally accepted and rejected boys and girls (Rohner, R.P. (2007); Khaleque, A. (2001); Rohner & Veneziana, (2001); Pujju, G.M (1997); Kausar, S., & Tabasum, W. (1990); Crook, Sing, K. (1990); Raskin & Eliot (1980). Educational research and innovational committee (Eric) of NCERT has identified socio-social development of children as priority area of research as quoted in Indian educational review (2007). Also after going through the catalogue of research published by centre for the study of interpersonal acceptance and rejection university of Connecticut USA, no study on parental acceptance and rejection in relation to the social competence, level of aspiration and academic achievement of children has been reported so far. Finally the proposed study will help in understanding the influence of parental acceptance and rejection on social competence, level of aspiration and academic achievement of children. Furthermore the findings of the study have important implication for parents, teachers, educationists, policy makers, counselors and administrators to help and guide the children so that their social competence, level of aspiration develops in a proper way and they excel in their academic achievement.

#### **Objectives of the Study**

1. To study social competence, level of aspiration and academic achievement of parentally accepted and rejected children.
2. To compare parentally accepted and rejected children on Social Competence (Pro-Social Attitude, Social Competence, Social Leadership, Social Tolerance, Social Maturity).
3. To compare parentally accepted and rejected male children on level of aspirations.
4. To compare parentally accepted and rejected female children on Academic Achievement.

#### **Hypotheses of the Study**

1. There is no significant difference between parentally accepted and parentally rejected children in their Social Competence.
2. There is no significant difference between parentally accepted male and parentally rejected male children in their Social Competence.
3. There is no significant difference between parentally accepted female and parentally rejected female children in their Social Competence.



4. There is no significant difference between parentally accepted and parentally rejected children in their level of aspirations.
5. There is no significant difference between parentally accepted male and parentally rejected male children in their level of aspirations.
6. There is no significant difference between parentally accepted female and parentally rejected female children in their level of aspirations.
7. There is no significant difference between parentally accepted and parentally rejected children in their Academic Achievement.
8. There is no significant difference between parentally accepted male and parentally rejected male children in their Academic Achievement.
9. There is no significant difference between parentally accepted female and parentally rejected female children in their Academic Achievement.

### **Method and Sample**

Descriptive survey method was used by the investigator to collect the relevant information for the research. In the present study the sample consisted of 162 parentally accepted children and 162 parentally rejected children which were drawn from 600 initial sample by Rohner's Parental Acceptance Rejection Questionnaire by taking top 27% and bottom 27% of students from various educational zones of District Pulwama of J&K. Whereas for the collection of data, Rohner's Parental Acceptance Rejection Questionnaire (PARQ); V.P Sharma, Prabha shukla and Kiran Shukla's Social Competence Scale; and Mahesh Bhargava's and M.A Shah's Level of Aspiration Scale were used.

### **Analysis and Interpretation**

The data was analyzed by used statistical techniques like, mean, S.D, and t test. The data in the study is analysed and interpreted as follows:

### **Analysis of Data**

**H0: There is no significant difference between parentally accepted and parentally rejected children in their Social Competence.**

**Table 1.1: Mean Comparison of Parentally accepted and rejected children on Social Competence (Pro-Social Attitude, Social Competence, Social Leadership, Social Tolerance, Social Maturity) N=162**

Variable	Group	Mean	S.D	t-value	Level of Significance
Social Competence (Composite Score)	Parentally Accepted	189.93	12.7	23.08	0.01 Level
	Parentally Rejected	152.99	16.14		
Pro-Social Attitude	Parentally Accepted	7.22	1.89	5.68	0.01 Level
	Parentally Rejected	5.97	2.28		
Social Competence	Parentally Accepted	19.14	3.40	10.89	0.01 Level
	Parentally Rejected	15.00	3.62		
Social Leadership	Parentally Accepted	12.31	1.86	9.76	0.01 Level
	Parentally Rejected	9.77	2.93		
Social Tolerance	Parentally Accepted	21.66	3.97	10.55	0.01 Level
	Parentally Rejected	17.12	3.85		
Social Maturity	Parentally Accepted	47.62	5.72	11.07	0.01 Level
	Parentally Rejected	39.76	7.08		

Table 1.1 shows the mean comparison of parentally accepted and rejected children on composite score of social competence. The calculated t-value (23.08) exceeds the tabulated t-value (2.59) at 0.01 level of significance, which depicts there is significant difference between parentally, accepted and parentally rejected children on composite score of social competence. Whereas all the dimension of social competence (pro-social attitude, social competence, social leadership, social tolerance, social maturity) also shows the significant differences between parentally accepted and parentally rejected children.

**H0: There is no significant difference between parentally accepted male and parentally rejected male children in their Social Competence.**

**Table 1.2: Mean Comparison of Parentally accepted male (N=103) and parentally rejected male (N=85) Children of Social Competence (Pro-Social Attitude, Social Competence, Social Leadership, Social Tolerance, Social Maturity)**

Variable	Group	Mean	S.D	t-value	Level of Significance
Social Competence (Composite Score)	Parentally Accepted Males	190.75	13.33	16.76	0.01 Level
	Parentally Rejected Males	152.85	17.08		
Pro-Social Attitude	Parentally Accepted Males	7.34	1.92	5.0	0.01 Level
	Parentally Rejected Males	5.94	2.07		
Social Competence	Parentally Accepted Males	19.24	3.51	7.9	0.01 Level
	Parentally Rejected Males	15.29	3.57		
Social Leadership	Parentally Accepted Males	12.25	1.83	7.94	0.01 Level
	Parentally Rejected Males	9.55	2.79		
Social Tolerance	Parentally Accepted Males	21.66	3.68	8.98	0.01 Level
	Parentally Rejected Males	17.17	3.65		
Social Maturity	Parentally Accepted Males	47.69	6.07	8.55	0.01 Level
	Parentally Rejected Males	39.48	7.06		

Table 1.2 shows the mean comparison of parentally accepted male and parentally rejected male children on composite score of Social Competence. The calculated t-value (16.76) exceeds the tabulated t-value (2.59) at 0.01 level of significance, which depicts that is significant difference between parentally accepted males and parentally rejected male children on composite score of Social Competence. Whereas all the dimension of social competence (pro-social attitude, social competence, social leadership, social tolerance, social maturity) also shows the significant differences between parentally accepted males and parentally rejected male children.

**H0: There is no significant difference between parentally accepted female and parentally rejected female children in their Social Competence.**

**Table 1.3: Mean Comparison of Parentally accepted Female (N=59) and rejected Female (N=77) children of Social Competence (Pro-Social Attitude, Social Competence, Social Leadership, Social Tolerance, Social Maturity)**

Variable	Group	Mean	S.D	t-value	Level of Significance
Social Competence (Composite Score)	Parentally Accepted Females	188.50	11.57	15.44	0.01 Level
	Parentally Rejected Females	152.14	15.16		
Pro-Social Attitude	Parentally Accepted Females	7.01	1.84	3.26	0.01 Level
	Parentally Rejected Females	5.90	2.28		
Social Competence	Parentally Accepted Females	18.98	3.21	7.35	0.01 Level
	Parentally Rejected Females	14.79	3.57		
Social Leadership	Parentally Accepted Females	12.38	1.90	5.64	0.01 Level
	Parentally Rejected Females	10.01	3.08		
Social Tolerance	Parentally Accepted Females	21.66	4.48	6.21	0.01 Level
	Parentally Rejected Females	17.06	4.07		
Social Maturity	Parentally Accepted Females	47.55	5.04	8.6	0.01 Level
	Parentally Rejected Females	39.42	5.93		

Table 1.3 shows the mean comparison of parentally accepted and parentally rejected female children on composite score of social competence. The calculated t-value (15.44) exceeds the tabulated t-value (2.59) at 0.01 level of significance, which depicts that there is significant difference between parentally accepted and parentally rejected children on composite score of social competence. Whereas all the dimension of social competence (pro-social attitude, social competence, social leadership, social tolerance, social maturity) also shows the significant differences between parentally accepted female and parentally rejected female children.

**H0: There is no significant difference between parentally accepted and parentally rejected children in their level of aspirations.**

**Table 2.1: Mean Comparison of Parentally accepted and rejected children on Level of Aspiration (N=162) in each group**

Variable	Group	Mean	S.D	t-value	Level of Significance
Level of Aspiration	Parentally Accepted	4.39	2.05	24.35	0.01 Level
	Parentally Rejected	0.98	0.57		

Table 2.1 shows the mean comparison of parentally accepted and rejected children on Level of Aspiration. The calculated t-value (24.35) exceeds the tabulated t-value (2.59) at 0.01 level of significance, which depicts that there is significant difference between parentally accepted and parentally rejected children on Level of Aspiration.

**H0: There is no significant difference between parentally accepted male and parentally rejected male children in their level of aspirations.**

**Table 2.2: Mean Comparison of Parentally accepted male (N=103) and parentally rejected male (N=85) children on Level of Aspiration.**

Variable	Group	Mean	S.D	t-value	Level of Significance
Level of Aspiration	Parentally Accepted Males	4.53	2.16	17.75	0.01 Level
	Parentally Rejected Males	0.98	0.57		

Table 2.2 shows the mean comparison of parentally accepted and parentally rejected male children on Level of Aspiration. The calculated t-value (24.35) exceeds the tabulated t-value (17.75) at 0.01 level of significance, which depicts there is significant difference between parentally, accepted and parentally rejected male children on Level of Aspiration.

**H0: There is no significant difference between parentally accepted female and parentally rejected female children in their level of aspirations.**

**Table 2.3: Mean Comparison of Parentally accepted Female (N=59) and parentally rejected Female (N=77) children on Level of Aspiration.**

Variable	Group	Mean	S.D	t-value	Level of Significance
Level of Aspiration	Parentally Accepted Females	4.15	1.84	13.82	0.01 Level
	Parentally Rejected Females	0.97	0.58		

Table 2.3 shows the mean comparison of parentally accepted and parentally rejected female children on Level of Aspiration. The calculated t-value (24.35) exceeds

the tabulated t-value (13.82) at 0.01 level of significance, which depicts that there is significant difference between parentally, accepted and parentally rejected male children on Level of Aspiration.

**H0: There is no significant difference between parentally accepted and parentally rejected children in their Academic Achievement.**

**Table 3.1: Mean Comparison of Parentally accepted and rejected children on Academic Achievement (N=162) in each group.**

Variable	Group	Mean	S.D	t-value	Level of Significance
Academic Achievement	Parentally Accepted	202.10	32.53	25.58	0.01 Level
	Parentally Rejected	127.14	18.29		

Table 3.1 shows the mean comparison of parentally accepted and rejected children on Academic Achievement. The calculated t-value (25.58) exceeds the tabulated t-value (2.59) at 0.01 level of significance, which depicts that there is significant difference between parentally accepted and parentally rejected children on Academic Achievement.

**H0: There is no significant difference between parentally accepted male and parentally rejected male children in their Academic Achievement.**

**Table 3.2: Mean Comparison of Parentally accepted male (N=103) and parentally rejected male (N=85) children on Academic Achievement.**

Variable	Group	Mean	S.D	t-value	Level of Significance
Academic Achievement	Parentally Accepted Males	204.62	34.60	19.59	0.01 Level
	Parentally Rejected Males	127.62	18.06		

Table 3.2 shows the mean comparison of parentally accepted and parentally rejected male children on Academic Achievement. The calculated t-value (24.35) exceeds the tabulated t-value (19.59) at 0.01 level of significance, which depicts that there is significant difference between parentally accepted and parentally rejected male children on Academic Achievement.

**H0: There is no significant difference between parentally accepted female and parentally rejected female children in their Academic Achievement.**

**Table 3.3:** Mean Comparison of Parentally accepted Female (N=59) and parentally rejected Female (N=77) children on Academic Achievement.

Variable	Group	Mean	S.D	t-value	Level of Significance
Academic Achievement	Parentally Accepted Females	197.71	28.32	16.72	0.01 Level
	Parentally Rejected Females	126.62	18.65		

Table 3.3 shows the mean comparison of parentally accepted and parentally rejected female children on Academic Achievement. The calculated t-value (24.35) exceeds the tabulated t-value (13.82) at 0.01 level of significance, which depicts that there is significant difference between parentally accepted and parentally rejected male children on Academic Achievement.

### Major Findings

On the basis of analysis of data, the following conclusions have been drawn.

1. The two groups of children parentally accepted and parentally rejected children differ significantly on composite score of social competence. The mean difference favors parentally accepted children, which clearly indicate that this group has high social competence as compared to parentally rejected children.
2. The two groups of children parentally accepted and parentally rejected male children differ significantly on composite score of social competence. The mean difference favors parentally accepted male children, which clearly indicate that this group has high social competence as compared to parentally rejected male children.
3. The two groups of children parentally accepted and parentally rejected female children differ significantly on composite score of social competence. The mean difference favors parentally accepted female children, which clearly indicate that this group has high social competence as compared to parentally rejected female children.
4. The two groups of children parentally accepted and parentally rejected children differ significantly on level of aspiration. The mean difference favors parentally accepted children, which clearly indicate that this group has high level of aspiration as compared to parentally rejected children.
5. The two groups of children parentally accepted and parentally rejected male children differ significantly on level of aspiration. The mean difference favors parentally accepted male children, which clearly

- indicate that this group has high level of aspiration as compared to parentally rejected male children.
6. The two groups of children parentally accepted and parentally rejected female children differ significantly on level of aspiration. The mean difference favors parentally accepted female children, which clearly indicate that this group has high level of aspiration as compared to parentally rejected female children.
  7. The two groups of children parentally accepted and parentally rejected children differ significantly on academic achievement. The mean difference favors parentally accepted children, which clearly indicate that this group has high academic achievement as compared to parentally rejected children.
  8. The two groups of children parentally accepted and parentally rejected male children differ significantly on academic achievement. The mean difference favors parentally accepted male children, which clearly indicate that this group has high academic achievement as compared to parentally rejected male children.
  9. The two groups of children parentally accepted and parentally rejected female children differ significantly on academic achievement. The mean difference favors parentally accepted female children, which clearly indicate that this group has high academic achievement as compared to parentally rejected female children.

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## **SOCIAL INTELLIGENCE OF COLLEGE STUDENTS WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO GENDER AND RURAL/URBAN DICHOTOMY OF J&K STATE**

*Asma Nazir\**  
*Tasleema Jan\*\**

### **Abstract**

This work investigates to study the college students on various dimensions of social intelligence on the basis of gender and rural/urban dichotomy. The study was conducted on a sample of 390 Rural and Urban college students of B.A/B.SC third year of various districts enrolled in different colleges of district Srinagar. The sample comprised of 183 male-207 female and 187 rural-203 urban college students. The tool used in the study was N.K.Chadda and Usha Ganesan Social Intelligence Scale (1986). The data was analyzed by applying mean, S.D and t-test. The analysis of the data revealed that female college students were found to have higher social intelligence as compared to male college students and urban college students when compared with rural college students were found to have high social intelligence.

**Keywords:** Social Intelligence, Male- Female College Students, Rural-Urban College Students

### **Introduction**

Intelligence is a sort of mental energy in the form of mental or cognitive abilities available with an individual to enable him to handle his environment in terms of adaptation and facing novel situations as effectively as possible. New theories of intelligence have been introduced and are gradually replacing the traditional theory. The whole child/ student has become the centre of concern, not only this the reasoning capacities, but also his creativity, emotions, and interpersonal skills. The multiple intelligences theory has been introduced by Howard Gardener (1983) and IQ alone is no more the only measure for success; emotional intelligence and social intelligence also play a big role in a person's success (Goleman, 1995). Social intelligence has two key constituents which are distinctly personal and social in nature, one is intrapersonal

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intelligence and other is interpersonal intelligence. Intrapersonal intelligence is the person's ability to gain access to his or her own internal, emotional life while interpersonal intelligence is the individual's ability to notice and make distinctions among other individuals. According to Social Scientist Ross Honey Will, "Social Intelligence is an aggregated measure of self and social awareness, evolved social beliefs and attitudes and a capacity and appetite to manage complex social change." It can be described as a combination of abilities: the first is a basic understanding of people (i. e. a kind of strategic social awareness) and the second is the skills needed for interacting successfully with them, in other words, the ability to get along with others and to encourage them to cooperate with you. Social Intelligence can be thought of as encompassing five dimensions: Presence, Clarity, Awareness, Authenticity and Empathy. People with high Social Intelligence are often said to have "Nourishing Behaviours" which make others around them feel valued, loved, respected and appreciated. These people are very appealing to others and are often described as having a "Magnetic Personality." Conversely people low in Social Intelligence are often described as "Toxic", they cause others to feel angry, devalued, frustrated, inadequate or guilty. They are often very alienating people. Interestingly, however, often people can be unintentionally "Toxic" and their low Social Intelligence is simply due to lack of insights. In other words, they are often so preoccupied with personal stresses that they fail to see the impact of the behaviour on other. They will often undergo radical behavioural or even personality changes when made to see themselves as others see them. The studies on social intelligence have been conducted from time to time as per the requirements has been felt along with various required variables such as, A Study on the social intelligence of the students of physical education, Zamirullah Khan, et al., (2011). Social Intelligence as a predictor of positive psychological health. Deepti Hood, et al., (2009). Social Intelligence, Self-Esteem and Intercultural Communication Sensitivity, Qingwen Dong, et al., (2008). Education, no doubt, remains the most outstanding development priority area in the world today. The core purpose of education, unquestionably, is human development. Other things being equal, an educated person who is well or relevantly positioned in the socio-economic, cultural and political milieu is expected to be a valuable asset to the society than another individual who is illiterate and perhaps ignorant. This simple fact explains why researchers and scholars, all over the world, continue to do research into ways of improving human knowledge and development.

### **Objective**

To study and compare male-female and rural-urban college students on various dimensions of social intelligence viz, patience, cooperativeness, confidence level, sensitivity, recognition of social environment, tactfulness, Sense of humour, and memory.

## Method and Procedure

### Sample

The sample for the present study consisted of 5% from the total population of all colleges of district Srinagar. The study was conducted on a sample of 390 college students of B.A/B.SC third year from various rural and urban areas enrolled in different colleges of district Srinagar.

### Tool used

Chadda and Ganesan Social Intelligence Scales were used to measure the social intelligence to collect the data.

### Statistical treatment

The data was analyzed by applying various statistical methods including mean, S.D, and t-test.

### Analysis and interpretation

**Table 1: Mean comparison of Male and Female college students on various dimensions of social intelligence**

S. No	Dimensions	Group	N	Mean	S.D	t. Value	Level of Significance
1.	Patience	Male	183	20.00	1.47	2.59	Significant at 0.01
		Female	207	20.96	2.12		
2.	Co-operativeness	Male	183	20.56	1.73	4.07	Significant at 0.01
		Female	207	21.13	2.02		
3.	Confidence	Male	183	20.42	1.50	9.11	Significant at 0.01
		Female	207	19.11	1.32		
4.	Sensitivity	Male	183	20.70	1.53	3.50	Significant at 0.01
		Female	207	21.19	1.47		
5.	Recognition of Social Environment	Male	183	1.12	0.08	20.00	Significant at 0.01
		Female	207	1.26	0.08		
6.	Tactfulness	Male	183	3.21	0.23	12.00	Significant at 0.01
		Female	207	3.45	0.23		
7.	Sense of Humour	Male	183	3.08	0.22	20.50	Significant at 0.01
		Female	207	3.49	0.24		
8.	Memory	Male	183	8.67	0.64	15.80	Significant at 0.01
		Female	207	7.88	0.54		
<b>Total</b>		<b>Male</b>	<b>183</b>	<b>100.71</b>	<b>7.44</b>	<b>5.92</b>	<b>Significant at 0.01</b>
		<b>Female</b>	<b>207</b>	<b>102.25</b>	<b>7.10</b>		

The above table reveals the mean comparison of male and female college students on various dimensions of social intelligence. It is evident from the table that male college students have been found confident, tactful, and have good memory than female college students. Whereas female college students have been found to be more

patient, cooperative, sensitive and they recognize the social environment in a better way than that of their counterparts and have good sense of humour. On the composite score it has been found that the two groups viz. male and female college students differ significantly at 0.01 level. It indicates that female college students have higher social intelligence than male college students.

**Table 2: Mean comparison of Rural and Urban college students on various dimensions of social intelligence**

S. No.	Dimensions	Group	N	Mean	S.D	t- Value	Level of Significance
1.	Patience	Rural	187	20.83	1.52	3.35	Significant at 0.01
		Urban	203	20.36	1.42		
2.	Co-operativeness	Rural	187	23.95	1.75	7.11	Significant at 0.01
		Urban	203	25.16	1.76		
3.	Confidence	Rural	187	20.01	1.46	3.35	Significant at 0.01
		Urban	203	20.40	1.43		
4.	Sensitivity	Rural	187	20.51	1.49	6.07	Significant at 0.01
		Urban	203	21.36	1.49		
5.	Recognition of Social Environment	Rural	187	1.14	0.08	14.28	Significant at 0.01
		Urban	203	1.24	0.08		
6.	Tactfulness	Rural	187	3.02	0.22	26.81	Significant at 0.01
		Urban	203	3.61	0.25		
7.	Sense of Humour	Rural	187	3.13	0.22	15.00	Significant at 0.01
		Urban	203	3.43	0.24		
8.	Memory	Rural	187	7.73	0.56	21.00	Significant at 0.01
		Urban	203	8.57	0.60		
<b>Total</b>		<b>Rural</b>	<b>187</b>	<b>99.24</b>	<b>7.25</b>	<b>15.13</b>	<b>Significant at 0.01</b>
		<b>Urban</b>	<b>203</b>	<b>103.63</b>	<b>7.27</b>		

The above table reveals the mean comparison of rural and urban college students on various dimensions of social intelligence. It is evident from the table that rural college students have been found to be more patient and confident than urban college students, whereas urban college students have been found cooperative, sensitive, recognized to social environment, tactful, humorous and have good memory than rural college students. On the total score it has been found that the two groups viz. rural and urban college students differ significantly at 0.01 level. It shows that urban college students have better social intelligence than rural college students.

### Conclusion

The study reveals that female college students have higher social intelligence as compared to male college students and urban college students when compared with rural college students were found to have high social intelligence.

### Suggestion

1. Counselling cells should be established in different undergraduate institutions to orient the college students to develop social intelligence.
2. In educational institutions the individuality of the students should be respected and their opinions should be given due importance so that they can develop various qualities like confidence, cooperation, patience etc among themselves and can stand on their own efforts.
3. Further it is suggested that authorities should organize various interaction programmes, symposium, workshop, athlete meets, skits, cultural activities, social activities at inter and intra-district levels to develop social intelligence among male college students.
4. Opportunities should be provided to the students of rural colleges to exploit social parameters in all spheres of life.

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## **SOCIAL BACKGROUND OF SCHOOLING IN INDIA: A BRIEF HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE WITH SPECIAL FOCUS ON THE BRITISH PERIOD DURING THE FREEDOM MOVEMENT AND AFTER THE ACHIEVEMENT OF FREEDOM**

*Ehsanul Haq\**

### **Introduction:**

School is an agency of socialization which socializes and trains children in the system of values set by the society (Durkheim, 1956). Society provides basic frame for school, and within that frame, the school is required to function. Although, the school may deviate from that frame if needed but cannot alter it at all, indicating a consistent, cordial and reciprocal relationship between the school and the society. Therefore school performs its modernizing role in the process of maintenance and integration of society, indicating a liberal and mainstream view of this relationship. The radical view of this relationship focuses on the conflicting and contradictory nature of relationship between the school and the society because of the external constraints on schooling to reproduce the set pattern of the society, social practices and the social division based on caste, class, religion and gender. Since these external constraints disturb the secular and objective social fabrics of schooling, the system of school tends to offer resistance to these external pressure. This inconsistency makes the relationship between them strained, conflicting and dialectical but ultimately the broader liberal social context of schooling prevails because of its support to the dominant external social context of schooling.

### **Concept of schooling in ancient India:**

The caste with its religious legitimacy was a crucial dimension of the Indian traditional structure that subsumed almost all the functions of the society and made them contingent upon and subordinated to the dominant priestly caste. As a result, the authority and the supremacy of the higher castes remained unchallenged since centuries. This type of social structure became so pervasive and deep-rooted in the

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organic structure of the Indian society that it persisted throughout the history, in all historical periods till the British time and also today in the democratic Indian society. The priestly class used to strengthen caste and religion based normative order and preserves their traditional authority by educating the society. This task was accepted to be the special privilege of only the priestly caste because they were not only higher in terms of caste status but also well-read in *Vedic* language and literature. Their pursuits were only the priestly profession and the theological career. Thus, they became the custodians of '*gayana shastra*' of the *sanskriti* tradition (Gore et al., 1967). Since, this tradition was caste and religion based, the priestly caste which was ritually superior and a theologian and well-read in *Vedic* education, they guided the society in general and the system of education in particular. They prepared sacred texts, laid down social laws and interpreted social relations and customs based on religion and caste ideology which governed the subject-matter of education. The education became highly religious and caste oriented, personalized, authoritarian, ascribed, restricted, monopolized, esoteric and subjective based on fundamental values which were ends in themselves. It transmitted the idea of purity and pollution, religious and civic disabilities and privileges, restriction on social interaction among various castes, and the choice of occupation. The education was ultimately meant for producing orthodox and uncritical subscribers of religious and caste ideology and for preparing them for the transcendental world.

Since this kind of education was highly restricted, the lower castes were rigorously excluded on the grounds of purity and pollution. It was because of this reason; a competent *shudra* boy was not accepted as a disciple by the priestly caste *rishi*. The learning process became so ascribed that even other higher castes were unable to have full access to it. Thus, schooling became merely an apparatus and an instrument in the hand of the priestly caste to strengthen the traditional social structure, maintain their superiority and perpetuate an egalitarian values and culture. The priestly caste, by using the profession of learning, remained for centuries as dictators of social life and repositories of learning. The exogenous contact with Indian tradition brought about drastic changes in the traditional society. The system of learning gradually became rather open, secular, objective and formal but it served, by and large, the interest of higher castes throughout the Indian history (Singh, 1973). For example, during the *Sanskritic* period, it was the priestly class which was benefitted most from education, during the Muslim period, it was the nobility of Islam, during the British period, it was the Indian aristocracy and feudal class and during the period after Independence, it is the elite class from the higher caste and class backgrounds which monopolizes and makes use of the best educational opportunities (Bendix, 1969). In the traditional society, the division of labor was simple, the role of schooling was limited to serve the interest of the favored caste and the task of schooling was shared by the informal and primary institutions. The formal socialization process was the combined effort made by the informal institutions of family, other such institutions and groups

and the formal institution of schooling. Since, the caste and the religious factors were dominant in the traditional society, the schooling remained particularistic and esoteric with the oriental languages as the medium of instruction (Nurullah and Naik, 1971). The traditional pattern of schooling was changed and a new pattern was established during the British period to meet the new set of goals and promote a different culture set by the British in India.

### **Concept of schooling in British India:**

The period from 1773, the time of Warren Hastings till the time of Wood's Dispatch of 1854 was a period of drastic changes in the system of schooling and the traditional pattern of learning reduced its importance. The freedom movement became gradually stronger and stronger. During the period, 1773-1854, there were two major schools of thought to discuss the nature of schooling for the Indian people, the Anglicist and the Orientalist. The discourses between them and others continued to finalize the nature, the type and the goals of schooling in India. These two schools of thought and various other views collectively decided that the representative form of government is not suitable for the Indians in order to consolidate the British rule in India. Secondly, they also decided that the Indians have to be educated and trained selectively to man the lower positions in the administrative hierarchy of British administration. Thirdly, they considered the British culture superior to Indian culture, and therefore, Indians have to be educated and civilized (Desai, 166). In accordance with these decisions, the social base of the system of schooling was redefined. Since, the British were interested to consolidate their rule in India they were not willing to give the representative form of government to the people of India. They wanted first to educate selected Indians from the upper classes to change their attitude in such a way that they adopt western culture, behave like the British and develop taste in English language and literature, manner and behavior. The British established in the beginning few schools to educate only a handful of Indians with knowledge, skills and values relevant to their socio-economic and politico-administrative apparatus. They provided western education to those who lost power to gain their confidence and make them loyal to the British government. It is with their help, the British wanted to consolidate their rule in India. They were interested in the aristocratic Indian class in educating them in English language and literature as against the Indian traditional indigenous *sanskritic* tradition of *vedic* language and literature.

In order to change the social base of learning in India, the British replaced the Indian *sanskritic* tradition of learning by the British tradition of learning in English language and literature. The new system of learning gradually became the mainstream part of formal learning. The schools established by the British in India were exclusive in character, beyond the reach of the common people. Although, its parallel schooling in England, an inclusive system of schooling existed but its parallel India was an exclusive system of schooling, established by the British meant only for the specific

class of dominant people. Such institutions introduced in India a new form of hierarchy in the schooling system. In the traditional society, it was the caste and religions which were important while during the British period, the factor of class had the primacy over the caste but the factor of caste remained the common factor because even those who belong to the feudal aristocratic class of Indian society were also dominant by caste. This overlap between the caste status (supported by religion) and the economic status is important and now the political factor joins these two factors as we can see in today's context the relationship of caste status, class status, politics and power. The education is not only an instrument of reproducing caste and economic status but also politics and power.

The British wanted to provide western education to a particular class of Indian society with their own motive in mind but that motive was helpful to accelerate the freedom movement in India because those western educated Indian elites, not only provided constructive leadership to the movement but also became the top echelons of Indian society after the achievement of freedom. The class-based education introduced and established by the British was helpful for the freedom movement, although it strengthened social stratification in the system of schooling, by adding the economic and political factors into it. The system which they established served in the interest of the dominant elites in such a manner that it became very powerful. The stratified system of schooling in Japan maintained the scholar-administrator-ruler tradition till the latter half of the Meiji period in Japan (Litt, 1965). The social class-based system of schooling created by the British in India existed to serve the interest of the feudal aristocracy of the Indian society. That system continues to exist even today to serve the interest of the dominant classes and the ruling political and bureaucratic elites. The class character of the system of schooling, established by the British remained almost the same, during and after the British period.

### **Concept of Schooling after Independence:**

In 1910, Sri Gopal Krishna Gokhale suggested that the only way to popularize and equalize education among the Indian masses is to provide free and compulsory schooling to all the children of school going age-groups. This idea was not only opposed by the government officials but also by some Indians who wanted to prove their allegiance to their white masters. Therefore, the contributions of Tagore and Gandhiji in the field of education were considered as alternatives to revive reform and develop the indigenous system of schooling for the Indian people as against the hierarchical system of schooling of the British time. These two great men were not interested in materialistic and self-centered and narrow objectives of education as perceived by the British. Tagore (1861-1941) did not advocate the idea of vocational, technical and clerical type schooling where children are subjected to the narrow bounds of social and conventional type vocational training at the cost of the nobler aspects of life like love, compassion, freedom and moral values. To him, schooling

should be life-inspired, natural and joyful adventure of intellectual exploration. Schooling must give emphasis on social, moral, spiritual, secular, physical and recreational aspects of learning and on freedom from artificial stimulations. In his vision of schooling, he focused on fundamental democratic and secular values, and considered the school as a source of imparting those values. Such ideas were experimented at his schools known as *Shantiniketan* and *Sriniketan* (Mani, 1964). Similarly, Mahatma Gandhi's scheme of basic education became relatively more popular during the freedom movement because of its link not only with moral and spiritual values but also with the economic life of the people. It aimed at liquidation of poverty and illiteracy of the people and raising their democratic consciousness to give momentum to the freedom movement. His scheme of schooling for educating the masses was self-supporting and profit-yielding (Patel, 1956).

After the formulation of national objectives as enshrined in the Indian Constitution, the nation committed itself to promote democratic values, increase production and industrialization based on modern science and technology, to produce efficient manpower, to establish socialistic pattern of society, achieve economic self-sufficiency, to accelerate the process of socio-cultural renaissance and to strengthen the democratic way of life with an increased political consciousness and participation. In order to make schooling to play a new, meaningful and constructive role in the process of national reconstruction, the Kothari Commission (1964-66) recommends that educational revolution and the radical reforms in the internal structure of education is needed, so as, to relate education with the life, needs and aspirations of the nation. The Commission further recommends that the qualitative improvements, uniform system of schooling, expansion and equalization of educational opportunities are needed (Education Commission, 1964-66). The Commission writes that education has the broader role to play as compared with its limited role of achieving religious, spiritual and self-realization during the traditional period on the one hand, and on the other, preparing a class of babus, clerks, bureaucrats and collaborators during the British period (Rudolph & Rudolph, 1972). One of the important recommendations of the Commission was to change the nature of schooling and construct a uniform and common schooling, irrespective of social backgrounds of children.

#### **Present Scenario:**

We have a bulk of schools which are run by the government (State/Central government), government-aided and municipality schools, catering to the needs of general public who are relatively socio-economically poor with low level of occupational aspiration, aspiring for the semi-skilled and subordinate positions (Gore, 1967). Since it was not possible for the government to provide everybody the access to the public schools, the alternative system of schooling was the only choice to be expanded for the general public. Thus, broadly, two-tier system of schooling developed in India. One is already existing Indian privately funded public schools,

parallel to the public schools started by the British for the Indian aristocratic class and the upper and upper middle classes. These two broad categories differ significantly by the management and the quality of schooling of children. The overall poor standard of teaching and learning in the government schools is the testimony of how the government schools are being managed. Their academic standard is low, not merely because the learners belong to the poor quality of parents but also because they are exposed to the kind of teachers and the school milieu which are rather indifferent towards the needed level of academic sensitivity and commitment to the process of teaching and learning. A survey conducted by the NCERT, 1016 among 356 classes X students of government schools, indicates a significant dip in the academic standard of these schools. The students of special categories were found to be underperforming groups. The academic standard was found to be worst in government single-teacher schools where a solitary teacher runs the show in as many as 1.06 lakh government elementary and secondary schools in several states of the country, like M.P., U.P., Rajasthan, Jharkhand, Andhra Pradesh and Bihar. Delhi alone has 13 such single-teacher government schools (*The Times of India*, Aug.9, 2016). The indifferent school functionaries, school administration, school management and inadequate infrastructure, including the shortage of teachers are the contributory factors to the poor school performance of government schools. It seems that the school hierarchy has been deliberately created to maintain the gap between the two broad categories of schools to reproduce social inequality or social division in the society in order to have greater control of one class over the other.

**Conclusion:**

The inconsistent relationship may be observed due to the continuance of traditional structure and the discontinuance of the traditional education. Although the continuity and discontinuity are not in absolute sense their co-existence has created conflicting and disharmonic type of relationship. What Rudolph and Rudolph (1967) say that the modernizing power of education is being resisted by the continuance of the traditional social structure which is so pervasive and entrenched into the organic structure of the Indian society that it seems it accelerates the traditionalisation of modern education. This contradicts the constitutional and national objectives. The traditional caste hierarchy and structured social inequality percolated from the top dominant structure of the society to the educational structure through the educational processes, resulting into educational inequality. Thus, educational inequality becomes a function of an overarching social inequality with an inherent structure of ideology or the values opposed to equalization of opportunities. In such a situation, education tends to function under a strong external social pressure; as a result, education cannot easily be an instrument of basic structural and cultural change and modernization. A survey conducted in Delhi (MCD Survey 2001) shows that the people of urban posh colonies where education and prosperity reside, have much greater gender preference

and much lower sex ratio than their rural counterparts in fringe areas. In Delhi, the literacy level (82 %) is much above than the national average (65 %) but the sex ratio in Delhi is much lower (846 female child per thousand male child in 2001) than the national average sex ratio (950) and it is still much lower in posh colonies and affluent enclaves in Delhi like Preet Vihar (780), Haus Khas (742) Narela (828), Najafgarh (841), Punjabi Bagh (840) but in rural fringe areas it is relatively higher. This means gender preference and elimination of female infants before they are born are much higher where educational level is higher. This indicates the mind-set of educated and the rich people as compared to the rural people. For example, among the post graduates, the sex ratio is lower (769) than the middle level educated parents (933). This indicates the traditional mentality of more educated than the less educated persons (*The Times of India*, 15 July, 2005). The figures indicate that education is promoting traditional mind-set but it is not liberating the mind-set from the traditional thinking because the educated persons consider the female child as the *paraya dhan* and the male child as the *apna dhan* who is considered by them not only socially important to maintain the family lineage, offer the sacred fire to their diseased parents, perform *sharaddha* and repay the parental debt but also economically to own the parental property. This means education as an instrument of modernization tends to strengthen the roots of traditional structure of patriarchy.

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## **TOTAL QUALITY MANAGEMENT IN WOMEN COLLEGES – PERCEPTION OF STUDENTS TOWARDS FACULTY DIMENTIONS**

*Tanveer\**  
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### **Abstract**

The study has been carried out to analyze the Total Quality Management in women colleges with respect to knowledge of teachers and their skills towards professional ability in satisfying the needs of the students. The study reveals that students give more importance to the variables class management skill and innovative skill of teachers. They are somehow satisfied with the variables like communication and analytical skill of teachers, however less satisfied with the variable like conflict management skill and innovative skill of teachers. There is significant difference of satisfaction level of students from one college to another. Teaching skills are changing and gradually transforming into the art of new processes. Though teachers possess the teaching quality but need to expose themselves to new challenges towards facilitating teaching learning process.

**Key Words:** Quality Management; Faculty Dimension

### **Introduction**

Quality means quality of work, service, information, process, division, system, organization, objectives and people including teachers, workers, engineers, managers and executives. Total Quality Management (TQM) can be conceived as essentially led by the management and an organization-wide initiative that aims to bring in more efficiency in a certain manufacturing activity. TQM came into existence within the framework of manufacturing setups; none the less the benefits have been equally harnessed by service sectors like higher education institutions. So it has been directed towards graduates to training providers for promotion of quality in service or

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training and delivery of education. Initially some of the key ingredients of TQM vis a vis education are leadership, scientific methodology, tools and problem-solving through teamwork. Together forming an integrated whole, these three attributes create a certain organizational climate for education and training and provision of meaningful data for efficient customer service that lies at the core.

### **Review of Literature**

A rapidly changing world characterized by tough competition, evolving technologies, declining quality, demographic shifts and privatization of education have necessitated the employment of TQM in education. A major overhaul of the present education system is need of the hour. A series of factors have led to dissatisfaction and discontent among the various stakeholders in the current educational system including students and parents. Some of these include the limited number of opportunities available, insufficient and unqualified faculty and in many cases absence of desired commitment among the teachers (Hogg and Hogg, 1995).

The basic principle underlying TQM is a mechanism whereby the concerns of customers are readily addressed. The organizational response towards customers' needs is regularly assessed and initiatives taken to meet or exceed the customers' expectations (Yudof and Vishniac, 1996). TQM involves perennial efforts to improve its activities by engaging everybody in the organizational setup in a synergetic manner to improve performance at all levels (Goetsch and Davis, 1994). Dhalggarrd *et al.*, (1997) opines that TQM is indicative of a dynamic system that never ceases to stop from changing and leaders that adopt it and use it as a tool to enthuse the organization with a mechanism that leads it to strive towards its own improvement. In TQM, Zhu and Scheuermann (1999) underscore the importance of integration in the organizational efforts to improve upon its organization culture with the aim of gaining a competitive advantage. Education institutions offer a certain service to its customers and like in other sectors its services are evaluated by the customers' extent of satisfaction. The significance of teamwork lies in the fact that unless educators and the other staff actively engage in the planning and realization of developmental goals, no changes of significance will take place. Together with the adoption of scientific approach and the use of right tools, team work in an atmosphere of shared decision-making, will lead to the solution of problems at hand (Spanbauer, 1995). Furthermore, only such institutions will be able to focus on the needs and development of individual learners.

Total Quality Management should not only be understood in terms of what it is but more importantly what it is not. It is not something that is imposed from top without the active involvement of stakeholders in various components of the organization. Secondly it cannot be done to an institution over night. TQM is a continuous process that is initiated by management and engages people at every strata of academic and administrative structure (Sallis, 2002). Pores (2001) maintain that the quality of teaching can be measured through the use of students' perceptions of the

different dimensions of classroom experience. Customers (students) will have an idea of “overall” quality of the service provided by an institution; evaluating customer’s opinion on the overall service quality can serve as a separate measure with which the detailed perception measures may be compared (Owlia and Aspinwall, 1998); what customers receive is clearly important to them and to their overall evaluation of quality (Lockwood, 1995). Though lot of research has been conducted on TQM in education in the last two decades but little is visible with regard to focus on women education. Towards this backdrop there is a need to assess the TQM practices in women colleges in particular. Therefore the present study has been undertaken with the objective to assess the TQM with regard to service quality gap between expectations and actual satisfaction of students from faculty of Women Colleges in Kashmir Division.

### Methodology

## **TOTAL QUALITY MANAGEMENT IN WOMEN COLLEGES – PERCEPTION OF STUDENTS TOWARDS FACULTY DIMENTIONS**

The information source for the study has been primary as well as secondary. The secondary data has been collected from official and non-official records maintained in the selected higher education institutions. Two women colleges of Sopore and Pulwama selected for the purpose are considered to represent average conditions prevalent in colleges of Kashmir Division. All the students from Science, Arts and Commerce streams were considered as population for the study and a sample of 150 students were randomly selected. To facilitate the respondents to reply, the responses were received on a structured questionnaire with five point Likert scale weighted as 5 for most important and 1 for not important. Out of 150 questionnaires distributed to sample students only 130 were received back constituting 87% which is considered appropriate. To arrive at valid inferences, two types of scales were used namely, importance scale and expectation scale minus actual satisfaction scale. To investigate total quality management in higher education especially in women colleges several interrelated issues pertaining to institutional assessment were also considered. Mean and standard deviations were calculated to describe the level of perception and actual satisfaction of students regarding TQM in education and service gap.

### Results and Discussions

Quality education is becoming increasingly important for those who are involved in it directly or indirectly, and for those who use its services. Access to education and quality education are to be regarded as mutually dependent and indivisible needs and rights. This is primarily achieved by developing creativity, civic and democratic values, as well as by knowledge, abilities and skills needed for everyday and in professional life. To investigate quality management in higher education especially in women colleges several interrelated issues pertaining to

institutional assessment have been considered and the importance given to different scale scores is depicted in Table 1.

**Table 1: Importance Scale Scores**

Statement		GDC Women, Sopore	GDC Women, Pulwama
Class management skill of teachers	Mean	4.65	3.55
	SD	0.70	0.81
Teaching methodology adopted by teachers (like presentations etc)	Mean	3.94	3.78
	SD	0.83	0.76
Communication skill of teachers	Mean	4.00	3.85
	SD	0.89	0.76
Analytical skill of teachers	Mean	3.68	3.82
	SD	0.97	0.77
Innovative skill of teachers	Mean	3.85	3.95
	SD	0.79	0.75
Knowledge of using teaching aids by teachers	Mean	3.98	3.85
	SD	0.82	0.78
Conflict management skill of teachers	Mean	3.66	3.77
	SD	1.04	0.70

The analysis relating to the importance scale scores as depicted in Table 1 shows that the mean scores for each variable has exceeded over 3. It signifies that all the variables are important for the study. The mean score of importance for sample respondents of women colleges Sopore and Pulwama has ranged between 3.66 to 4.65 and 3.55 to 3.95 respectively. The statements as conflict management skill of teachers and class management skill of teachers scoring the lowest and the highest in women college Sopore. In Pulwama College, the statements are class management skill of teachers and innovative skill of teachers scoring the lowest and the highest. However it appears that the institutional sample respondents attach importance to each variable as per their individual needs and priorities.

Table 2 shows that the expectation mean score of variables for the women college Sopore has ranged between 4.03 to 4.34 with the 'conflict management skill of teachers' and 'teaching methodology adopted by teachers (like presentation)' scoring the least and the highest. The other variables with high mean score includes communication skill of teachers and analytical skill of teachers. While the actual satisfaction mean scores has ranged between 3.24 to 3.63 with the variable 'conflict management skill of teachers' and 'communication skill of teachers' scoring the least

and the highest. The other variable with high mean score of actual satisfaction includes analytical skill of teachers (3.60) and class management skill of teachers (3.52). The other variable with low mean score of actual satisfaction includes innovative skill of teachers (3.27). The service quality gap is wide for the variable innovative skill of teachers (0.97), knowledge of using teaching aids by teachers (0.92) and teaching methodology adopted by teachers like presentation (0.87). Therefore, the administrative machinery of the women colleges should take due measure to reduce service quality gap with respect to these variables. Therefore it is imperative for women colleges to reduce wide service quality gap which leads to dissatisfaction among the stakeholders.

**Table 2: Expected, Actual Satisfaction & Service Quality Gap**

Statement	GDC Women, Sopore					GDC Women, Pulwama				
	Expectation (E)		Satisfaction (S)		Service quality gap	Expectation (E)		Satisfaction (S)		Service quality gap
	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.	E-S	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.	E-S
Class management skill of teachers	4.15	0.83	3.52	0.72	0.63	4.00	0.71	2.98	0.13	1.02
Teaching methodology adopted by teachers (like presentation)	4.34	0.75	3.47	0.82	0.87	3.95	0.59	2.97	0.69	0.98
Communication skill of teachers	4.32	0.76	3.63	0.77	0.69	4.08	0.62	3.03	0.55	1.05
Analytical skill of teachers	4.29	0.88	3.60	0.80	0.69	4.03	0.69	3.10	0.68	0.93
Innovative skill of teachers	4.24	0.82	3.27	0.68	0.97	3.98	0.62	3.15	0.80	0.83
Knowledge of using teaching aids by teachers	4.24	0.80	3.32	0.86	0.92	3.80	0.63	3.37	0.78	0.43
Conflict management skill of teachers	4.03	0.81	3.24	0.84	0.79	3.87	0.68	3.35	0.76	0.52

The expectation mean score for the women college Pulwama has ranged between 3.80 to 4.08 with the variables knowledge of using teaching aids by teachers and communication skill of teachers scoring the least and highest. For three variables the expectations mean score has remained 4 and over and include communication skill, analytical skill and class management skill of teachers. While, mean score for actual satisfaction has ranged between 2.97 to 3.37 with the variable teaching methodology adopted by teachers (like presentation) and knowledge of using teaching aids by teachers scoring the least and highest. The service quality gap is wide for the variable communication skill of teachers (1.05) and class management skill of teachers (1.02).

While comparing the scores obtained from these two women colleges, there is a variation (though little) with the expectations of students enrolled in their respective courses. However, the satisfaction over the variables shows significant differences among the students of these colleges. All the variables show more satisfaction of the students from Sopore College with mean score of more than 3. However in Pulwama college two variables viz. Class management skill and Teaching Methodology adopted by teachers scored a mean of less than 3 depicting less satisfaction. The table reveals a huge service quality gap in Pulwama College in four of the seven variables as compared to Sopore College.

### **Conclusion**

Providing of high quality educational services play an important role in the development of the economy, society as well as its individual members. Total quality can only be achieved by innovative organizations, which are flexible and can adjust quickly to changes in its environment and are capable of learning. To improve education quality, an essential factor of economic and social development in the 21st century, it is crucial to focus their attention to a system of basic knowledge, creativity, problem-solving and lifelong learning. The present study shows that the percentage of students with above average level of TQM is more than that of students with below average level of TQM. However, majority of the students exhibited a huge service quality gap in between their expectations and actual satisfaction derived in most of the variables. Therefore, women colleges should give more attention towards improvement in the infrastructure and skill up-gradation of their teaching staff to improve upon the satisfaction level of stakeholders. Teachers need to be encouraged towards positive aspect of TQM and also to take active participation in rendering quality education in their respective endeavors.

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## GLOBAL WOMEN PARTICIPATION UP-TO RIO OLYMPICS

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### Abstract

Recently 39<sup>th</sup> Rio Olympics in Brazil were held from 05.08.2016 to 22.08.2016 in which the women have indicted very good performance with maximum participation in Olympic disciplines. The Ancient Greek Olympics were only for male. Women were barred from competition and only unmarried women were allowed to see the Olympics events but thanks to a Loophole Greek women could win prizes as owners of race horses with male riders. The first ever female Olympics winner was Kyniska, daughter of King Archidamos of Sparta, whose chariot own the four-horse chariot race at the 96<sup>th</sup> Olympiads in 396 B.C. In the modern Olympics in Athens in 1896, no female athletes could participate. Since that the first time female athletes could participate in Paris Olympics in 1900. In 1991 the International Olympics Committee decided all disciplines must be considered for participation in Olympics. In Saintloue Olympics 1904 the participation came down up to eight only and in London Olympics 1908, only 36 women in 21 events could participate in Stockholm Olympics 1912, 57 women could participation and in Paris Olympics 1924 only 136 women participated and 385 women no. reached up to 1936 Olympics. In the continuation of this the participation of the women were went up to 3700 in Atlanta Olympics. The twentieth century has seen a growing presents of women in sports and participation amount to 40% at Sydney Olympics. Thus, since that a participation of the women in Olympics is going to be increased till Rio Olympics 2016. Besides participation, the performances of women are going up in various disciplines of the Olympics.

**Keywords:** Ancient Greek Olympics, Global Women, International Olympic Committee (IOC), Olympic discipline.

**I**n the ancient Greek Olympics Games were only for men. Women were barred from competing and only unmarried women could watch the events but thanks to a loophole, Greek women could win prizes as owners of race horses with male riders. The first ever female Olympics winner was Kyniska, daughter of King Archidamos of Sparta, whose chariot own the four-horse chariot race at the 96<sup>th</sup> Olympiads in 396 B.C.

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When the Olympics were resurrected in the 19<sup>th</sup> century, women were again initially banned. No female athletes took part in the first modern Olympics in Athens in 1896.

#### **Women first participated in Olympic Games:**

1900 First time female athletes participated in the Olympics. 1991 IOC decided all disciplines must have female participants. The founding father of modern Olympics, Pierre de Coubertin, opposed female participation reportedly on the grounds that it was “Impractical, uninteresting, unaesthetic, and incorrect”. Women first appeared at the 1900 Game in Paris, when 22 of 997 entries were female athletes who competed in five sports: tennis, sailing, croquet, equestrianism and golf. At the 1900 Games, Countess Helene de Pourtales of Switzerland, became the first ever female gold medallist as part of a mixed-gender sailing crew. Days later British tennis player Charlotte Cooper became the first women to win a singles event. In 1991 the LOC decided all new sports wishing to be included on the programme must feature both men’s and women’s events.

#### **Women Participation from Athens to Sydney:**

Participation of women in Olympics from Athens to Sydney episode is very interesting in itself. Since 1896, not even single women participated in Olympic in any competition. In Paris Olympics 1900 the women participated for the first time but in comparison of men participation was very less. Only eleven women participated in this Olympics in comparison to men who were 1319. So this percentage become less than one percent. In Saintlouis Olympics 1904, the participation came down upto only eight.

In London 1908 fourth modern Olympics, only 36 women in 21 events along with 1999 men could participated and total countries were only 22. In Stockholm Olympics 1912, the women had participated first time in Gymnastics and swimming. On this occasion, only 28 countries could participated in which 2490 men and 57 women were there is the seventh Olympics Atwerp in 1920, 64 women participated. In English Paris Olympics 1924 was very important for women in which their number crossed 100. There 44 countries could participated in 18 competitions in which total men and women were 2956 and 136 respectively.

In 1928 ninth Amsterdam Olympics, the women participation had increased 100% in comparison to Paris Olympics and their numbers reached upto 200. In this Olympic 46 countries participated in which men participation was 2724. From 30<sup>th</sup> July to 14 August 1932 the tenth Olympics was held at Los Angeles in America. In this competition only 281 men could participate but total number of participation in women section was 127. In 1936 Olympics, 59 countries participated in 18 games and events in which total participation of men and women were 3714 and 385 respectively.

In Helsinki Olympics, the women crossed 500 in number but in 1956 Molbourns Olympics, this number of participation in women section came down upto 384 only. In 1952 Olympics, the horse-riding competition was held for women also. Since then, participation of women in Olympics has been going up.

In 1972, 20<sup>th</sup> Munich Olympics was held in which above one thousand women participated in most of the games and events. In 1968 Olympics Games in Mexico shooting competition was included first time for women. In 21<sup>st</sup> Olympic held at Monteral in 1976 in which 21 competition were included and a total of 92 countries participated and 4834 men, 1251 women could participate in this 1980 Olympics in which there was 42,654 men and 1088 women.

Thus, after the entrance of women in Olympics in 1900 many more games and events were included for women these are as such in 1928, 100 mts, 800mts, 400mts relay. Long jump, High jump, Discuss throw events were included in competition for women section. Women hockey was included in 1980 Olympics held at Moscow and Football was also included in 1996. In athletes 200 mts races were included from 1928 to 1936, 40mts race from 1928 to 1960, 1500mts 1926 to 1968, 4x 400 mts relay 1928 to 1936.

#### **Los-Angeles Olympics: (1984)**

In 1984 Los Angeles Olympics, 21 countries could participate in 120 games and events. There were 61 competitions in which 27% were only for women. Lot of games like Boxing, Athletics, Football, Judo, Wrestling, Weightlifting, Volley ball, Badminton etc were included for women section also. Here, 1620 women could participate in the comparison to 5458 sportsmen.

#### **Barsilona Olympics:**

In Barsilona Olympic, for the first time women participation crossed more than 3000 while in Atlanta Olympic, 197 countries participated in which 6451 sportsmen and 3700 sports women took part.

Women Gymnastics competitions in Olympics remains a centre of attraction because of their extra-ordinary performance in the comparison to men section. Similarly, the Judo was included for men in 1964 Olympics but it was included for women in 1988 at Seol Olympics.

#### **Sydney Olympics:**

Here, I would like to say that how many women could participate in the competition. Paper says that 4300 women participated in the Sydney in new centaury's first Olympics and in which total participation were 10200. Women are beating world records now by men 10-15 years back. If Green, the fastest man on the earth, did 100mts in 9.8 set at Sydney Olympics, Marion Jones, the fastest women on the earth. Took 10.75 seconds. Whereas, it took men 75 years to knock 25 minutes off the

Marathon record, women have done it in 15 years. The English Channel crossing record for both men and women is the currently held by women swimmer. The twentieth century has seen a growing presence of women in sports and the participation amounts to 40% at Sydney Olympics. The women representation on the administrative side at the International Olympics Committee is disappointing. Similarly, the majority of members in most of the bodies at the international level, Olympics level and on the National level are men. As you have seen on the T.V. Screen, the media coverage of women events has a long way to go to the Sydney Olympics. In the words of (I.O.C.) International Olympic Committee President Juan Antonio Samaranch, "The problem of women athletes is solved but one cannot help mentioning that the first women marathon was not held till 1984. Even women are not allowed in Boxing and Wrestling in Sydney Olympics. Yet the athletic woman exudes a certain charm and confidence. There is nothing apologetic about her hard-earned muscles. In athletics, we recognize women who own their bodies inhabiting every inch of it.

#### **Rio-Olympics:**

The 2012 London Olympics were the first in which every participating nation fielded at least one female athlete, as Saudi Arabia, Qatar and Brunei which had previously failed to do so, bowed to pressure from the IOC. Saudi Arabia is doubling its women's team in 2016, fielding two runners, a fencer and a judoka. Qatar and Brunei are fielding a woman each. Some sports offering events for both sexes remain biased. Women can compete only in freestyle wrestling, not Greco-Roman. Boxing has only three weight classes for women versus 10 for men. Rugby sevens will debut in Rio as a new sport, marking the first time that women play the game at the Olympics. The United States will be represented in Brazil by the largest women's team ever fielded by any nation, made of 292 athletes. While the IOC has been promoting gender equality in sport, the number of women holding leadership roles in governing bodies remains low. Only 25 out of the IOC's 126 members and honorary members are women. Ukrainian gymnast Larisa Latynina is the most successful female Olympian to date, having won nine golds, five silvers four bronzes for the Soviet Union between 1956 and 1964. The 2012 Games were the first where women competed in every single sport on offer. However men could not compete in synchronized swimming and rhythmic gymnastic and are still barred from doing so in Rio.

#### **Charge of The Women Athletes:**

The International Olympic Committee is hoping the Rio Games will set a new record for the participation of female athletes, beating the last Games where 44 percent of the competitors were women. Here's a lowdown on how women athletes have come this far from a time when they weren't even allowed to participate at the largest sporting event...

### **High Five For Amazing Ayana:**

Ethiopia's Almaz Ayana's record-breaking 10,000m run at the Rio Olympics has been ranked as the fifth-best women's track performance of all-time... Ayana produced an astounding run to clock 29:17.45 and take 14 seconds off the 23-year-old 10,000 meters record, set by China's Wang Junxia in Beijing in 1993 no women had broken the 30-minute barrier in the previous seven years and Wang's time was also 22 seconds faster than anything that had gone before Ayana had faced doping questions immediately after her run, with Sweden's Sarah Lahti, who also smashed her personal best in the race, saying she did not believe her rival was "100 percent". The 24-year-old Ayana, who had run the 10,000m only once previously, has never failed a drugs test and, through an interpreter, responded to the interrogation by saying: "My doping is training, my doping is Jesus."

### **Top 10 Female Performances on Track:**

1. F Griffith-Joyner (USA) 100m 1988
2. Lina Batschauer-Radke (GER) 800m 1928
3. Genzebe Dibaba (ETH) 1500m 2015
4. Qu Yunxia (CHN) 1500m 1993
5. Almaz Ayana (ETH) 10,000m 2016
6. Wang Junxia (CHN) 10,000m 1993
7. F Griffith-Joyner (USA) 200m 1988
8. Jiang Bo (CHN) 1500m 1997
9. Tatyana Kazankina (SOV) 1500m 1976
10. Tatyana Kazankina (SOV) 800m 1976

### **Top 10 Male Performances:**

1. L. Evans (USA) 400m 1968
2. R. Clarke (AUS) 10,000m 1965
3. U. Bolt (JAM) 200m 2009
4. P. Nurmi (FIN) 10,000m 1924
5. H. Reynolds (USA) 400m 1988
6. R. Harbig (GER) 800 m 1939
7. T. Smith (USA) 200m 1968
8. U. Bolt (JAM) 100 2009
9. S. Coe (GBR) 800 m 1981
10. M. Johnsons (USA) 200m 1996

After analysing the times of performance across all Olympic track distance between 1908 and the Rio Olympics for male athletes and from 1928 to Rio for female athletes, statisticians at Lancaster University (UK) and CSIRO Data Analytics (Australia) found that the world-record shattering run by Ethiopian long-distance runner Almaz Ayana in the women's 10,000 metres at Rio ranks as the fifth best run

every by a women track athlete, Using a branch of statistics called extreme value theory, the researchers compared performances in relation to other best times ran by athletes during the same year—to achieve a comparison of the best rung against contemporary expectations. Therefore, it can be predicted that participation and performance of the women will certainly increase in future Olympics.

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- Published Article in ‘The Tribune’ (English) on 08-09-2016 Sports Page-No-17.
- Published Article in ‘The Tribune’ (English) on 10-09-2016 Sports Page-No-20.

## **A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF RURAL URBAN HIGHER SECONDARY SCHOOL STUDENTS ON PARENTAL ENCOURAGEMENT AND PERSONALITY ADJUSTMENT**

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### **Abstract**

The present study was under taken to study and compare rural urban higher secondary school students on parental encouragement and various dimensions of personality adjustment. 120 rural and 120 urban students were selected by stratified random sampling technique for the present study. The investigator used parental encouragement scale developed by Kusum Agarwal (1999) and California test of personality developed by Louis P. Thorpe, Wills W. Clark and Earnest W. Tiegs (1953) for collection of data. The data was analysed by using Mean, SD and T. Test. The study indicates that there is a significant difference between rural and urban students on parental encouragement and personality adjustment. Urban students have found higher parental encouragement and personality adjustment than rural students.

**Keywords:** Parental Encouragement, Personality Adjustment, Rural and Urban Higher Secondary Students.

### **Introduction**

E ducation of the child first starts from the home and parents are their first teachers and remain their best teachers throughout life. Parents are the natural teachers because they know their child better than anyone else. The role of parents in the success of their children is most important, as all parents want their children to become successful in life. Encouragement is to inspire someone with the courage and confidence to do something new. Encouragement will always have a positive effect. Successful parents frequently use words of encouragement and supportive actions to show their children how to make improvements. They show their love and care for their children on to performance falls short they offer encouragement, support and affection. These parents understand that their children will not be good in every field.

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Therefore, they encourage their children to explore their interests, do their best, utilise their time and try to do better in future. In parental encouragement we assume, that parents show it by helping and guiding the child and coaxing him not to feel disheartened at particular point of difficult. It is glaring fact that parent child relationship is one of the most overwhelming, meaningful and powerful relationship among all interpersonal relations. The quality of interaction within the home or family environment essentially determines the quality of emotional state of the youngster. Generally speaking parental care is characterised by love, care, affection, warmth, acceptance etc. However, in certain cases where the home environment is not that conducive, parental care may take an ugly shape in the form of hatred, hostility, aggression, repression and finally rejection of the child. Sharma Anuradha et al; (2014) found that there is significant and positive relationship between parental encouragement and academic achievement of senior secondary school students. The study also indicates that there is significant difference between male and female with regard to parental encouragement. The female students show greater parental encouragement than male students. Jain Payal et al; (2014) found that significant gender differences existed in parental encouragement, whereas significant locale differences were found in the parental encouragement among rural and urban respondents. Sekar et al; (2013) also revealed that rural and urban higher secondary biology students significantly differed in parental encouragement. The urban higher secondary school students have gained more parental encouragement when compared to the parental encouragement of rural higher secondary school students. Similarly, the higher secondary biology students belonging to Tamil and English medium also significantly differed in their parental encouragement. Bhargav; (2012) Parental encouragement is a great significance in developing psychological as well as academic achievement. Parents play a significant role for higher need achievement of their children.

Man among the living beings has the highest capacities to adapt to new situations. All human behaviour is purposeful and determined. These are directed towards the attainment of some goals or satisfaction of some needs. We human beings are attempting and struggling to adjust the physical needs such as hunger and protection from harm. We also try to satisfy psychological needs which constitute emotional security, acceptance etc. so that to satisfy and live a luxurious life in such a complex environment. In this process we either try or struggle to modify our surroundings in accordance with our respective needs. These adjustments can be believed either harmony or maladjustment between the person and his environment. An individual confronts quite a number of adjustment problems, which have direct impact upon his general efficiency. In the process of development of individual an opportunity should be given to them to overcome from problems and obstacles which they likely to face during their life. Vandana; (2013) studied that there is significant difference in adjustment of higher secondary school students and also female students



have good adjustment level when compared to the male students. Ganai and Mir; (2013) were found no significant difference between male and female college students in terms of total scores obtained on the adjustment scale. The two groups also do not differ in terms of scores obtained separately on any dimension of the adjustment scale. Furthermore the two groups showed no significant difference in terms of their academic achievement. Raju and Rahamtulla; (2007) found that adjustment of school children is primarily dependent on the school variables like the class in which they are studying, the medium of instruction present in the school, the type of management of the school, parental education and occupation of the school children also significantly influenced adjustment. Srivastava; (1996) defined adjustment as 'the harmonious relationship with the environment in which most of the individual needs are satisfied in socially acceptable ways and resulting in forms of behaviour which may range from passive conformity to vigorous action. Sinha; (1988) found that adjustment was negatively related to anxiety and neuroticism and positively correlated with extroversion. Extroversion was found to be negatively correlated with anxiety and a positive correlation was found between neuroticism and anxiety. Singh; (1978) the investigator found that the superior children did not differ from the average children in case of home, school and emotional adjustment. According to Allport; (1961) "Personality is the dynamic organization within the individual of those psychophysical systems that determine his unique adjustment to his environment".

### **Need and Importance**

Parental encouragement is one of the great significance in developing psychological as well as academic behaviour of the child. Present day society is based on competition in which everyone has the tendency to perform as perfectly as possible, so encouragement, involvement and support of parents make him more confident and optimistic. Parents often don't realize how much power they have to influence their children by giving them positive attention for their behaviour.

Personality adjustment means adaption to physical environment as well as to social demands. No human being can be alive distant from his corporal and pooled atmosphere. Human beings are able to adjust to the physical, social and psychological demands that arise from having inter-dependability with other individuals. It is the process by which a living being maintains a balance between his needs and the circumstances that influence the satisfaction of these needs. Adjustment is individual's ability to harmonize his own needs with those of environment. The more an individual actualizes his potentialities the better he is deemed to be adjusted. Adjustment is a process that helps us to lead a happy and well contended life. The problem under study is a humble attempt to assess the parental encouragement and personality adjustment of rural urban higher secondary school students. The investigator has reviewed the literature and found it feasible to work on the topic.



## Objectives

The following objectives have been formulated for the present study:

1. To study and compare parental encouragement of rural and urban higher secondary school students.
2. To compare male and female higher secondary school students on parental encouragement.
3. To study and compare personal adjustment of rural and urban higher secondary school students.
4. To compare male and female higher secondary school students on personal adjustment.
5. To study and compare social adjustment of rural and urban higher secondary school students.
6. To compare male and female higher secondary school students on social adjustment.

## Hypotheses

For achieving the above objectives following hypotheses were formulated:

1. There is a significant difference between rural and urban higher secondary school students on parental encouragement.
2. There is a significant difference between male and female higher secondary school students on parental encouragement.
3. There is a significant difference between rural and urban higher secondary school students on personal adjustment.
4. There is a significant difference between male and female higher secondary school students on personal adjustment.
5. There is a significant difference between rural and urban higher secondary school students on social adjustment.
6. There is a significant difference between male and female higher secondary school students on social adjustment.

## Methodology and Procedure

### Sample

The Sample for the present study consisted of 240 higher secondary school students (rural 120 and urban = 120) selected by stratified random sampling technique from various higher secondary school students of district Srinagar and Pulwama.

### Tools

Following tools were used for the Present study:

1. Agarwal Parental Encouragement Scale by Kusum Agarwal (1999).
2. California test of Personality by Louis P. Thorpe, Wills W. Clark and Earnest W. Tiegs 1953.

### Statistical Treatment

The data has been analysed with the help of Mean, SD and t-test, in order to find the mean difference between various groups.

### Analysis and interpretation

Every data for research is futile unless and until it is not analysed and proved statistically. The analysis and interpretation of data have been arranged in a tabular form in the following manner.

**Table 1: Showing the mean comparison of rural and urban higher secondary school students on parental encouragement (N= 120 in each group)**

Group	Mean	S.D.	t-value	Level of Significance
Rural	297.53	34.242	4.63	Significant at 0.01 level
Urban	315.97	29.833		

The perusal of this table shows the mean comparison of rural and urban higher secondary school students on parental encouragement. The above table indicates that there is significant difference between the rural and urban higher secondary school students on parental encouragement at 0.01 level. The table also reveals that mean favours urban students which indicates that urban students perceive higher parental encouragement than rural students. Therefore the hypothesis No. 1, which reads as, there is a significant difference between rural and urban higher secondary school students on parental encouragement stands accepted.

**Table 2 Showing the mean comparison of male and female higher secondary school students on parental encouragement (N=120 in each group)**

Group	Mean	S.D.	t-value	Level of significance
Male	300.9	36.17	2.75	0.01
Female	312.6	29.25		

The above table depicts the mean comparison of male and female higher secondary school students on parental encouragement. The table reveals that there is significant difference between male and female higher secondary school students on parental encouragement at 0.01 level. The table further shows that mean favours female students which indicates female students perceive higher parental encouragement than male students. It is evident from the above table that the hypothesis No. 2, which reads as, there is a significant difference between male and female higher secondary school students on parental encouragement stands accepted.

**Table 3** Showing the mean comparison of rural and urban higher secondary school students on various dimensions of personal adjustment (N=120 in each group)

Dimensions	Group	Mean	S.D.	t-value	Level of Significance
Self-reliance (1-A)	Rural	6.08	1.317	6.09	Significant at 0.01
	Urban	7.08	1.317		
Sense of personal worth (1-B)	Rural	8.95	1.162	3.75	Significant at 0.01
	Urban	9.55	1.436		
Sense of personal freedom (1-C)	Rural	7.23	1.207	0.42	Insignificant
	Urban	7.17	1.232		
Feeling of belongingness (1-D)	Rural	6.53	1.188	1.09	Insignificant
	Urban	6.33	1.584		
Withdrawing tendencies (1-E)	Rural	6.36	1.71	2.28	Significant at 0.05
	Urban	5.88	1.661		
Nervous symptoms (1-F)	Rural	5.76	1.449	2.73	Significant at 0.01
	Urban	5.27	1.510		

The perusal of this table shows the mean comparison of rural and urban higher secondary school students on various dimensions of personal adjustment. The analysis shows that there is significant difference between rural and urban higher secondary school students on self-reliance, sense of personal worth and nervous symptoms at 0.01 level, while as both the groups differ significantly at 0.05 level on withdrawing tendencies. The above table also reveals that there is no significant difference between the two groups on sense of personal freedom and feeling of belongingness. The table also reveals that rural students have higher withdrawing tendencies and nervous symptoms while as urban students have higher self-reliance and sense of personal worth.

It is evident from above table that the hypothesis No.3, which reads as; there is significant a difference between rural and urban higher secondary school students on personal adjustment stands accepted.

**Table 4 Showing the mean comparison of male and female higher secondary school students on various dimensions of personal adjustment (N=120 in each group)**

Dimensions	Group	Mean	S.D.	t-value	Level of significance
Self-reliance (1-A)	Male	6.58	1.42	0.04	Insignificant
	Female	6.56	1.39		
Sense of personal worth (1-B)	Male	9.47	1.21	2.52	Significant at 0.05 level
	Female	9.04	1.43		
Sense of personal freedom (1-C)	Male	7.44	1.09	3.26	Significant at 0.01 Level
	Female	6.95	1.28		
Feeling of belongingness (1-D)	Male	6.63	1.23	2.23	Significant at 0.05 Level
	Female	6.25	1.53		
Withdrawing tendencies (1-E)	Male	6.88	1.41	7.44	Significant at 0.01 Level
	Female	5.54	1.54		
Nervous symptoms (1-F)	Male	5.76	1.49	3	Significant at 0.01 Level
	Female	5.25	1.46		

The perusal of above table shows the mean comparison of male and female higher secondary school students on various dimensions of personal adjustment. The above table reveals that there is significant difference between male and female higher secondary school students on sense of personal freedom, withdrawing tendencies and nervous symptoms at 0.01 level, while as both the groups differ significantly on sense of personal worth and feeling of belongingness at 0.05 level. The table further reveals that there is no significant difference between the two groups on self-reliance. However the table also reveals that male students have higher sense of personal worth, sense of personal freedom, feeling of belongingness, withdrawal tendencies and nervous symptoms than female students.

It is evident from above table that the hypothesis No. 4, which reads as; there is significant a difference between male and female higher secondary school students on personal adjustment stands accepted.

**Table 5: Showing the mean comparison of rural and urban higher secondary school students on various dimensions of social adjustment (N=120 in each groups)**

Dimensions	Group	Mean	S.D.	t-value	Level of Significance
<b>Social standard (2-A)</b>	Rural	8.43	1.565	0.17	Insignificant
	Urban	8.46	1.256		
<b>Social skills (2-B)</b>	Rural	6.47	1.223	5.25	Significant at 0.01
	Urban	7.35	1.406		
<b>Anti-social tendencies (2-C)</b>	Rural	5.73	1.270	2.02	Significant at 0.05
	Urban	5.43	1.090		
<b>Family relations (2-D)</b>	Rural	7.34	1.163	2.60	Significant at 0.01
	Urban	6.86	1.404		
<b>School relations (2-E)</b>	Rural	5.98	1.233	5.44	Significant at 0.01
	Urban	6.88	1.382		
<b>Community relations (2-F)</b>	Rural	6.05	1.215	4.21	Significant at 0.01
	Urban	6.83	1.519		

The perusal of this table shows the mean comparison of rural and urban higher secondary school students on various dimensions of social adjustment. The above table indicates that there is significant difference between rural and urban higher secondary school students on social skills, family relations, school relations and community relations at 0.01 level, while as both the groups differ significantly at 0.05 level on anti-social tendencies. The analysis further reveals that there is no significant difference between the two groups on social standard. However the table also shows that rural students have higher anti-social tendencies and family relations while as urban students have higher social skills, school relations and community relations.

It is evident from above table that the hypothesis No. 5, which reads as; there is significant a difference between rural and urban higher secondary school students on social adjustment stands accepted.

**Table 6: Showing the mean comparison of male and female higher secondary school students on various dimensions of social adjustment (N=120 in each group)**

Dimensions	Group	Mean	S.D.	t-value	Level of significance
Social standard (2-A)	Male	8.41	1.42	0.29	Insignificant
	Female	8.46	1.40		
Social skills (2-B)	Male	7.1	1.49	2.29	Significant at 0.05 Level
	Female	6.71	1.25		
Anti-social tendencies (2-C)	Male	5.94	1.15	5.41	Significant at 0.01 Level
	Female	5.21	1.11		
Family relations (2-D)	Male	7.13	1.42	0.37	Insignificant
	Female	7.06	1.18		
School relations (2-E)	Male	6.71	1.25	2.85	Significant at 0.01 level
	Female	6.30	1.07		
Community relations (2-F)	Male	6.44	1.69	0.05	Insignificant
	Female	6.45	1.10		

The above table shows the mean comparison of male and female higher secondary school students on various dimensions of social adjustment. The table reveals that there is significant difference between male and female higher secondary school students on social skills at 0.05 level, while as both the groups differ significantly at 0.01 on anti-social tendencies and school relations. The table also reveals that there is no significant difference between the two groups on social standard, family relations and community relations. The table further shows male students have higher social skills, anti-social tendencies and school relations than female students.

It is evident from above table that the hypothesis No. 6, which reads as; there is significant difference between male and female higher secondary school students on social adjustment stands accepted.

#### Major findings and conclusion

- i. It is clear that on various dimensions rural and urban differ significantly. The study revealed that there is significant difference between rural and urban students on parental encouragement. Urban students have been found to be higher parental encouragement than rural students.
- ii. It was found that male and female students differ significantly on parental encouragement, it was revealed that female students have higher parental encouragement than male students.

- iii. On various dimensions of personal adjustment, it was found that rural and urban higher secondary school students differ significantly on self-reliance, sense of personal worth, withdrawing tendencies and nervous symptoms. Rural students have higher withdrawing tendencies and nervous symptoms. While as, urban students have higher self-reliance and sense of personal worth. It was also found that there is no significant difference between the two groups on sense of personal freedom and feeling of belongingness.
- iv. On various dimensions of personal adjustment, it was found that male and female higher secondary school students differ significantly on sense of personal worth, sense of personal freedom, feeling of belongingness, withdrawing tendencies and nervous symptoms. Male students have higher sense of personal worth, sense of personal freedom, feeling of belongingness, withdrawing tendencies and nervous symptoms than female students. Further, it was found that there is no significant difference between the two groups on self-reliance.
- v. On various dimensions of social adjustment, it was found that rural and urban higher secondary school students differ significantly on social skills, anti-social tendencies, family relations, school relations and community relations. It was also found that rural students have higher anti-social tendencies and family relations. While as, urban students have higher social skills, school relations and community relations. However, there is no significant difference between the two groups on social standard.
- vi. On various dimensions of social adjustment, it was found that male and female higher secondary school students differ significantly on social skills, anti-social tendencies and school relations. It was revealed that male students have higher social skills, anti-social tendencies and school relations than female students. Further, it was found that there is no significant difference between the two groups on social standard, family relations and community relations.

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## **INTERNET AS A DOUBLE-EDGED SWORD: ITS EXPECTED AND UNEXPECTED IMPACT ON STUDENTS: A GLOBAL REVIEW**

*Syed Noorul Amin\**

### **Abstract**

The present review addressed the global perspective about the role and impact of the Internet on students. The recent decades have witnessed a dramatic increase in the use of the Internet and computer technologies which become a common instrument in daily living of the students and have a significant influence on their quality of life, education and have different impact on male and female students. Students today are growing up in an interconnected, networked world; they have unprecedented access to modern technologies and are use them in expected and unexpected ways. The Internet has added a lot to students lives and has also made a certain things disappear. Despite the positive effects of Internet, there is growing literature on the negative effects of its use. Its appearance, not only brings convenience, but also may cause a great deal of potential problems. In the present study, effort has been made to check the impact of the Internet on students' academic life as a source of excellence or weakness and its impact on quality of social relationships as a source integration or isolation. Besides, an overview of the Internet use among male and female students to determine the difference of use.

**Key Words:** Internet, Double-Edged Sword, Expected, Unexpected, Students, Review.

### **Introduction**

Technological advancement gives rise to so many ICT tools which seem to be central to contemporary societies and therefore referred this era as information technology age determined by *knowledge society*. It is reported that ICTs in general and the *Internet* in particular is one of the most important and complex innovations of mankind. Creation of the Internet has brought about a change in lifestyle of the people which is reported to rely on Internet. The role of Information and technology (ICT) in human development has received momentum due to growing proliferation of the Internet. ICT has been viewed as a cluster of associated technologies defined by their

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functional usage in information access and communication of which one embodiment is the Internet (Ogunsola & Aboyade, 2005). Being a newly established dimension of modern technology in the contemporary world, Internet plays a vital role in the change and evolution of lives of the people in present society. From its beginning, it has grown like an octopus to affect different spheres of human endeavour. It has become a necessary tool, so that removing it from life is not imaginable (Aslvyn, 2001). It has become a global source of information accessible at *anytime* by *anyone* from *anywhere* on this planet. It has converted the whole world into a global information web. Internet has changed our lives in a revolutionary way regardless of any geographical boundaries. Due to Internet use, people across the globe have become part of a networked society, whereby time and distance have lost their meaning (Holtz 2002). This indicates that communication has shifted from the '*one-to-many*' to '*many-to-many*'. It is arguably one of the most significant technological developments of the late 20th century and a mechanism for information dissemination and a medium for collaborative interaction among and between the individuals and their computers without the geographical limitations associated with space (Leiner, *et.al.* 2000). It is a 'live' but constantly 'moving', theoretically borderless, potentially infinite space for the production and the circulation of information. So, the Internet is one of the greatest recent advancement in the world that has fostered the process of making the world a *global village*. It is also regarded as a powerful communication medium due to its unique characteristics. It includes interactivity, hypertextuality and multimediariness (Severin & Tankard 2001). These characteristics help users to be active and to exchange the roles in their mutual discourse. Peter Cochrane, (1998) predicted what the world was heading towards in the 21<sup>st</sup> century by saying, "*If you are not online, you don't exist*" (Seitel, 2001). It is beyond doubt that the Internet has emerged faster than any other communication channel and has cogently changed our mundane life.

The Internet has experienced vast expansion in recent years, leading to its extensive use by people from all generations. People in different age groups and jobs, students and academicians using the Internet because it is the easiest, fastest, and cheapest ways of accessing necessary information. For a generation of young people, technology has assumed a substantial stake in their social and educational lives. According to Kara Chan & Fang (2007) Internet is used for different purposes by young people such as making friends, shopping, listening to music, having fun, doing homework, and finding information for further education. Internationally, there are many surveys on the use of the Internet, and nearly all find that Internet use is most prevalent amongst younger, more educated people (Hoffman, Novak & Schlosser, 2000). Chan & Fu (2009 cited at Bankole *et.al* 2012) that the Internet searching helps university students to boost their intellectual development and job preparation. Due to the endless nature of information resources on the Internet. Researches indicate that seeking information on the Internet has become the first choice option for many people, especially for students (Cole *et al.*, 2003; Lawrence & Giles, 1999). About half of

the students begin using computers during their undergraduate years, and nearly two-thirds of them make use of Internet for educational purposes (Usta & Yildirim, 2007). Students accepted that the Internet is more informative, useful, less expensive, time saving. It has made a tremendous impact on the academic activities of the students. Students use the Internet activities (facilities) especially for seeking homework and their projects by using search engines. Glenda *et al.* (2006) some of the most important reasons why students go online include research, school assignments, e-mails and chatting. Ibegwam (2004) that majority of the students used the Internet for academic purposes. They use e-journals, e-libraries, e-books, and online databases as academic resources for their related courses (Shahin & Ercan, 2010). New times are characterised by new ways of learning, primarily through use of the Internet (Kerry, 2000; Moor & Zazkis, 2000). The Internet is a relatively new channel for scholarly resources, and contains vast quantities of information that vary a great deal regarding its contents, aim, target group, reliability etc. Hence, it is important that the end-user is aware of the diverse information available on the Internet, and educated in the criteria by which the information content should be assessed (Chapman, 2002).

Today's students are believed to integrate technology in all aspects of their lives for varied purposes, particularly socializing, entertaining and shopping (Asselin, Moayeri, 2008) as well as doing homework (Lenhart & Hitlin, 2005). Students have easier access to a wider range of material, and can establish links between different information in variety of ways. Adeya & Oyelaran-Oyeyinka (2002) noted that the Internet will increase student access to education, improve curriculum and quality of instruction and increase the productivity of academic publications. It allows learners to ask questions or share ideas with teachers and friends via electronic mail (James, 2001), to do hands-on activities using Internet-based manipulative (Crawford, 2003), to engage in collaborative-projects with other students in different countries (James, 2001), to collaborate in discussion forums (Yang, 2002), to ask questions directly to experts, or to obtain primary resources (Kerry, 2000). Anything from discussions to research based activities with off country studying is possible. It allows students to broaden their academic experience, access important information and communicate to others within academic community. Ojedokun (2001) noted that the Internet has many benefits in the academic cycle, including provision of round-the-clock access to a wide variety of information sources globally and the ability to discuss and share experience. Through the Internet, many different activities can be assigned to the students, which will enhance their education. With the Internet activities, which previously required students to be physically present in the classroom, can now be performed virtually without attending classrooms (Bellon, 2002; Foster, 2003). All of these are new ways of learning which were unknown two decades ago.

### **Internet Impact on Academics (Excellence or Weakness)**

The Internet can be beneficial for students as it allows them to obtain relevant academic information; it also offers other possibilities that may be harmful to their academic experience. Dehmler (2009) asserts that students today are growing up in an interconnected, networked world; they have unprecedented access to modern technologies and are use them in expected and unexpected ways. In the literature, there are studies about Internet and its effects on students, the relationship between educational performance and Internet use (Siomos *et al.*, 2008; Ghassemzadeh *et al.*, 2008; Del Castillo *et al.*, 2008; Recabarren *et al.*, 2008; Tahiroglu *et al.*, 2008). Sahin, Balta & Ercan (2010) found strong relationship between Internet use trends and educational performance, and wrong use of the Internet can cause a major decrease in students' academic performance. Anunobi (2006) reflected that majority of university students used Internet for academic purposes and minimum students used it for entertainment purposes. Kumar & Kaur (2006) students are the most frequent users of the Internet. They used the Internet mainly for educational purposes rather than for entertainment. Papastergiou & Solomonidou (2005) majority of the students searched the web for information about school courses, while fewer of them engaged in communication activities via chat, email or video conferencing and in web page creation. Suhail & Bargees (2006) Internet usage impacts education in a positive way by increasing communication with classmates and professors, increasing access to libraries and educational databases, and improving study hours and study habits. Some studies have suggested a positive association between students' Internet use and their learning. Jackson *et al.* (2006) students, who used the Internet more, scored higher on standardized test of reading achievement and had higher grades. Similarly, Turner & Farmer (2008) students' outcomes in term of grade, of the Internet-based multimedia classroom, seen with 36 percent increase in grades, and a 56 percent reduction in failures. The significant drop in failure rate could be attributed to the integrated blending of online and in class format through the cyber classroom, since most failures were due to external problems and commitments. However, some other investigators have found negative effects of Internet use on academic outcomes (Choi, 2007; Sirgy, Lee, & Bae, 2006). Some studies found that computer and Internet has become important tools for students' communication and entertainment; however, it has not yet become a useful tool for their study (Zhang & Jia, 2002). Galuszka (2007) technologies, such as the Internet and computers, were not in widespread use for academic purposes. Some studies focused on the general pattern of the Internet usage among students found that students tend to use the Internet less for academic purposes. A study carried out by Pew Internet and American Life project (Asfaw & Bo, 2003) that college students use the Internet more for social activities like communicating with friends than for academic-related tasks. Pierce & Vaca (2008) reported significantly lower grades of Internet-users than those who did not use the service. However, Kuh & Hu (2001) argues that surfing the Internet for course material

had positive effect on intellectual development and vocational preparation, in addition to personal development of college and university students. A significant difference in academic performance between students have Internet based infrastructure and access on their campus and those that do not (Osunade *et al.* 2009). Tella (2007) was also found most of the respondents reported using the Internet for the purpose of obtaining course related information and that the Internet contributes significantly to their academic performance. Among college students, however, searching information online about course materials helps boost intellectual development and facilitates preparation for future jobs. On the other hand Lubans (2000) Internet had positive influence on the number of sources found and quality of the students' written work.

Students are lured by easy access and often do not question the value or quality of material. Most of the students are careless about the reliability of the information available on Internet (Weitzner 2007). There are not necessarily quality or authenticity checks on information on the Internet. Misrepresented, fake, and pirated literature causes problems for researchers and students. There are sites that many users may find offensive, as well as instructions for carrying out violent or illegal acts. This has a bad effect on their grades when they use more accessible and less secure Internet sites in such kind of courses and projects (Yasar & Tuncay, 2010). However, researches indicate that students do not have enough ability and knowledge to search for information on the web (Wallace & Kupperman, 1997), which ends up obtaining a large amount of irrelevant information about their studies. They pay little attention to what the information is (e.g., the source, date, and reliability) focusing instead on what it says. This strategy is similar to the "copy-paste" strategy (Bereiter & Scardamalia 1989). In accord with this conception, most of these students accepted what they found on the Web as true, with no consideration of the source or purpose of the information. This brings about some important and interesting issues with it. The Internet is a 'chaotic' library because it displays no discernible order, classification or categorization. It therefore poses a challenge on the students' ability to distinguish between information from refereed scholarly journals available digitally and the digital equivalent of vanity press publications.

However numerous students have positive perception about the quality of learning through the Internet and also identified online interactive learning, electronic research, innovation, communication and global education (Muniandy, 2010). Majority of the students have positive attitude about Internet (Asan & Koca (2006). Majority of students opine that Internet is a universal digital library which provides fastest way to reach knowledge. The idea that is learning is constructive process widely accepted; learners do not passively receive information but instead actively construct knowledge. Through the constructivist approach, integrating Internet to the education is so easy and effective. Some students strongly prefer using the Internet as their primary information source (Gibson & Mazur, 2001). One reason students give for

preferring the Web over traditional print materials; they feel they can locate information faster when using the Internet (Vansickle 2002). It has been observed that excessive online stay closely linked to low academic performance (Kubey, Lavin, & Barrows, 2001). Students who use the Internet “excessively” experience a decline in their study habits and grades (Young, 1996). Studies revealed that excessive Internet use is linked to loss of sleep. Besides, feeling that life without the Internet would be boring. Few students who use the Internet perceive they have a negative impact on their academic performance their grades, their health, or their social lives (Scherer, 1997; Anderson, 2001). Excessive use of Internet has been associated to problems with maintaining daily routines, school performance, and family relationships (Rickert, 2001). Chen & Peng (2006) non-heavy Internet-users have better relationship with administrative staff, academic grades and learning satisfaction than heavy users, and claimed that the heavy Internet-users were likely to be depressed than non-heavy users. Social network websites grab attention of the students and then divert it towards non-educational, unethical and inappropriate actions including useless chatting, time killing by random searching and not doing their jobs (Kuppuswamy & Shankar 2010). Students are seems connected with each other for sharing their daily learning experiences (Liccardi *et al.*, (2007). reported that social networking websites keep them in touch with friends (Lenhart Madden, 2007). On the other hand Greenhow & Robelia (2009), Madge *et al.* (2009) & Selwyn (2009) revealed that social networking websites serve educational goal as connects students through such informal methods. Lampe *et al.* (2008) reported that social networking websites enable collaborative sense making among students as it is used by majority of students. A number of studies have found relationship between social media and student commitment in higher education. Nicole *et al.* (2007) found strong link between social networking websites and students involvement. Such connections could help students in term of home assignments and projects in terms of job, internship and other opportunity. Madge *et al.* (2009) argue that often students use social networking websites to discuss their academics issues formally and informally and also to interact with their instructors, teachers and professors. Research examining student instructor relationships suggests that professors who have online profiles with high disclosure levels are associated with increased student motivation (Mazer *et al.*, 2007) and that self-disclosures decreased uncertainty, increased student motivation, and created more positive attitudes toward both the course and the professor (Sullivan *et al.*, 2004). In addition to its popular acceptance, the Internet is rapidly becoming an integral part of the daily lives of students. Since the Internet has become an essential component of students everyday life throughout the world. So an information world, called the *cyber world*, comes into being between the social and physical worlds. The number of people using Internet is growing day by day most of them accepts that Internet is a revolutionary new medium that has changed our lifestyle one way or the otherway. Daramola (2004) maintains that an observable trend in the Internet is that more and more resources are moving to



it. The spectacular increase in the use of the Internet has stimulated research on its impact on our everyday lives. New technology brings the new lifestyle to people mostly to the students. Internet already has the ability to influence so much in our daily lives (Bloch, 2007; Driskell & Lyon, 2002; Rohlinger & Brown, 2009; Tufekci, 2008). It has significantly impacted the lifestyle of everyone; changing the way people work, live and learn (Gates, 2000).

### **Internet Impact on Quality of Social Relationships (Integration or Isolation)**

Researchers have studied the relationship of new technologies on interpersonal communication and relationships. Merkle (2000) reported that Internet as a social technology gives rise to interpersonal relationships. The online social interaction seems to affect the people. McKenna *et al.* (2002) found that Internet use reduces feelings of loneliness by increasing users' social circles and helping them to become less socially anxious. Selfhout *et al.* (2009) explored that use of the Internet for communication predicted less depression among the youngsters who have low friendship quality and played a role in the well-being of the users. Some studies found Internet as contributory to psychological well-being (Weiser, 2001 & Wellman *et al.*, 2001). Internet communication has been shown to increase measures of social support (LaRose *et al.*, 2001). Brignall & Valeyb (2005) observed that using Internet among youngsters has increased greatly by communicating through the Internet. Among users, greater use of the Internet was associated with increased contact with family members and an increased participation in online communities. Hoffman & Venkatesh (2004) point out the Internet-users had more total contact with family members than Internet non-users. Many Internet-users believe that using the Internet has improved their lives in this way, even providing an essential link to other. Some studies suggest that Internet-users have higher levels of community and political involvement (Wellman, 2001) and have higher levels of generalized trust and larger social networks (Cole *et al.*, 2003). Internet-users are reported to spend three times more time in attending social events than Internet non-users (Neustadtl & Robinson, 2002). Internet-users actually have the larger social networks, it allows them to stay in touch with family and friends and, in many cases, extend their social networks (Howard *et al.* (2001). McKenna (2002) stated that people use the Internet to form new relationships online. Growth of the Information Technology caused an increment on use innovative applications, in order to promote behaviours related to healthy lifestyle (Crutzen *et al.*, 2008). Rice (2006) consider that the use of Internet as information source regarding healthy lifestyle. Mitchell *et al.* (2009) the Internet has been acknowledged as a valuable means of health promotion; with information in web spread throw static health educational sites, peer support groups, online health consultations and delivery of Internet interventions. Lewis *et al.* (2009) refer that interactive health communication applications are effective for increasing knowledge and may improve outcomes, regarding the adoption of healthier lifestyle.



On the other hand studies indicated that Internet use undermines well-being because online connections are weaker than real-life connections, or because online connections are often used to replace real-life relationships and activities (UCLA Internet Report 2001). Some even go so far as to implicate Internet use as a causal factor for psychological harm among users (Eastin & LaRose, 2000). Yet other studies suggest that the Internet can have direct negative effects such as psychological problems including social isolation, depression, loneliness, and difficulties with time management (Choi, 2007). Katz *et al.* (2001) stated that the more time Internet-users spent on-line; the more likely they were to belong to off-line religious, leisure, and community organizations, compared to nonusers. Nie & Erbring (2000) argued that the Internet was creating a “lonely crowd” in cyberspace, because Internet use “necessarily” takes time away from family and friends. They also revealed that heavy Internet use resulted in less time spent with one’s family and friends. It has been vilified as a powerful new tool for the devil, awash in pornography, causing users to be addicted to hours each day of “surfing” hours during which they are away from their family and friends, resulting in depression and loneliness for the individual user, and further weakening neighbourhood and community ties. Nie (2001) arguing that time is a limited commodity, so that the hours spent on the Internet must come at a cost to other activities. Internet use has been found to be associated with negative personal and social developmental outcomes (Lloyd *et al.*, 2007). Therefore, time spent on online activities may cut other activities such as reading and social interaction, which are essential to normal development (Morgan & Cotton, 2003; Nie, 2001; Nie, Hillygus, & Erbring, 2002; Weiser, 2001). Internet use as linked to the quality of social relationships. Certain studies reveal that Internet use lowers the quality of social relationships (Morgan & Cotten, 2003). Yet other studies, reported that there have been no linkage found between the two (LaRose, Ghuay, & Bovin, 2002; Sanders, Field, Diego, & Kaplan, 2000). Some researchers believed that Internet is making people isolated, depressed and lonely. People who use Internet remain cut off their environment and lose face to face relations which are strong by spending time in virtual reality with unknown people, which results in weaker relations. Some other researchers supports that people become more social, have chance to meet variety of people of their interests without any time and space barrier. Some found Internet as neutral without any significant affect.

### **Internet Impact on Male and Female Users (Internet and Gender Difference)**

Gender difference in Internet usage has remained a matter of concern to researches are another attractive concern of the research studies. Shaw & Gant (2002) found that no gender differences are detected when participants are involved in various online activities such as synchronous and dyadic chat sessions. Jackson *et al.* (2001), Odell *et al.* (2000), Nachmias *et al.* (2000) Schumacher *et al.* (2001) & Durndell & Haag (2002) does not provide consistent evidence for the presence or otherwise of a

gender gap in Internet use across different groups of males and females. Some studies indicate male domination in terms of usage and attitude towards, the Internet and some studies indicates females. Weiser (2000) observed that there is significant gender difference in Internet usage. Males tend to be more familiar with the computers and Internet as compared to females. Similarly Morahan & Schumacher (2000) observed that males were more likely to be pathological Internet-users than females. Nachmias & Shemla (2000) reported that gender differences exist in the use of the Internet with a higher and more extensive usage by males when compared to females. Males were found to spend more of their time on the Internet, indicating preferred locations for use, resource downloading, website creation and participation in discussion groups. Sherman *et al.* (2000) supported the bias towards males. More males tend to use the World Wide Web; they are also more likely to have their own e-mail addresses and web pages and spend longer hours than females surfing the Internet. He further reported that males, other than for e-mail, used the technology more often and had more positive attitudes than females. The bias is seen even though both girls and boys are equally comfortable and show positive feelings toward the Internet. Moreover, Bimber (2000) gender differences exist due to socioeconomic status, in which men and women may differ in technology adaptation which in return influences computers and Internet access and usage. He further argued that women are substantially less likely to be frequent users, equally likely to be infrequent users, and more likely to be intermediate users. Ono & Zovodny (2003) females to be less frequent and less intense users of the Internet. Mishra & Bisht (2005) majority of the students used the Internet in which male students use Internet in greater numbers than females. Numerous studies have documented that overall, boy's use the Internet more frequently, for longer and for a wider variety of uses than girls do (Gross, 2004; Haythronthwaite & Wellman, 2002; Subrahmanyam, Greenfield, Kraut, & Gross, 2001).

It has been found that a number of studies revealed certain types of gender differences in various domains of the life. Men and women use the Internet for different purposes. Odell *et al.* (2000) the gap in use of the Internet among male and female students has nearly closed, there remain differences in how male and female students use the Internet. Researchers have shown little difference in the amount of time men and women spend online, yet they have consistently found that men and women differ in their reasons for accessing the Internet. Hupfer & Detlor (2006) reported that male and female differences in web searching appear to persist such as women are more into e-mail, chat, and search reference materials about medical and government information whereas men tend to focus on information about investment, purchase and personal interests. Garbarino & Strahilevitz's (2004) females perceived Internet as a tool of maintaining social values. Significant difference between male and female Internet-users in terms of online health information users (Lorence & Park 2007). Males were more likely to be Internet-users but in terms of online health information users, females were the dominant users. However, Wolin & Kargaonkar

(2003) gender differences in beliefs, attitudes, and behaviour towards web advertising reported a slight difference that males are likely to browse the Internet for functional and entertainment purpose while females are more into shopping reasons. Moreover, Niemivirta (1997) there is a difference in academic interest between genders; males are more extrinsically motivated while females are more intrinsically motivated in terms of furthering their education. On the other hand, Heimrath & Goulding (2001) female students felt that the Internet was too big and unstructured thus, searching the Internet difficult, not enjoyable and will use it only when unavoidable whereas male students were happy to search the Internet for relevant information.

Men were more likely than women to use the Internet for purposes related to entertainment and leisure, whereas females use it primarily for interpersonal communication and educational assistance Weiser (2000). Sherman *et al.* (2000) further supported the Internet gender gap among students by comparing the usage patterns of male students participated more in surfing, newsgroups and chat groups, while female students reported significantly higher e-mail use. Similarly Odell *et al.* (2000) men reported greater use of the Internet for visiting sex sites, researching purchases, checking the news, playing games, and listening to and copying music, whereas more women used the Internet for e-mail and school-related research. Female adolescents use the Internet to search for information and likely to use the Internet for educational purposes (Chen & Peng, 2008). On other hand male adolescents use the Internet to play games. Similarly, men surfed the Internet for entertainment or fun more than did women and male students' downloaded music and videos more than did their female counterparts ( Jones *et al.*, 2009). Tsai & Lin (2004) gender differences in perceptions of the Internet among adolescents, males perceived its use as a source of enjoyment or "toy", while females took a more practical approach and perceived it as a "tool", "technology" or "tour" (providing the ability to navigate around different sites and people).With respect to other uses of the Internet, there is evidence that some of these too are gendered. So the notion of Internet use among males is more task-oriented than women's, and the tendency for women to use e-mail more accords with their greater interpersonal orientation (Jackson *et al.*, 2001). Jones *et al.* (2009) demonstrating that female college students used the Internet for communicative and academic purposes more than did their male counterparts, while male students used the Internet for a wider variety of leisure activities than did female counterparts. Liu & Huang (2008) male/female differences in web searching materials by focusing on the online reading environment shows that there is a significant difference between genders in which female readers have a strong preference for paper as a reading medium than male readers. On the other hand male readers have greater sense of satisfaction with online reading. Thus there are some significant differences between male and female behaviour in the online reading environment. In relation to the different purposes of Internet use, studies show gender differences in a range of topics of interest. Women tend to go online for a narrower range of topics, such as health and religion, while men

tend to engage in a broader range of activities (Fallows, 2005). Similarly, Jones *et al.* (2009) reported that male students pursue a wider variety of activities including games, sports, technology, politics, personal finance and adult content than do their female counterparts. While some studies indicated gender differences in Internet abuse .Males were more likely to become Internet abusers than females (Bayraktar & Gun, 2007; Frangos & Kiohos, 2010; Tahiroglu *et al.*, 2008; Shu Yang & Tung, 2007). Research shows that males are more likely to frequent sexual websites than females are (Doring 2010; Mitchell *et al.*, 2003). This difference could mean that males are exposed to more alternative sexual material when they go online, than females are. Gender difference was also found to be significant in the students' confidence about computers and stereotypical views of computer users (Chen & Tsai, 2007). Concern about gender inequality has now shifted from access to intensity. Skills do play an important role in framing gender inequalities in terms of Internet usage. Skills are the user's ability to locate content online effectively and efficiently. Therefore, men and women may differ significantly in their attitudes towards their technological abilities (Hargittai & Shafer, 2006).

### **Conclusion**

The Internet has been used for last two decades in our society and we have a generation of students, who grew up with the Internet. Since its inception, it is generally acknowledged that its appearance, not only brings convenience to mankind, but also may cause a great deal of potential problems. The benefits of the Internet have been widely researched. Despite the positive effects of Internet, there is growing literature on the negative effects of its use. Many researchers herald the Internet to be beneficial and educational (Donnerstein & Smith, 2001 & Hitlin & Rainie, 2005; Pew Internet and American Life Project 2005b). Nevertheless, concerns about online risks and consequences are increasing (Byun *et al.*, 2009; The Star, 2009; The Strait Times, 2009b). However it cannot be believed that Internet is beneficial under every circumstance and situation, regardless of its regulation. People in different age groups and jobs, students and academicians using the Internet because it is the easiest, fastest, and cheapest ways of accessing necessary information. For a generation of young people, technology has assumed a substantial stake in their social and educational lives. Literature revealed that there are studies about Internet and its effects on academic performance of students. Some studies have suggested a positive association between students' Internet use and their learning. Jackson *et al.* (2006) students, who used the Internet more, scored higher on standardized test of reading achievement and had higher grades. However, some other investigators have found negative effects of Internet use on academic outcomes (Choi, 2007; Sirgy, Lee, & Bae, 2006).Some researchers question the value or quality of material on Internet and indicated that students do not have enough ability and knowledge to search for information on the web which ends up obtaining a large amount of irrelevant information about their

studies. On the other hand majority of students have positive perception about the quality of learning through the Internet and strongly prefer the Internet as their primary information source. It has been observed that excessive online stay closely linked to low academic performance and associated to problems with maintaining daily routines, and family relationships. The spectacular increase in the use of the Internet has stimulated research on its impact on our everyday lives of students. Internet as a social technology gives rise to interpersonal relationships. It has been shown to increase measures of social support and has improved their lives in this way, even providing an essential link to others. Internet use reduces feelings of loneliness by increasing users' social circles and helping them to become less socially anxious. On the other hand studies indicated that Internet use undermines well-being because online connections are weaker than real-life connections, or because online connections are often used to replace real-life relationships and activities (UCLA Internet Report 2001). It has been vilified as a powerful new tool for the devil, awash in pornography, causing users to be addicted to hours each day of "surfing" hours during which they are away from their family and friends, resulting in depression and loneliness for the individual user, and further weakening neighbourhood and community ties. Gender difference is another important concern of global research studies which indicates male domination in terms of usage and attitude towards the Internet and tends to be more familiar with the computers and Internet as compared to females. It has been found that certain types of gender differences in various domains of the life. Men and women use the Internet for different purposes. So far as academic interest between genders are concerned; female students felt that the Internet was too big and unstructured thus, searching the Internet difficult, not enjoyable, whereas male students were happy to search the Internet. Female students used the Internet for significantly higher for e-mail, communicative and academic purposes more than did their male counterparts. On the other hand males use the Internet for wider variety of activities including games, sports, technology, politics, entertainment and adult content than do their female counterparts. Therefore, men and women may differ significantly in their attitudes towards the Internet and at the same time Internet has a different meaning for both of the genders. Since Internet usage has somehow adverse effects on academics and social interaction, the students should be encouraged to be self-disciplined especially in terms of time allocation to social and academic activities to avoid wasting much time for Internet use. Students, therefore, need to be able to access Internet technologies, to learn how to use them technically and then learn when and how to use them in ways that support socially, psychologically and academically.

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## MOTHER: THE ARCHITECT OF CHILD'S PERSONALITY

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### Abstract

Parenting is the style of child upbringing refers to a privilege of responsibility of mother and father together or independently, to prepare the child for society and culture. Parenthood contains the skills like struggling against the various dangers that children may face and guiding them in a good way. The warmth that parents bring to their children's lives starts at infancy. As a child grows older, he/she finds warmth in the parent-child relationship, specifically in receiving the fulfilment of his/her emotional needs, whether that is by play or intimate conversation. Children try to understand the emotions through the attachment and modelling with parents. Mothers and fathers take on different roles in bringing up a well-developed child. Among the two it is the mother which plays the central role in the development of balanced personality of the child because of close contact with the child than any other family member. Both maternally deprived orphans (whose mothers are dead) and children whose mothers are pursuing jobs in various government and private sectors suffer from maternally deprivation completely and partially respectively as a result the personality development of such children gets hampered as revealed by review of literature. By making an intensive study of review of literature it can be concluded that both categories of children experience loneliness, are emotionally unstable, have low emotional intelligence, are reluctant in expressing their views and such children face certain cognitive and social problems.

**Key words:** Mother, Maternally deprived orphans, Children of working mothers, Personality development.

### Introduction

Family is the most intimate social environment, first learning place of a child in this world, a place where the vital process of socialization of the child begins. It is the family that teaches the child in partnership with countless others in the community how to survive and thrive in this world. He/she sees them speaking and tries to copy

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them and gradually learns the basic skills among individuals in the family. Family provide children with a sense of belongingness and a unique identity. It is a source of emotional support and comfort, warmth and nurturing, protection and security for a child. Home environment can be seen as a natural environment for the constitution of emotions and emotional attachments (Raikes, & Thompson, 2006). Home environment is important in terms of ensuring the child to overcome the emotional barriers (Parke, et al., 1992; Thompson, 1994). It is the family in general and parents in particular which are responsible for the overall development of personality of a child. Parents play an important role in the early childhood care and education (Lau and Lueng 1992). Parents guide their children at every step they take in life until they become independent. They build a solid foundation for their kids in order for them to have a successful and rewarding life. Parents share a universal hope that their children will live happily ever after, with minimal worries and the ability to be successful as adults. Every parent tries to give their child a strong moral foundation, as well as the necessary life skills to thrive and be independent. Parents serve as role models not only through direct interactions with their children, but through the examples they set with their attitude and behaviour within the family and in the outside world. As stated attitude of parents bring along with positive results as self control of child, self adjustment, adaptation and friendly relations (Jewell et.al. 2008). Parents encourage their children to investigate the world, manipulate objects, and explore physical relationships. By addressing their concerns, sharing their lives, and maintaining a constructive perspective, parents can contribute to their children's personal growth and development. (Baumrind, 2005) denotes ideal parents as "parents who manage child's activities in a rational way, promote verbal communication within the family, talk about their attitudes regarding child raising with the child, support child to overcome the obstacles that the child faces when he cannot adjust". Parents' style of communication with the child, child's acceptance at home, the way they support the development and learning of child, signals they send to child, modelling, and physical environment are presumed as the indicator of sufficiency of home environment (Caldwel & Bradley, 1984). Among parents it is the mother who contributes a major share in shaping the personality of a child.

Mother plays a vital role in the life of a child. She encounters a major challenge once she gives birth to a child after keeping it in her womb for nine gruelling months. The first school of child is believed to be the lap of mother. There are some of the things which we call as instincts which are inherent in child, but are to be shaped or to be given a proper direction by mother. She is responsible to create a proper environment for her child that will have space for movement, play and creativity. Mother is the one that keeps a check on physical, social, emotional, cognitive development at every stage of child's life and as a mother a woman copes patiently with these phases of a child's development. A mother understands her child's mindset and creates an environment which they don't find boring nor distressing. When

children are in their infant stage some may react in a negative manner to its environment, but a mother is sole responsible to create a conducive environment for the child to deal effectively with such situations. Thus, we have observed that a mother and child's relationship is a special bond as compared to the child's relationship with others in the family and it has been accepted since ages. Though a woman whether she is working or a homemaker she should acknowledge her role in bringing up her child and making him or her good and intelligent human being. As stated by Eisenberg et al., (2005) mother's parenting attitudes and interactions with children have more powerful impact on their children's emotional and social development in the early years. It is also possible that the effects of positive parenting (especially mother) are strong in this period when children are more vulnerable and parents are highly salient emotional models compared with other models in their nearby. A woman being a mother has been bestowed by almighty Allah with a capacity and capability to provide a tune of life to the new generation. Studies have proven that psycho-social wellbeing of children gets affected due to lack of mother. Psycho-social well-being entails having a healthy mental state and sound emotional status. According to WHO, good mental health for children and adolescents is a prerequisite for optimal psychological development, productive social relationships and effective learning. It is an ability to care for oneself, having a good physical health and effective economic participation as adults. Psycho-social well-being is also an important aspect in the provision of children's rights (UNAIDS, 2001), and it is based on the understanding that children need to be loved, respected, and listened to, for them to be able to develop a healthy mind. Parveen and humaira (2015) found that maternally deprived orphans and children of working mothers have low self-confidence and they experience loneliness because of absence of mother in their lives. Irudaysamy (2006) in his study on orphans found that the orphans face many psychological disorders. At the age when they need much support from their parents and siblings to cope up with the physical and emotional development, the loss of both parents make them more prone to psychological disorders.

Mother is a woman who has conceived, given birth to, or raised a child in the role of a parent. Because of the complexity and differences of mothers' social, cultural, and religious definitions and roles, it is challenging to define a mother to suit a universally accepted definition. Woman's' role has significantly changed over the past all over the world. She is now equally educated as men, in fact she is contributing financially in her family. Although this role has exposed woman to many challenges but woman is motivated to cross these hurdles. This role became most difficult when it comes to motherhood. Mothers are responsible for their family and children. Therefore it can be difficult to balance work and family life. And usually in fulfilling the two duties, children of such mothers receive a set back at the cost of their work. Children of non-working mothers have been found clear in their priorities, are more intelligent in making decisions and are able to discuss emotions and communicate clearly and

directly and are more aware of their weaknesses than the children of working mothers Annu Singh and U.V.Kiran (2014). Sheema Mushtaq and Nilofer Khan (2013) in their study found that the maternal employment causes separation anxiety in children, thus creating cognitive problems in them. Khan and Asma (2012) and Suprerna Khanna (2011) revealed in her study that children of non-working mothers have more Emotional intelligence than children of working mothers. This study indicates that the mothers' separation from the children and her presence in the life of children influences the Emotional intelligence of children to a larger extent. M. J. Youn (2012) found in his study that the Students whose mothers were employed part time exhibited an advantage in academic learning because of increased rates of school participation and parent-child interaction, whereas students of mothers employed full time appeared to experience a lower learning growth, given lower rate of school participation and fewer educational trips than students of unemployed mothers. Diehl, Beau (2010) found that developmental problems arouse specifically for children whose mother worked longer hours. It has been seen that the children of working mothers tend to have a less healthy life style than those, whose mothers stay at home. They snack more on junk food, spent more time in front of TV and do less exercise. Those whose mothers work part time follows healthier regime, while the children of mothers who don't work have the most nutritious diets and enjoy more exercise (jenny hope 2009). Hangal and Vijaylaxmi (2007) in their study have revealed that adolescent children of home makers have significantly higher self -concept than children of employed mothers. Sham-sun-Nisa (2006) in her study on Impact of the Employment of women on their children revealed that majority of the children whose mothers are working were looked after by those persons who had no blood relationship with the children like servants and crèches and it is easy to guess that kind of attention and care received by these children would be by large, formal and impersonal and that atmosphere of a loving relationship would be lacking. The effect of such a relationship would not be conducive for the emotional development of children. Also Diet habit of children of working mothers are irregular and give the impression that these irregular feeding schedules would tell badly upon the health of these children. It was also found that mothers' Company is essential for socialization of their children and as no working mother pay full attention to their children because of time constraint and it might create psychological and social problems. Andrabi Gulshan (1997) in her study revealed that the children of working and Non-working women differ significantly in their Emotional adjustment. Children of working women experience more emotional adjustment problems.

**Conclusions:**

1. Both categories of children experience loneliness have low self-confidence.

2. Children of working mothers have low emotional intelligence, experience emotional adjustment problems, have low self- concept than the children of non-working mothers.
3. Children of non-working mothers have been found clear in their priorities, are more intelligent in making decisions and are able to discuss emotions and communicate clearly and directly and are more aware of their weaknesses than the children of working mothers
4. Children of working mothers tend to have a less healthy life style than those, whose mothers stay at home which tell upon their bodily development.
5. Children of working mothers experience separation anxiety which affect cognitive and social development of child.

Strategies to protect the children from becoming the victim of defective personality development:

- The working hours of the working mothers should be reduced so that they can stay with their children for longer hours, which in turn will reduce the chances of vulnerability of deficiency symptoms in them.
- Sensitization programmes for women should be promoted by means of electronic and print media in order to create awareness in them regarding the problems which their children face because of their over engagements.
- From review of literature it has been found that maternally deprived orphans usually prefer to be isolated and not interested in interaction and the Children of working mothers were found to be aggressive, it is recommended that a counselling cell should be established in every school for guiding the children for proper development of their personality.

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## **LANGUAGE IN COMMUNICATION: THE NEXUS BETWEEN ACCURACY AND APPROPRIACY**

*Md. Zakir Hossain Talukder\**

### **Introduction**

The purpose of English language teaching is changing day by day throughout the world. Prior to the introduction of CLT in the late 1960s, structural approach to language teaching represented major approaches to teaching English as a foreign language or second language. But Noam Chomsky (1957) criticized structural approach in his classical work, "Syntactic Structure" and he was supported by the British applied linguists who emphasized functional and communicative potential of language to cover up the limitation of structural approach ( which focuses on accuracy). They realized the need to focus in language teaching on communicative proficiency rather than mere mastery of structures.

Wilkins (1976) proposed notional approach which gave a functional or communicative definition of language that could serve as a basis for CLT. He described two types of meaning: notional categories (i.e. concept of time, sequence, quantity, location, frequency) and categories of communicative functions (i.e. request, denials, offers, complaints) in his work notional syllabus which had a significant impact on the development of CLT. CLT favours and develops what Dell Hymes (1972) referred to as 'Communicative Competence' rather than what Chomsky calls as 'Linguistic Competence'. Chomsky's notion of linguistic competence or grammatical knowledge of language alone is not enough to help learners participate effectively because it does not discuss main aspects of social interaction. So learners' need communicative competence which refers to the students' ability to use language in a given context appropriately. Hymes (1972, 1985) pointed out that a learner who acquires communicative competence possesses both the knowledge of grammar and ability to language use appropriately. However, Canale and Swain (1980) put it 'rules of grammar are meaningless without 'the rules of use'. In their own model of communicative competence, the establish taxonomy of four distinct but related

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competences: grammatical competence (accuracy), sociolinguistic competence (appropriacy), strategic competence (effectiveness) and discourse competence (understanding) which has a significant impact on second language or foreign language learners for their effective communication. However, situational and cultural context should always be kept in mind for an intelligible and clear communication. This paper deals with language communication incorporating accuracy and appropriacy. The aim of this paper is to discuss the importance of communication in social context focusing the appropriate use of language. It also addresses the differences and relationship between accuracy and appropriacy in English language teaching.

### **Understanding Accuracy and Appropriacy**

#### **Accuracy**

Recognizably, accuracy is one of the most important criteria to measure one's linguistic ability and to shelter language users from communication breakdowns. According to Richards (1992), accuracy concerns "the ability to produce grammatically correct sentence." In other words, accuracy in language means grammatical accuracy only. Nevertheless, in Thornbury (2005), the term "accuracy" seems to cover more than that. Specifically, speaking English accurately means doing without or with few errors on not only grammar but vocabulary and pronunciation, as well. He also sets the clear scale for assessment of accuracy: a) Grammar: Students use correct words order, tenses, tense agreement, etc. Students do not leave out articles, prepositions or difficult tenses. b) Vocabulary: Students have a range of vocabulary that corresponds to the syllabus year list and uses words you have taught and c) Pronunciation: Students speak and most people understand. In other way, Accuracy describes the ability to write or speak a foreign language without making grammatical, vocabulary, and spelling or pronunciation mistakes. It is often contrasted with fluency. Classroom activities are sometimes categorized into those that promote fluency and those that promote accuracy.

Example: "She makes lots of grammar and pronunciation mistakes - her speech isn't very accurate; but she speaks so fluently and expressively that everyone understands her."

However, Accuracy refers to the capacity of a learner to produce grammatically correct sentences. This may not include the ability to speak or write fluently or use sentences appropriately to the situation. Its value in CLT is technological rather than theoretical. Much intensive reading work is aimed at accuracy and all controlled and much guided writing & listening exercises are aimed at it. It has the intension of producing better teaching which is close to our understanding of the nature of language and of language acquisition. The class syllabus is always accuracy based. The different grammatical units are given in a class syllabus. As Brumfit (1984) explains:

### Appropriacy

This refers to the degree of fit or suitability that there is between a piece of language and the social context in which it is used. When the piece of language matches the social context it is said to be appropriate. When it doesn't match it is said to be inappropriate. To match, it needs to be of the equivalent degree of formality. Appropriacy can be seen in pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar or discourse. The terms appropriacy and appropriateness are often used interchangeably in this meaning.

Example: "I learnt my English by chatting informally with friends. When I started working in an office I had to make a definite effort to get the appropriacy of my language right.

In other way, Appropriacy refers to whether a word is suitable for the context it is being used in. It is an important aspect of language but an extremely complex one, as decisions about how to say things depend on understanding exactly what is right for the context and the culture.

Example: It may be appropriate to say 'hold on a minute, will you?' in one context and 'could you wait a moment, please?' in another context.

In the classroom, Focusing on in appropriate forms of language and delivery first is a good way to raise awareness of this area. For example, learners can identify inappropriate in language in video material such as comedy programmes, match language to contexts where it can be used, and discuss what is appropriate in their own cultures. In general, it is exposure to a range of authentic material that will help students develop their understanding of appropriacy.

According to Winski (1998), a complete definition of appropriateness is not practically possible. Intuitively, an utterance is appropriate in context if it is not unexpectedly conspicuous (marked) in some way. Appropriateness is also used as a criterion to measure one's speaking competence. There are some examples that shown inappropriateness in a conversation adapted from Winski (1998):

Example 1 (inappropriate dialogue act)

S1: What time does the next train leave for Milan?

S2: Can I help you?

Example 2 (under-informative answer)

S1: What time does the next train from Rom arrive?

S2: In the afternoon.

According to Spratt, Pulverness, and Williams (2005), appropriacy in speaking shows the different levels of formality that is more or less relaxes ways of saying things. It is important to use the level of formality that suits a situation. In speaking



activity, appropriateness is very important to be mastered by the students. It is because it will indicate whether the students really understand what they said or not. The appropriateness in speaking in formal, informal and neutral situations in a conversation will show their ability in understanding the context and situation of the conversation in English.

However, we can say, as teachers, teach about the language but not the language itself. That is to say, we are after accuracy but not after appropriacy. Accuracy means grammar, rules, structure, form (usage) or linguistic competence. Appropriacy, on the other hand, means how to use the accurate language in the appropriate situation. Appropriacy means meaning (use) or communicative competence.

When producing an utterance, a student needs to know that it is grammatical (accurate), and also it is suitable (appropriate) for a particular situation. For example: Give me a glass of water! is grammatical, but it would not be appropriate if the speaker wanted to be more polite. A request such as: May I have a glass of water, please? would be more appropriate.

Now consider the following situation:

Karim is a foreign student in London. He does not know how to reach Trafalgar square. He approaches a policeman. Think carefully if Karim is using his English appropriately.

Karim: Good morning, Sir. How are you?

Policeman: (No response only looks at Karim)

Karim: Do you know where Trafalgar square is?

Policeman: Everyone knows that. Why do you ask?

Karim: You know, I am a foreigner. I want to go there.

Policeman: Go ahead.

Karim: I don't know how to get there.

Policeman: Ah! So you want to know the way to Trafalgar square. Well, you see that red sign there. There is a bus -stop where you can catch bus No 23.

Karim: Thank you Mr. Policeman. God help you.

Policeman: (smiles).

In the above example all sentences uttered by Karim are accurate, i.e. grammatical but they are not appropriately used.

### **Importance of Accuracy and Appropriacy in ELT classroom**

English is not only the mother tongue in Britain, Canada, the United States of America, New Zealand and several other countries, but it is also used as a second or a foreign language in developing countries like Bangladesh, India, Nepal, Bhutan etc.

That's why English is generally acknowledged as a global language and it is also seen as a veritable tool for learning, business and interpersonal communication. So the basic premise of English language teaching is to achieve the fluency, accuracy and appropriacy among the learners. But the problem is that students in developing countries, who have received several years of formal English teaching, frequently remain deficient in the ability to actual use of language, in normal communication, whether in spoken or written mode (Widdowson, 1987). In those countries English is taught as grammar and students are trained to produce grammatically correct sentences. Hence, Widdowson, (1987) points out,

“The ability to compose sentences is not only the ability we need to communicate. Communication only takes place when we make use of sentences to perform a variety of different acts of an essentially social nature. Thus we do not communicate by composing sentences, but by using sentences to make statements of different kinds, to describe, to record, to classify and so on or to ask questions, make requests give orders. Knowing what is involved in putting sentences together correctly is only one part of what we mean by knowing a language and it has very little value on its own: it has to be supplemented by a knowledge of what sentences count as in their normal use as a means of communicating”.

Hence, Widdowson (1978) has made it clear that the use of language in communication is more important than the production of language correctly. He has further addressed the issues- usage and use in language teaching and made a clear distinction between usage and use, which has been becoming the central idea of the Communicative Language Teaching. Those two terms, according to him, are best understood by asking how each of them is measured. Usage is measured in terms of accuracy while use is measured in terms of appropriacy. Accuracy is very common among English teachers since grammar is one of the language components that must be attached to the area of language teaching. Appropriacy, however, is less familiar term because it has something to do with context, situation, and interlocutors when the communication takes place.

Teachers commonly concentrate their attention on students' accuracy and fluency to enable them to make a good communication through which English is used as an instrument. The English teachers stress their students' accuracy when they are teaching in order that the students can speak English correctly. In this case, students are taught to use correct tenses, how to use correct modals, auxiliary, etc. They are drilled to speak or write based on the correct rules of English. In other words, they are taught in a good usage. After the students are aware of many rules of English, then they are drilled in terms of their fluency. This is given in order that the students are able to speak or write in English fluently. They are given 'free exercises' instead of

'guided exercises' in this latter concern. Finally, the students are likely to be able to speak or write in English both correctly and fluently.

However, correctness and fluency are not enough for the students to be in 'native-like condition' in which they can communicate in English. In this case, the students need to be taught about appropriacy. It means that the language they produce must be appropriate to the situation they are using (Hinton, 2000). For example, the use of appropriate and inappropriate register needs to be accounted for when the speakers are speaking. Let us have a look at this dialogue:

Dialogue 1:	
Peon (to Head Teacher)	: Good Morning, sir!
Head Teacher	: Good Morning.
Dialogue 2:	
Peon (to Head Teacher)	:Hai, morning, how is going?
Head Teacher	: Vhh!! (Getting upset), Pardon!

The sentences used in both dialogues are grammatically correct, that is to say both are correct in terms of usage. The first dialogue is an example of good usage and use - the sentence used by the teller is appropriate to the situation. The second dialogue is an example of bad use - the teller should use formal language since the situation is formal. That is why the manager feels upset and as if he does not hear the teller's greeting, saying 'pardon!'. So the systematic attention is required to teaching accuracy and appropriacy in ELT classroom.

### **Nexus between Accuracy and Appropriacy**

The greatest majority of developing countries' students find it difficult to communicate in English. Since communicative competence is generally taken to be the objective of language learning, it follows that efficient communication indicates the ability to carry out linguistic interaction in the target language. It is important therefore to realize that linguistic competence is part of communicative competence, so students need to acquire a basic knowledge of linguistic forms "skill-getting" supplemented by an equally important stage of "skill-using".

It is observed that students could produce sentences accurately in a lesson, but could not use them appropriately when genuinely communicating outside the classroom. Others noted that being able to communicate required more than mastering linguistic structures. Students may know the rules of linguistic usage, but be unable to use the language. It became clear that communication required that students perform certain functions as well, such as promising, inviting and declining invitations within a social context. In short, being able to communicate requires more than linguistic competence, it requires communicative competence (Hymes : 1971) - "Knowing when

and how to say what to whom” . Such observations contributed to a shift from accuracy to appropriacy of language teaching (Widdowson, 1998).

Hoque & Khan (1998) add that as language use is largely affected by the social behavior of its users. We do not see the same language with, say, the Prime Minister and a close friend. Also the language used in a religious ceremony differs from the language used in a picnic party. This means that, apart from its ‘grammatical appropriateness’, language has what may be called its ‘social appropriateness’. That is why grammatically appropriate language may be inappropriate in some situation. A boy can greet his classmate by saying, “Hi,

Salam”. It is appropriate. But if he greets his headmaster by saying, “hi, sir”! It is not appropriate and acceptable, though the language used in both the greetings is grammatically correct and appropriate (Hoque & Khan, 1998). Lyons (1965) extends his views:

“An acceptable utterance is one that has been, or might be, produced by a native speaker in some appropriate context and is, or would be, acceptable by other native speakers as belonging to the language in question”  
Lyons (1965)

By this view, he has made it clear that an utterance of grammatical competence is one which is presented by a native speaker in the manner of appropriacy and it would be received by other native speakers of the language. So the grammar of a language is thus seen as essentially indeterminate. Lyons again points out that there are many combinations of words which all linguists will characterize immediately not only as unacceptable, but also as ungrammatical, say for example, “I’ll be helped you yesterday”. However in everyday language there are some ungrammatical sentences but these sentences are often used by the native speakers:

‘Long time no see’, ‘I were talking to him’, ‘What was you saying?’ ‘See you again’.

These are very common in use and acceptable but grammatically incorrect. As stressed by Chomsky, acceptability does not mean grammaticality: while an acceptable sentence must be grammatical, but grammatical sentence does not need to be acceptable. For a sentence to be judged acceptable, it must also appear natural and appropriate in a given context, be easily understood and possibly, be to a certain extent conventionalized (Bauer, 2014). So, language should be clear, correct, appropriate and acceptable. However, accuracy is more important in writing than in speaking. This is because writing takes longer time than speaking and it takes more time to plan the language.

## Conclusion

English language proficiency is a ticket in getting employed, and is seen as an influential factor in the employability of graduates in developing countries. Thirumalai (2002) points out, "English is learned everywhere because people have found out that knowledge of English is a passport for better career, better pay, advanced knowledge, and for communication with the entire world." (<http://www.languageinindia.com/april2002/tesolbook.html#chapter1>). This issue concerning the impact of English language teaching in developing countries today.

Once we move away from the idea that mastery of a language, we are obliged at the same time to move away from evaluating our learners' proficiency on the basis of accuracy alone. It is undoubtedly desirable that the production of language should be as 'correct' as possible, but it has been seen that grammaticality also takes place in a wider social and communicative context. The implication here is that it is required to concern not only with accuracy of form, but also with appropriacy in relation to the including 'what a speaker needs to know in order to be communicatively competent in a speech community' (Richards and Rodgers 1986: 70). The communicative approach has therefore led to a broadening of the criteria by which language proficiency is defined. We now have the concepts of appropriacy as well as accuracy, communicative as well as grammatical competence, use as well as usage (Widdowson, 1978).

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## **JOB SATISFACTION OF REHBAR-E-TALEEM TEACHERS WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO GENDER AND EDUCATIONAL QUALIFICATION OF DISTRICT GANDERBAL**

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### **Abstract**

The study was conducted with an objective to study and compare the Male/Female and high qualified and low qualified Rehbar-e-Taleem teachers on job satisfaction. A sample of 100 Rehbar-e-Taleem teachers working in schools of zone Ganderbal and zone Tulamulla of Ganderbal district were drawn through purposive sampling technique. Job satisfaction scale developed by Amar Singh and T R Sharma(2006) used to collect data. The data were analyzed using Mean, S.D, and t-test. The results revealed that female Rehbar-e-Taleem teachers show better satisfaction with the job than male Rehbar-e-Taleem teachers. It was further found that Low qualified Rehbar-e-Taleem teachers show better satisfaction with the job than High qualified Rehbar-e-Taleem teachers.

**Keywords:** Job satisfaction, Rehbar-e-Taleem scheme, Rehbar-e-Taleem teachers, High Qualified teachers, Low Qualified teachers.

### **Introduction:**

Over recent years, human resource has gained significant importance over other resources of an organization. In view of this accessing the level of job satisfaction in employees has become an important task for organizations. Job satisfaction refers to an individual's positive emotional reactions to a particular job. It is an affective reaction to a job that results from the person's comparison of actual outcomes with those that are desired, anticipated, or deserved. By ensuring that employees are satisfied with their jobs, helps organizations increase their productivity and limit employee turnover. Hence, organizations today are engaged in motivating and

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minimizing the threat of losing their vital and most prized resource – the human resource, the basic building block of an organization.

The cognizance of human factor as a critical element of an organization, in fact dates back to the pioneering work of Elton Mayo and his associates who conducted the famous Hawthorne Studies – the experiment that marks the paradigm shift in the administration of organizations. A shift from mechanistic to humanistic consideration of organization, popularly known as Human Relations Approach, emphasized the role of human resource in the organizational effectiveness. The new breed of managers and administrators started realizing that for obtaining full cooperation and enthusiastic support of members in achieving organizational objectives, the organizations must satisfy their needs and influence their feelings. The underlying concept is based on the fact that organizations are more than a rational means of coordinating and controlling a group of people. Like individuals they have separate entities and their personalities. They can be flexible or rigid, hostile or supportive, innovative or conservative, risk taking or defensive. Each organization is different, has a unique character and deals with its members in a distinct way through its policies on allocation of resources, communication pattern, reward and penalty, leadership and decision making style, and overall adaptability to the external environment. The organizational policy and conviction with regard to all these and a cluster of other activities influence the feelings, attitude and behaviour of its members.

An understanding of the factors involved in job satisfaction is relevant to improving the well being of a significant number of people. While the pursuit of the improvement of satisfaction is of humanitarian value, Smith and others stated that “trite as it may seem, satisfaction is a legitimate goal in itself” (Smith et al., 1969, p. 3). In addition to its humanitarian value, job satisfaction appears to be extensively researched in a variety of organizations for work related objectives.

Investigated by several disciplines such as psychology, sociology, economics and management sciences, job satisfaction is a frequently studied subject in work and organizational literature. This is mainly due to the fact that many experts believe that job satisfaction trends can affect labour market behaviour and influence work productivity, work effort, employee absenteeism and staff turnover. Moreover, job satisfaction is considered a strong predictor of overall individual well-being (Diaz-Serrano and Cabral Vieira, 2005), as well as a good predictor of intentions or decisions of employees to leave a job (Gazioglu and Tansel, 2002).

Beyond the research literature and studies, job satisfaction is also important in everyday life. Organizations that have goals to achieve require satisfied and happy staff, (Oshagbemi, 2000). Organizations have significant effects on the people who work for them and some of those effects are reflected in how people feel about their work (Spector, 1997).

As many studies suggest, employers benefit from satisfied employees as they are more likely to profit from lower staff turnover and higher productivity if their employees experience a high level of job satisfaction. However, employees should also 'be happy in their work, given the amount of time they have to devote to it throughout their working lives' (Nguyen, Taylor and Bradley, 2003). "Managers, supervisors, human resource specialists, employees, and citizens in general are concerned with ways of improving job satisfaction" (Cranny, Smith, & Stone, 1992). Judge, Hanisch, and Drankoski (1995) supported the submission of Cranny et al., by advising that it was imperative for human resource managers "to be aware of those aspects within an organization that might impact most employees' job satisfaction, and to enhance these aspects because, in the long run, the results will be fruitful for both the organization and the employee" (p. 576). Lastly, Rosnowski and Hulin (1992) submitted that the most informative information to have about an employee in an organization was a valid measure of their overall level of job satisfaction.

Lacy and Sheehan (1997) investigated the impact of context elements including working climate and atmosphere on general levels of job satisfaction across eight nations (Australia, Germany, Hong Kong, Israel, Mexico, Sweden, the UK, and the USA), and found out that the university's atmosphere, a sense of community, and the relationship with colleagues are the greatest predictors of job satisfaction. Oshagbemi (1998) investigated the impact of age on the employee satisfaction of university teachers in the UK and found out a linear and positive association between age and overall job satisfaction. Tang and Talpade (1999) focused on the gender differences in employee satisfaction in a university in the USA and found out some significant difference between males and females in that male staff tended to have higher satisfaction with pay than females, whereas females tended to have higher satisfaction with their colleagues than males. Galz-Fontes (2002) tried to determine overall and facet specific job satisfaction levels of faculty working at a Mexican state university and, at the same time, to identify those variables that best predicted overall satisfaction, and found out that although most faculty indicated satisfaction with the university as a workplace, they also evaluated several working conditions critically, particularly those having to do with limitations regarding their research activities, administrative leadership, evaluation, pay and compensation issues.

Johnsurd and Rosser (1999) analyse the quality of the working live of administrative employees in relationship to attitudinal outcomes such as morale. They identified nine factors: career support, working conditions, discrimination, and review/intervention, and diversity, recognition for competence, gender/race issues, intradepartmental relations, and external relations. Their findings indicated that perceptions regarding recognition, discrimination, external relations, and mobility explained the morale of mid level administrators. Johnsurd et al. (2000) explained the factors behind mid level administrators who intend to resign, which included

perception of work life and morale. Their findings were parallel to those regarding academic staff and their intention to leave. In both cases, how individuals perceive the quality of their work lives had a direct impact on their intention to leave their institution. All those works mainly shaped by North American and Western Europe influences, suggest that there is much research needed to fully define and explore job satisfaction among various academic and administrative employees. And also more research is needed to understand employee satisfaction in higher education in developing or less developed countries.

### **Need and Importance of the Study**

Our country being a developing one needs more and more policies and schemes in the field of education in order to eradicate illiteracy. The government of India launched a number of schemes and policies from time to time and from state to state in order to eradicate illiteracy. In 2000 government of India launched a scheme namely Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan on nation basis in order to achieve universalization of elementary education. Rehbar-e-Taleem Scheme being a component of SSA which is a flagship programme of Government of India has been launched in recent past in Jammu & Kashmir state.

Spector (1997) presented three reasons to clarify the importance of job satisfaction. First, organizations can be directed by humanitarian values. Based on these values they will attempt to treat their employees honorably and with respect. Job satisfaction assessment can then serve as an indicator of the extent to which employees are dealt with effectively. High levels of job satisfaction could also be a sign of emotional wellness or mental fitness. Second, organizations can take on a utilitarian position in which employees' behavior would be expected to influence organizational operations according to the employees' degree of job satisfaction/dissatisfaction. Job satisfaction can be expressed through positive behaviors and job dissatisfaction through negative behaviors. Third, job satisfaction can be an indicator of organizational operations. Assessment of job satisfaction might identify various levels of satisfaction among organizational departments and, therefore, be helpful in pinning down areas in need of improvement. Spector (1997) believed that each one of the reasons is validation enough of the significance of job satisfaction and that the combination of the reasons provides an understanding of the focus on job satisfaction.

In the literature reviewed so far, a variety of studies have been conducted related to the problem, but only few studies have been conducted in Kashmir Valley regarding the job satisfaction of Rehbar-e-Taleem teachers. The investigator found it suitable to evaluate the satisfaction of *Rehbar-e-Taleem* Teachers working in District Ganderbal with special reference to their gender and educational qualification. The present study will clearly reveal the picture of Satisfaction of Rehbar-e-Taleem Teachers in District Ganderbal. It will further pin point towards the reason behind the dissatisfaction of teachers appointed under the scheme like this. It will show how the

scheme helped to reduce the level of unemployment in the Kashmir Division. The present study is first of its kind and no research study till date has been reported on teachers working in primary schools. The current study shall through light on the job satisfaction of teachers working in government schools. The most important level of education for students is the primary level which comes after pre-primary level; students at this level need trained teachers, who can make their foundation strong. The present study will help the educators, planners and administrators to understand the factors which determine the satisfaction and contentment of teachers working under different schemes. Therefore, the investigator formulated a research problem for investigation which reads as:

### Statement of the Problem

The problem for the present study reads as under:

*A study of Job Satisfaction of Rehbar-e-Taleem Teachers with Special Reference to Gender and Educational Qualification of district Ganderbal.*

### Objectives

1. To find and compare the job satisfaction of male and female Rehbar-e- Taleem teachers.
2. To find and compare the job satisfaction of high educated and low educated Rehbar-e- Taleem teachers.

### Hypotheses

1. There is a significant difference between male and female Rehbar-e-Taleem Teachers on various dimensions of job satisfaction.
2. There is a significant difference between high educated and low educated Rehbar-e-Taleem Teachers on various dimensions of job satisfaction.

### Operational Definitions of Terms and Variables

1. **Rehbar-e-Taleem Scheme:** The scheme for provision of service of teaching guides (Rehbar-e-Taleem) in elementary schools to make up the deficiency of the staff as per the existing norms.
2. **Rehbar-e-Taleem Teachers:** Rehbar-e-Taleem Teacher is a person to be provided to make up the deficiency of staff at the elementary level to act as a catalyst for quality education drawn from the local community to ensure accountability and universal enrollment and to check the incidence of drop-outs. In the present investigation, Rehbar-e-Taleem Teachers refers to the teachers appointed by state Government under Rehbar-e-Taleem Scheme.
3. **High Educated Rehbar-e-Taleem Teachers:** In the present study, High Educated Rehbar-e-Taleem Teachers refers to the teachers who have educational qualification more than B.A/B.Sc.

- 4. Low Educated Rehbar-e-Taleem Teachers:** Low Educated Rehbar-e-Taleem Teachers in the present study refers to the teachers who have educational qualification B.A/B.Sc or less than it.

### Tools

The investigator after screening a number of available tests finally selected the following standardized tool to collect the data:

Job Satisfaction Scale (JSS) developed by Amar Singh and T.R. Sharma (2006)

### Statistical Techniques

The data was dealt with statistical techniques like computation of **Mean, SD, and t test** for testing the hypotheses.

### Analysis and Interpretation

1. Comparison of Male and Female Rehbar-E-Taleem Teachers on Job Satisfaction.
2. Comparison of High Educated and Low Educated Rehbar-E-Taleem teachers on job satisfaction.

#### A. Comparison of Male and Female Rehbar-E-Taleem Teachers on Job Satisfaction.

**Table 1:** Showing the significance of Difference Between the Mean scores of Male and Female Rehbar-E-Taleem Teachers on Job Concrete Factor (JCF) Dimension of Job Satisfaction Scale (N=50 each).

Group	N	Mean	S.D	t-value	Remarks
Male Rehbar-E-Taleem Teachers	50	13.01	3.10	0.28	Insignificant
Female Rehbar-E-Taleem Teachers	50	13.19	3.38		

The Table 1 shows the significance of difference between the mean scores of male and female Rehbar-E-Taleem teachers on 'Job Concrete Factor' (JCF) Dimension of Job Satisfaction Scale. The Table reveals that male and female Rehbar-E-Taleem Teachers do not differ significantly on Job Concrete Factor dimension of Job Satisfaction Scale. Male teachers are seen to have obtained a mean score of 13.01 where as female Rehbar-E-Taleem teachers scored a mean score of 13.19 on this dimension. The obtained t-value came out to be 0.28 which could not differentiate the two groups of teachers. Therefore it is revealed that both the groups believe that there are sufficient amount of inbuilt programmes in their jobs for recreations and entertainments and believe that the job they hold gives them time and opportunities to attend their families easily. They are also reported to be contended with the working conditions of their job.

**Table 2: Showing the significance of Difference Between the Mean scores of Male and Female Rehbar-E-Taleem Teachers on Job Abstract Factor (JAF) Dimension of Job Satisfaction Scale (N=50 each).**

Group	N	Mean	S.D	t-value	Remarks
Male Rehbar-E-Taleem Teachers	50	17.59	3.58	0.04	Insignificant
Female Rehbar-E-Taleem Teachers	50	17.56	3.03		

The Table 2 shows the significance of difference between the mean scores of male and female Rehbar-E-Taleem teachers on 'Job Abstract Factor' (JAF) Dimension of Job Satisfaction Scale. The Mean score in case of male Rehbar-E-Taleem teachers is reported to be 17.59 as compared to female teachers 17.56. The obtained t-value came out to be 0.04 which is less than table value at 0.05 level of significance. These results reveal that both the groups are equally satisfied with their Job on 'Job Abstract Factor' of job satisfaction. From these observations, it can be inferred that both male as well as female teachers feel that their higher authorities and colleagues are reported to be cooperative, helpful and inspiring people for better and sincere work. Both the groups of teachers derive pleasure from their job.

**Table 3: Showing the significance of Difference Between the Mean scores of Male and Female Rehbar-E-Taleem Teachers on Psycho-social Factor (PSF) Dimension of Job Satisfaction Scale (N=50 each).**

Group	N	Mean	S.D	t-value	Remarks
Male Rehbar-E-Taleem Teachers	50	17.68	4.23	0.62	Insignificant
Female Rehbar-E-Taleem Teachers	50	18.24	4.78		

The results reported in Table 3 shows that there is significant difference between the mean scores of male (17.68) and female (18.24) Rehbar-E-Taleem teachers on 'Psycho-Social Factor' (PSF) Dimension of Job Satisfaction Scale. The calculated t-value came out to be 0.62 which failed to arrive at any level of significance. The Table reveals that both male and female Rehbar-E-Taleem Teachers exhibit better psycho-social orientation. From these observations, it can be inferred that male as well as female teachers feel that place and job they hold has positive impact on their social positions. Both the groups of teachers are of opinion that the training, orientation and experiences they have received while on job have improved their competence and efficiency.



**Table 4: Showing the significance of Difference Between the Mean scores of Male and Female Rehbar-E-Taleem Teachers on Economic Factor (EF) Dimension of Job Satisfaction Scale (N=50 each).**

Group	N	Mean	S.D	t-value	Remarks
Male Rehbar-E-Taleem Teachers	50	8.60	3.08	2.10	0.05 level
Female Rehbar-E-Taleem Teachers	50	9.76	2.60		

A quick look at Table 4 shows that there is significant difference between the mean scores of male and female Rehbar-E-Taleem teachers on 'Economic Factor' dimension of Job satisfaction Scale. Male teachers are seen to have obtained a mean score of 8.60 in comparison to female teachers who obtained mean score of 9.76 on same dimension. The obtained t-value is reported to be 2.10 which is significant at 0.05 level of confidence. The mean difference favors the female group of teachers which reveals that they possess better economic adjustment than male Rehbar-E-Taleem teachers. From these observations it can be inferred that female teachers are better satisfied with their job on Economic factor dimension. They rate their job as excellent and outstanding with regard to the various economic advantages like salary, allowances etc. They are also equally satisfied with the medical care provisions and house rent allowances.

**Table 5: Showing the significance of Difference Between the Mean scores of Male and Female Rehbar-E-Taleem Teachers on Community/National Growth Factor (CGF) Dimension of Job Satisfaction Scale (N=50 each).**

Group	N	Mean	S.D	t-value	Remarks
Male Rehbar-E-Taleem Teachers	50	14.68	2.69	2.84	0.05 level
Female Rehbar-E-Taleem Teachers	50	13.40	1.89		

A quick glance at table 5 shows the significant difference between the mean scores of male and female Rehbar-E-Taleem teachers on 'Community/National Growth Factor' dimension of job satisfaction scale. Male teachers have obtained a mean value of 14.68 in comparison to their female counterparts who have secured a mean score of 13.40. The obtained t-value came out to be 2.84 which is significant at 0.05 level of confidence. The mean difference favors male group of teachers. The results reveal that male teachers have better community and national awareness than female ones. They felt that their job or profession in any way adds to the economy and development of nation. Besides for improving the standard of their institutions, they secure community participation and are always conscious of the need to serve community in a better way.

**Table 6: Showing the significance of Difference Between the Mean scores of Male and Female Rehbar-E-Taleem Teachers on Overall Dimensions of Job Satisfaction Scale (N=50 each).**

Group	N	Mean	S.D	t-value	Remarks
Male Rehbar-E-Taleem Teachers	50	70.32	11.62	0.93	Insignificant
Female Rehbar-E-Taleem Teachers	50	73.12	11.88		

A perusal of above table reveals that there is significant mean difference between the male and female Rehbar-e-Taleem teachers on 'Overall Dimension' of job satisfaction scale. Male teachers are seen to have obtained a low mean score (70.32) as compared to female teachers who are reported to have obtained a higher mean score (73.12) on the job satisfaction scale. The obtained t-value came out to be 0.93 which is lower than the table value at 0.05 level of significance. The mean difference favors both the groups equally which indicate that both male as well as female Rehbar-e-Taleem teachers are equally satisfied with their job.

On the basis of analysis of data in Tables 1-6 it is worthwhile to mention that the male and female Rehbar-E-Taleem teachers differ significantly on economic factor and community/national growth factor of job satisfaction scale. However, both the groups of teachers were equally satisfied with their job on job concrete factor, job abstract factor, psycho-social factor and overall scores of job satisfaction scale.

In the light of above empirical evidences, the hypothesis number first which reads, "There is a significant difference between male and female Rehbar-e-Taleem Teachers on various dimensions of job satisfaction." stand partially accepted.

On the bases of above results, the second objective which reads, "To find and compare the job satisfaction of high educated and low educated Rehbar-e- Taleem teachers." has been realized.

#### **B. Comparison of High Qualified (Post graduates) and Low Qualified (Graduates) Rehbar-E-Taleem Teachers on Job Satisfaction.**

**Table 7: Showing the significance of Difference Between the Mean scores of High Qualified and Low Qualified Rehbar-E-Taleem Teachers on Job Concrete Factor (JCF) Dimension of Job Satisfaction Scale (N=50 each).**

Group	N	Mean	S.D	t-value	Remarks
High Qualified Rehbar-E-Taleem Teachers	50	14.92	4.33	2.55	0.01 level
Low Qualified Rehbar-E-Taleem Teachers	50	17.27	4.76		



The Table 7 shows the significance of difference between the mean scores of High Qualified and Low Qualified Rehbar-E-Taleem teachers on 'Job Concrete Factor' (JCF) Dimension of Job Satisfaction Scale. The Table reveals that there is a significant mean difference between High Qualified and Low Qualified Rehbar-E-Taleem Teachers on Job Concrete Factor dimension of Job Satisfaction Scale. High qualified teachers are seen to have obtained a mean score of 14.92 where as low qualified Rehbar-E-Taleem teachers scored a mean score of 17.27 on this dimension. The obtained t-value came out to be 2.55 which is significant at 0.01 level of significance. Since the mean difference favors High Qualified teachers which reveals that low Qualified Rehbar-E-Taleem teachers were found better satisfied with their job on 'job concrete factor' dimension than the high qualified teachers.

**Table 8: Showing the significance of Difference Between the Mean scores of High Qualified and Low Qualified Rehbar-E-Taleem Teachers on Job Abstract Factor (JAF) Dimension of Job Satisfaction Scale (N=50 each).**

Group	N	Mean	S.D	t-value	Remarks
High Qualified Rehbar-E-Taleem Teachers	50	15.82	4.83	2.51	0.01 level
Low Qualified Rehbar-E-Taleem Teachers	50	18.08	4.30		

The Table 8 shows that there is a significance of difference between the mean scores of High Qualified and Low Qualified Rehbar-E-Taleem teachers on 'Job Abstract Factor' (JAF) Dimension of Job Satisfaction Scale. The obtained t-value came out to be 2.51 which is greater than table value at 0.01 level of significance. The mean difference favors Low Qualified Rehbar\_E\_Taleem teachers, which reveal that Low Qualified teachers were found better satisfied with their Job on 'Job Abstract Factor' of job satisfaction.

**Table 9: Showing the significance of Difference Between the Mean scores of High Qualified and Low Qualified Rehbar-E-Taleem Teachers on Psycho-social Factor (PSF) Dimension of Job Satisfaction Scale (N=50 each).**

Group	N	Mean	S.D	t-value	Remarks
High Qualified Rehbar-E-Taleem Teachers	50	17.97	6.41	2.16	0.01 level
Low Qualified Rehbar-E-Taleem Teachers	50	21.05	5.31		

The results reported in Table 9 shows that there is significant difference between the mean scores of High Qualified (17.97) and Low Qualified (21.05) Rehbar-E-Taleem teachers on 'Psycho-Social Factor' (PSF) Dimension of Job Satisfaction Scale. The calculated t-value came out to be 2.16 which greater than table value, is significant at 0.05 level of significance. The Mean difference favors the Low Qualified teachers, which reveals that both low Qualified teachers had better psycho-social orientation than their high qualified counter parts.

**Table 10: Showing the significance of Difference Between the Mean scores of High Qualified and Low Qualified Rehbar-E-Taleem Teachers on Economic Factor (EF) Dimension of Job Satisfaction Scale (N=50 each).**

Group	N	Mean	S.D	t-value	Remarks
High Qualified Rehbar-E-Taleem Teachers	50	10.41	2.72	0.31	Insignificant
Low Qualified Rehbar-E-Taleem Teachers	50	10.55	1.77		

A quick look at Table 10 shows that there is significant difference between the mean scores of High Qualified and Low Qualified Rehbar-E-Taleem teachers on 'Economic Factor' dimension of Job satisfaction Scale. The Mean score in case of High qualified teachers is reported to be 10.41 in comparison to Low qualified teachers who obtained mean score of 10.55 on same dimension. The obtained t-value is reported to be 0.31 which is less than table value at 0.05 level of significance. From these observations it can be inferred that both High Qualified and Low Qualified teachers are equally satisfied with their job on Economic factor dimension of job satisfaction scale. They had equal economic adjustment.

**Table 11: Showing the significance of Difference Between the Mean scores of High Qualified and Low Qualified Rehbar-E-Taleem Teachers on Community/National Growth Factor (CGF) Dimension of Job Satisfaction Scale (N=50 each).**

Group	N	Mean	S.D	t-value	Remarks
High Qualified Rehbar-E-Taleem Teachers	50	11.89	2.45	2.34	0.01 level
Low Qualified Rehbar-E-Taleem Teachers	50	10.88	1.89		

A quick glance at table 5 shows the significant difference between the mean scores of High Qualified and Low Qualified Rehbar-E-Taleem teachers on

'Community/ National Growth Factor' dimension of job satisfaction scale. High Qualified teachers have obtained a mean value of 11.89 in comparison to their Low Qualified counterparts who have secured a mean score of 10.88. The obtained t-value came out to be 2.34 which is significant at 0.01 level of confidence. The mean difference favors High Qualified group of teachers. The results reveal that High Qualified teachers have better community and national awareness than Low Qualified ones. They felt that their job or profession in any way adds to the economy and development of nation. Besides for improving the standard of their institutions, they secure community participation and are always conscious of the need to serve community in a better way.

**Table 12: Showing the significance of Difference Between the Mean scores of High Qualified and Low Qualified Rehbar-E-Taleem Teachers on Overall Dimensions of Job Satisfaction Scale (N=50 each).**

Group	N	Mean	S.D	t-value	Remarks
High Qualified Rehbar-E-Taleem Teachers	50	72.14	13.15	2.63	0.01 level
Low Qualified Rehbar-E-Taleem Teachers	50	79.36	14.32		

A perusal of above table reveals that there is significant mean difference between the High Qualified and Low Qualified Rehbar-e-Taleem teachers on 'Overall Dimension' of job satisfaction scale. The obtained t-value came out to be 2.63 which is significant at 0.01 level of significance. The mean difference favors Low Qualified Rehbar-E-Taleem Teachers (M=79.36) which indicates that Low Qualified Rehbar-e-Taleem teachers were found better satisfied with their job than the High Qualified teachers.

On the basis of analysis of data in Tables 7-12 it is worthwhile to mention that the High Qualified and Low Qualified Rehbar-E-Taleem teachers differ significantly on job concrete factor, job abstract factor, psycho-social factor, community/national growth factor and overall scores of job satisfaction scale. However, both the groups of teachers were equally satisfied with their job on economic factor of job satisfaction scale. Overall the Low Qualified teachers have been found more satisfied on Job than High Qualified teachers

In the light of above empirical evidences, the hypothesis number two which reads, "There is a significant difference between high educated and low educated Rehbar-e-Taleem Teachers on various dimensions of job satisfaction." stand accepted.

On the bases of above results, the second objective which reads, "To find and compare the job satisfaction of high educated and low educated Rehbar-e- Taleem teachers." has been realized.

### **Discussion:**

The present study is concerned to undertake a descriptive evaluation of male/female and graduate/post graduate Rehbar-E-Taleem teachers on job satisfaction. No in-depth study has been conducted in India to access the variables under investigation. So, this study would help the teachers, thinkers and academic administrators to get knowledge, skilled and attitudes to meet the standard of high success of all students. The teaching professionals would be able to uplift the standard of their institutions and performance by getting self-awareness about their deficiencies, problems, and by enhancing the professional competencies discussed in this study. The findings of the study and the other suggestions and recommendations would also help the training institutions to train the teachers to meet their professional needs.

The discussion of results based on the analysis and interpretation of the data is presented as under:

#### **1. Comparison of Male and Female Rehbar-E-Taleem Teachers on Job Satisfaction.**

While comprising the male and female Rehbar-e-Taleem teachers on various dimensions of job satisfaction scale VIZ Job Concrete Factor, Job Abstract Factor, Psycho-Social Factor, Economic Factor and Community/National growth factor, it was observed that female Rehbar-e-Taleem teachers show better satisfaction with the job than male Rehbar-e-Taleem teachers. The female Rehbar-e-Taleem teachers feel that the position and job they hold have a positive impact on their social status. The female Rehbar-e-Taleem teachers rate their job excellent with regard to different economic advantages like salary, allowances, increment. Female Rehbar-e-Taleem teachers are satisfied with post-retirement benefits like pension, gratuity etc. they are satisfied with the working conditions in their offices. In comparison male Rehbar-e-Taleem teachers show poor satisfaction with the job. They are more concerned with revision in pay scale and other monetary benefits. Male Rehbar-e-Taleem teachers don't derive pleasure from their job. They are dissatisfied with the working conditions in their offices. Male Rehbar-e-Taleem teachers maintain the status quo. They are somewhat rigid and authoritative while discharging their duties. Male Rehbar-e-Taleem teachers who are not satisfied with job always hunt for excuses. Job dissatisfied teachers take time to dispose the important files. This finding is in agreement with the findings of Saxena (1995) who found that effective teachers are relatively more satisfied with their job in comparison to ineffective teachers, Abraham (1997) who found

that the teachers who had high or medium level of job satisfaction were more effective teachers than those with low level of job satisfaction, Chaplein (2001) who found that highest level of satisfaction came from personal factors and organizational factors.

## **2. Comparison of High Qualified (Post graduates) and Low Qualified (Graduates) Rehbar-E-Taleem Teachers on Job Satisfaction.**

While comprising the high qualified and low qualified Rehbar-e-Taleem teachers on various dimensions of job satisfaction scale VIZ Job Concrete Factor, Job Abstract Factor, Psycho-Social Factor, Economic Factor and Community/National growth factor, it was observed that low qualified Rehbar-e-Taleem teachers show better satisfaction with the job than high qualified Rehbar-e-Taleem teachers. From the analysis and interpretation of results, it was observed that high qualified and low qualified Rehbar-e-Taleem teachers differ significantly on job concrete factor, job abstract factor, psycho-socio factor, community/national growth factor and overall sources of job satisfaction scale. However, both groups of teachers were found equally satisfied on economic factor of job satisfaction scale, overall the low qualified Rehbar-e-Taleem teachers have been found more satisfied on job than high qualified Rehbar-e-Taleem teachers. From these observations, it can be generalized that low qualified Rehbar-e-Taleem teachers feel that the position and job they hold have a positive impact on their social status. The low qualified Rehbar-e-Taleem teachers rate their job excellent with regard to different economic advantages like salary, allowances, increment. Low qualified Rehbar-e-Taleem teachers are satisfied with post-retirement benefits like pension, gratuity etc. they are satisfied with the working conditions in their offices. In comparison high qualified Rehbar-e-Taleem teachers show poor satisfaction with the job. They are more concerned with revision in pay scale and other monetary benefits. Ineffective educational administrators are not satisfied with the post-retirements benefits like pension, gratuity etc. high qualified Rehbar-e-Taleem teachers don't derive pleasure from their job. They are dissatisfied with the working conditions in their offices. High qualified Rehbar-e-Taleem teachers who are not satisfied with job always hunt for excuses. They take time to dispose the important files. This finding is in agreement with the findings of Saxena (1995) who found that effective teachers are relatively more satisfied with their job in comparison to ineffective teachers, Abraham (1997) who found that the teachers who had high or medium level of job satisfaction were more effective teachers than those with low level of job satisfaction, Chaplein (2001) who found that highest level of satisfaction came from personal factors and organizational factors.

**Conclusions:**

1. Male and Female Rehbar-E-Taleem teachers were found to be similar on Job Concrete Factor dimension of job satisfaction scale. The obtained t-value came out was insignificant at 0.05 level of significance.
2. Male and Female Rehbar-E-Taleem teachers don't differ significantly on Job Abstract Factor, Psycho-Social Factor, dimensions of job satisfaction scale. The obtained t-value came out was less than the table value at 0.05 level of significance. The result shows both are equally satisfied on both factors.
3. Both the groups are equally satisfied on the Economic Factor and Community/National Factor of job satisfaction scale.
4. There is no significant difference between the Male and Female teachers on Overall dimension of job satisfaction scale.
5. Highly Qualified and Low Qualified Rehbar-e-Taleem teachers are found to differ significantly on Job Concrete Factor, Job Abstract Factor, Psycho-Social Factor, Community/National Factor and Overall Factor of job satisfaction scale.
6. There is no significant difference between the Highly Qualified and Low Qualified Rehbar-E-Taleem teachers on Economic Factor of job satisfaction scale.

**Educational Implications**

The study has revealed that job satisfaction is primary requisite for any successful teaching-learning process. Efficient and competent teachers are required in every educational institution so as to increase the effectiveness of institution. Satisfaction from the job is necessary for full devotion and commitment of teachers towards profession.

If the teachers attain job satisfaction, they will be in a position to fulfill the educational objective and national goals. For effective teaching, besides knowledge and skills, the teacher should have job satisfaction and favorable attitude towards profession because a dissatisfied person is not only a lost to himself but also to the entire organization. Thus job satisfaction is of great importance to employees, employers, and community at large.

The findings of the study further reveal that certain background variables such as gender and educational qualification play a significant role in determining the job satisfaction of teachers. It is evident that the role of teachers is quite significant in the development of society. Thus there should be modification of the training programme

for the teacher educators with inclusion of certain concepts like commitment, pride of profession etc.

The present study will provide crucial links in the area of teacher education which would be of immense help to educators, investigators and policy makers for formulating future plans and taking decision in these important areas. This study will also be helpful for guidance and counseling of the new entrants in the teaching job. The administrators may also be helped by the knowledge of job satisfaction and attitude of teachers towards teaching profession, in taking sound decision and solving day to day teaching administration problems.

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## **EMPLOYABILITY OF VOCATIONAL EDUCATION STREAM SUBJECTS IN KASHMIR: A COMPARATIVE STUDY**

*Nazir-ul-Amin Gashr\**  
*Nilofer Khan\*\**

### **Abstract**

The study was conducted with the objective to work on the captioned title, "*Employability of Vocational Education Stream Subjects in Kashmir: A Comparative Study*". The objective in general is to compare the employability of vocational stream subjects (ITI, Polytechnic and NIT courses). The N-1502 subjects were drawn randomly and Standardized schedule of employability was used for this study. The comparison was made among the various vocational courses on employability. The results of the said study revealed that there is significant difference on employability among vocational stream subjects acquired through ITI's, Polytechnics and NIT (courses) of Kashmir division.

**Keywords:** Vocational Education stream, Employability, Subject.

### **Introduction**

**E**mployability is defined as: Employability of a course can be gauged that to what an extent it covers the risk of job or enhanced capacity to secure employment in the area from which one opted the course. According to Landkard (1990) employability is more related to the key skills of problem solving, communication, teamwork, information technology and self management. Bagshaw (1997) provides a dynamic view of employability, where he explains that employability requires the flexibility and adaptability to be able to seek alternative employment in changing world. "Over the last decade numerous different definitions have been put forward to define employability, ranging from concepts of 'getting a graduate job' or the acquisition of key or core skills, to concepts of personal qualities, skills and subject understandings." Knight and Yorke (2003).

Brown et al. (2002) criticise this view as being ideologically loaded, arguing that it does not acknowledge that the condition of local, national and international labour

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markets is a powerful determinant of graduates' success. It seems, however, that they are confusing employability and employment. This could stem from Hillage and Pollard's use of the ambiguous term 'capability' can suggest, first, 'potential' or 'necessary characteristics' or, secondly, getting employment which then attests to possession of those characteristics. Hillage and Pollard seem to be covering both, Brown et al. seem to have taken the second, and this guide leans towards the first

According to Harvey (1997), Employability can be described as 'set of achievements- skills, understandings and personal attributes that make graduates more to gain employment and be successful in their chosen occupations. Perceived employability simply refers to an individual's perception of his/her capacities/skills, to secure an employment.' According to J.P. Robinson (2000), "The real problem is finding workers who have the employability skills or job readiness skills to serve any sector effectively.

Employability skills are those basic skills necessary for getting, keeping and doing well on a job and are teachable skills to retain a job. Job readiness skills are clustered into three skill sets-basic academic skills, higher order thinking and personal qualities." We have adopted the following definition of employability as being "a set of achievements - skills, understandings and personal attributes - that makes graduates more likely to gain employment and be successful in their chosen occupation, which benefits themselves, the workforce, the community and the economy." Yorke (2006).

These definitions suggest the following key points:

1. Employability is not the same as finding employment, but is more about the capacity of the graduate to function in a work environment (although the more employable graduates will probably be quicker to settle into work).
2. 'Chosen occupation' may mean different things to different peoples. This could include full or part time work, portfolio careers, or blended lifestyles.
3. Skills' and 'knowledge' should not be seen in narrow terms, but rather could be looked at as tactful practices and understandings, or 'capabilities'
4. This definition encompasses both the requirement of higher education to contribute towards the success of the workforce but also to the personal fulfillment of the individual in the professional and vocational environment.
5. It is acknowledged that the individual's ability to find paid work will be affected by external factors such as the national economy and regional variations, along with other personal constraints such as geographical mobility as well as push and pull factors etc.

Vocational Education and Training in India, The non-formal VET sector as a consequence of deficits in the formal VET sector the very diverse non-formal VT market has been flourishing. Private sector delivery of VT, especially by non-profit

organizations, has increased significantly in the past decades, thereby responding to both student and industry demand, Short (2008). Yet, there is hardly any credible data available regarding the quantity and quality of training opportunities offered in this market as privately owned and managed institutions are frequently not accredited (World Bank 2006). According to Agarwal (2009) most of the private VT providers offer short, non-formal and non-standard courses in IT-related and non engineering trades like travel, tourism, hospitality, media, fashion or clinical research. Overall, it is said that the private training sector offers more demand-driven market oriented disciplines.

Wendy Turner, (2014) In the UK policies such as the Children's Plan 2008 -2020 through to Promoting the Emotional Health of Children and Young People (2010) identify that professionals such as teachers, youth workers, social workers and youth offending specialists, do not have the necessary underpinning knowledge to adequately support children and young people's emotional well-being. Further that these professionals fail to recognise when a child or young person may need additional help. These findings suggest that gaining knowledge and understanding of emotional well-being for children and young people is a key requirement for those working in this field.

Researchers make up their minds for the study of employability towards various vocational group students. In the current situation World Employment and Labour Market is currently involved in leading-edge studies on globalisation, the future of skills; graduate employability, recruitment and the labour market, workforce development, comparative skill formation, workplace learning, work and careers, course understanding in the vocational and technical education etc are the booming concerns. We are committed to theoretically informed empirical research that advance our understanding of the lived experiences of learning, enterprise, employment and labour market policies, along with a commitment to inform evidence based policy and public debate within a local, national and international scenario. The right of a state to confer its nationality is, however, not unlimited, for otherwise it might involve the other states' rights to determine what persons shall be their nationals. We should as researchers and social scientists to explore the employability parameter to solve the employment/employability problem of the masses in the developed and developing economies of the world.

## **OBJECTIVES**

To compare the employability of vocational stream subjects (ITI, Polytechnic and NIT courses).

## **Hypotheses**

There is no significant difference on employability among vocational stream subjects acquired through ITI's, Polytechnics and NIT (courses).

### Sample

For this study, the population from which the sample was drawn is the various ITI's, Polytechnics and National Institute of Technology of Kashmir division. The technique of random sampling was employed to draw N=1502 subjects. In which all the three levels of vocational cum technical courses were selected for this study.

### Tools Used

Standardized schedule of employability.

### Statistical Treatment

Mean, S.D and F-test were used for the analysis of the data.

**Table 1: ANOVA: Schedule of Employability**

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	68632.423	72	953.228	12.359	.000
Within Groups	110217.545	1429	77.129		
Total	178849.969	1501			

**Table 2: ANOVA**

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Courses	Between Groups	34197.203	47	727.600	1.642	.004
	Within Groups	644126.786	1454	443.003		
	Total	678323.989	1501			
Levels of courses	Between Groups	78.278	47	1.665	3.928	.000
	Within Groups	616.497	1454	.424		
	Total	694.775	1501			
Subjects Clustered	Between Groups	2792.366	47	59.412	1.927	.000
	Within Groups	44822.489	1454	30.827		
	Total	47614.855	1501			

### Discussion and interpretation of the results

Table 1 shows the significant difference on employability among vocational stream subjects acquired through ITI's, Polytechnics and NIT (courses).

Table 2 shows the significant difference on employability among vocational stream subjects acquired through ITI's, Polytechnics and NIT (courses). By comparing individual courses, level of courses and the subjects clustered accordingly.

### CONCLUSION

The result of the present study is as under:-

The hypotheses no. 1 is rejected, because there is significant difference on employability among the vocational stream subjects acquired through the ITI's, polytechnics and NIT (courses). The significant difference was found that both at the individual courses as well as at the level of courses tantamountly.

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## **DECISION MAKING STYLE OF SECONDARY SCHOOL HEADMASTERS WITH REFERENCE TO ACADEMIC QUALIFICATION**

*Hakeem Sayar Ahmad Shah\**

### **Abstract**

The sample for the study comprised of 200 high school headmasters from Kashmir valley. Decision making style scale by N.Ganihar was used to measure the decision making style of secondary school headmasters. The data was analysed by using Mean, S.D, & t-test. Results revealed that trained post graduate headmasters were in favour of Heuristic decision making. It signifies that they usually encourage students in the participation of academic activities. They are also seen to be active in the organization of workshops on interpersonal relationships and there by pave way for the development of social virtues. The results also revealed that trained graduate headmasters are in favour of Routine & Compromise decision making. The results further revealed that trained graduate headmasters have been observed in the continuation of school programmes in traditional ways.

Key words: Decision making, trained post graduate, trained graduate headmasters.

### **Introduction**

In any organization, the administrative head has vital roles to play. He has to make this organization functional. The fate of an institution depends largely upon the type of individual who is heading that institution. He is the key educational leader and the chief executive officer of a complex and heterogeneous community comprising of eminent, devoted and dedicated teaching personnel, students, their parents, governing bodies, education departments and university (Gupta, 1987). There are research evidences which focus on various aspects of decisional situation that influence decision outcomes. Decision- making is considered as an indispensable component of management process and headmasters/ managers life is filled with making decisions after decisions. They see decision making as their central job. For that the head of

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institution should possess a balanced type of personality which helps him to accommodate all quires as an when a particular situation allows them to rise. Leaders do not belittle people or make them feel that they have nothing to contribute. Leaders don't hide in their offices to ignore problems. Leaders have to be visible; they have to convey a sense of oneness. Individuals who lead the academic departments have been called the "front-line leaders" (Gmelch, 2000). According to Bhatnagar and Agarwal (1997), Decisions may be classified as (a) institutional decisions, (b) strategy decisions, (c) administrators behaviour decisions. Four types of decisions have been conceptualized by Stufflebeam, (2001), These are: i) decisions to determine goals, ii) structuring decisions which specify means to achieve goals, iii) implementing decisions referring to carrying through the plans and iv) recycling decisions which focus on actual attainments in relation to intended ends. Griffiths (2004) states that, "decision-making is the process in which one goes through in order to pass judgment. It finally culminates into the termination of controversy.

Research suggests that decision-making is one of the salient factors upon which the survival of any organization is based. In this respect, Syarif (2014) found that the principals' decision making is effected directly by leadership style and interpersonal communication. Oluwadare, *et al.* (2011) concluded that the instructional leadership skills needed by principals for effective administration include among others: principal co-operating with teachers to define objectives, principal providing facilities, supervising lesson plans, teaching and learning activities, evaluating curriculum plan and implementation. Kumar (2010) found that aided schools head leadership behaviour was better than the Government schools head leadership behaviour & unaided schools head leadership behaviour was better than the Government schools heads leadership behaviour. Nelson and Quick, (2009) concluded that good decisions result in a course of action that helps the individual, group, or organization to be effective. Ejimofor (2007) found principals' decision making style is significantly related to teachers' job satisfaction.

#### **Objectives of the Study:**

1. To find trained post graduate and trained graduate headmasters.
2. To find and compare trained post graduate and trained graduate secondary school headmasters on decision making style.

#### **Hypothesis:**

Trained post graduate headmasters differ significantly on various components of decision making styles from trained graduate headmasters.

#### **Operational Definitions of Variables:**

The variables under investigation were:

**(1) Decision Making Style:**

It is understood as a cognitive process which results in the selection of a belief or a course of action among several alternative possibilities. Every decision-making process produces a final choice that may or may not prompt action. Decision-making is the study of identifying and choosing alternatives based on the values and preferences of the decision maker.

**(2) Academic Qualification:**

Academic Qualification in the present investigation refers to the degrees obtained by the sample subjects during or before service. These degrees are Graduation, B.Ed. Post-Graduation, and M.Ed.

**Sample**

The sample for the present investigation consisted of 200 headmasters drawn from various high schools of Kashmir Valley by adopting systematic random sampling technique.

**Selection and Description of Tools:**

The tool for the present study was selected in a manner so as to achieve an optimum level of confidence for the direction and steps adopted by the investigator. The investigator after screening a number of available tests, decided to use the below mentioned research tool for the collection of the relevant data.

**1. Decision Making Style Scale by Noorjehan. N. Ganihar (2005).****Statistical Treatment:**

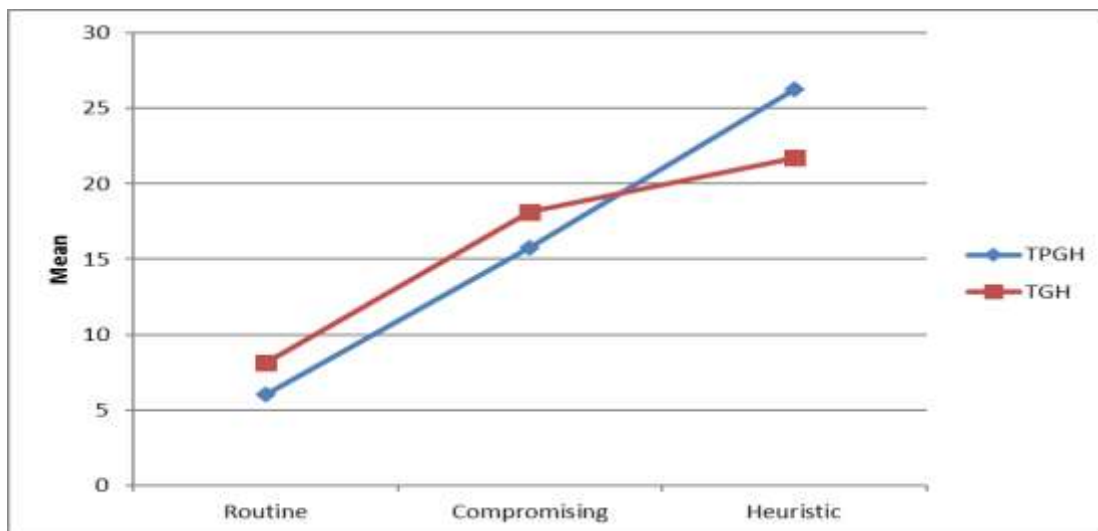
The collected information was subjected to statistical treatment by calculating Mean, SD, & test of significance

**Table 1: Showing the Significance of difference between the Mean scores of Trained Post Graduate and Trained Graduate Headmasters on Various Dimension of Decision Making Style (N= 100, each)**

Dimension	Group	N	Mean	S.D	't'-Value	Result
Routine	TPGH	100	06.00	5.501	2.454	Significant at 0.05 level
	TGH	100	08.130	6.715		
Compromise	TPGH	100	15.760	4.247	3.717	Significant at 0.01 level
	TGH	100	18.150	4.827		
Heuristic	TPGH	100	26.240	5.940	5.327	Significant at 0.01 level
	TGH	100	21.720	6.058		

TPGH-Trained Post Graduate Headmasters

TGH-Trained Graduate Headmasters



TPGH = Trained Post Graduate Headmasters

TGH = Trained Graduate Headmasters

**Fig. VI: Showing the Mean comparison of Trained Post Graduate and Trained Graduate High School Headmasters on various areas of Decision Making Style (N=100 Each)**

### Interpretation and Discussion

The results presented in the Table No.1 shows significance of difference between the mean scores of trained post graduate and trained graduate headmasters on routine dimension of decision making style scale. The mean score in case of trained post graduate headmasters is lower ( $M=6.000$ ) than the trained graduate headmasters ( $M=8.130$ ). The obtained 't' value was found to be 2.454 which is significant at 0.05 level of significance. From these results it may be inferred that trained graduate headmasters are observed in routine type of decisions while solving Entrepreneurial, Administrative, Academic and Personnel problems as compared to trained post graduate headmasters. It can be said that these heads of the institutions adopt the traditional methods which include circulars and office notes. Besides, they have been observed in the continuation of school programmes in traditional ways. It has also been observed that while solving the academic matters of the institution, the role of trained graduate headmasters has been found to be of routine nature which signifies that they issue memos to staff members to ensure discipline in carrying day to day activities.

The information given in the table no. 1 shows significance of difference between the mean scores of trained post graduate and trained graduate headmasters on compromise component of decision making style. The mean scores of trained post graduate headmasters seems to be lower ( $M=15.760$ ) than trained graduate

headmasters (M=18.150). The obtained 't' value came out to be 3.717 which is statistically significant at 0.01 level of confidence. The results reveal that trained graduate headmasters are observed to take Compromise decisions to solve Entrepreneurial, Administrative, Academic and Personnel problems as compared to trained post graduate headmasters. It can be inferred that trained graduate headmasters involve themselves in meeting with the teachers as an when certain decisions are taken. They have been observed to consult teachers with integrity in the implementation of certain changes in the organization.

A perusal of table no.1 reveals the significance of difference between the mean scores of trained post graduate and trained graduate headmasters on Heuristic component of decision making style. The mean score of trained post graduate headmasters is higher (M=26.240) than the mean score of trained graduate headmasters (M=21.720). The obtained 't' value is reported to be 5.327 which is significant at 0.01 level of significance. The results reveal that trained post graduate headmasters are in favour of Heuristic type of decisions which signifies that they usually encourage students in the participation of academic activities. They are also seen to be active in the organization of workshops on interpersonal relationships and there by pave way for the development of social virtues. Post graduate headmasters are not hesitant in sending their subordinates to join the academic programmes like attending seminars, refresher courses and other related programmes. It has been observed that post graduate headmasters in comparison to trained graduates accept their mistakes with any further discussion or debate.

In view of the above mentioned results the Hypothesis which reads as, "*Trained post graduate headmasters differ significantly on various components of decision making styles from trained graduate headmasters*" stands accepted. As it has been found that trained post graduate headmasters decide organizational problems by taking heuristic decisions. Whereas trained graduate headmasters are inclined to routine and compromise decisions. The findings are in conformity with the findings of some earlier researchers in the field (Syarif, 2014; Oluwadare, *et al.* 2011; Kumar, 2010; Roelle, 2010; Syarif (2014) found that the principals' decision making is effected directly by leadership style and interpersonal communication. Oluwadare, *et al.* (2011) concluded that the instructional leadership skills needed by principals for effective administration include among others: principal co-operating with teachers to define objectives, principal providing facilities, supervising lesson plans, teaching and learning activities, evaluating curriculum plan and implementation. Kumar (2010) found that aided schools head leadership behaviour was better than the Government schools head leadership behavior & unaided schools head leadership behaviour was better than the Government schools heads leadership behaviour. Roelle (2010) confirmed that principals who rated their own job satisfaction and efficacy as high gave their superintendent a high rating on their decision making potential.

**Conclusions:**

On the basis of interpretation and discussion of the results, the following conclusions were drawn:

1. Trained graduate headmasters are Routine and Compromise decision makers in solving Entrepreneurial, Administrative, Academic and Personnel problems in running the institution. It can be inferred that trained graduate headmasters involve themselves in meeting with the teachers as and when certain decisions are taken. They have been observed to consult teachers with integrity in the implementation of certain changes in the organization.
2. Trained post graduate headmasters, in comparison to trained graduates were reported to be Heuristic decision makers which led them to be relaxed; open minded and creative. It also signifies that they usually encourage students in the participation of academic activities. They are also seen to be active in the organization of workshops on interpersonal relationships and thereby pave way for the development of social virtues.
3. Trained post graduate headmasters are not hesitant in sending their subordinates to join the academic programmes like attending seminars, refresher courses and other related programmes. It has been observed that trained post graduate headmasters in comparison to trained graduates accept their mistakes with any further discussion or debate.

**Educational Implications**

The present study was conducted to investigate the decision making styles of secondary school headmasters with reference to academic qualification. Some of its practical implications are pooled here to consider their importance. The findings of this investigation may be helpful in devising programmes for improvement in school administration in the following ways:

1. The headmasters must be desirable to bring the essential changes in their institutions so that these institutions may become the centre for educational hub. They should try to produce their own examples for the development of desirable attitude. The present investigation reveals that headmasters must adopt positive attitude towards the new techniques and so as to overcome the old traditional methods.
2. In the present era quality of education now-a-days has become a matter of great concern. Therefore, improvement in educational administration is a pre requisite to any plan of improvement which largely depends upon the capacities and capabilities of headmasters.

3. If the headmaster of a school perceives his role as the first among equals instead of as the manager, he can provide the kind of leadership that will inspire his colleagues to look upon their work as a calling instead of a mere job. His good behaviour viz.-a-viz. dealing with his staff will definitely yield good results.
4. The present investigation has identified crucial links which would be of immense help to the administrators, investigators and policy planners for making future strategies.

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## CONSTRUCTION AND STANDARIZATION OF ICT SCALE

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### Introduction:

Information and Communication Technologies (ICTs) are often associated with the most sophisticated and expensive computer-based technologies. But ICTs also encompass the more conventional technologies such as radio, television and telephone technology. While definitions of ICTs are varied, it might be useful to accept the definition provided by United Nations Development Programme (UNDP): 'ICTs are basically information-handling tools- a varied set of goods, applications and services that are used to produce, store, process, distribute and exchange information. They include the 'old' ICTs of radio, television and telephone, and the 'new' ICTs of computers, satellite and wireless technology and the Internet. These different tools are now able to work together, and combine to form our 'networked world' - a massive infrastructure of interconnected telephone services, standardized computing hardware, the internet, radio and television, which reaches into every corner of the globe'. When we talk of ICTs, we refer not only to the latest computer and Internet based technologies, but also to simple audio visual aids such as the transparency and slides, tape and cassette recorders and radio; video cassettes and television; and film. These older and more familiar technologies are referred to under the collective heading of "analogue media" while the newer computer and Internet based technologies are called the "digital media".

There are numerous definitions of ICT. Most definitions fail to capture many ICTs. They create the impression that ICTs are only computers and computer systems, but UNESCO (2002, p. 10) defines ICT as "forms of technology that are used to transmit, process, store, create, display, share or exchange information by electronic means." This definition covers such technologies as radio, television, videotape, audiotape, tape recorder, compact disc (CD), digital versatile disc (DVD), flash drive, telephone (both fixed line and mobile), satellite systems and computer hardware,

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software and networks. It covers also services associated with these devices, such as video-conferencing, email and blog.

The integration of ICT into education has been assumed as the potential of the new technological tools to revolutionize an outmoded educational system (Albrini, 2006). Pelgrum (2001) has noted that ICT is "not only the backbone of the Information Age, but also an important catalyst and tool for inducing educational reforms that change our students into productive knowledge workers ICT plays a critical role in information societies' educational systems. In these societies, the stakeholders of educational policy, redesign and reconstruct their educational systems based on the new educational paradigms such as constructivist theory so that both teachers and students develop the necessary knowledge and skills sought in this digital age. Hence, most countries around the world are focusing on approaches to integrate ICT in learning and teaching to improve the quality of education by emphasizing competencies such as critical thinking, decision-making, handling of dynamic situations, working as a member of a team, communicating effectively (Anderson & Weert, 2002). Also governments especially in developing countries have tried to improve their national programs to integrate ICT into education.

ICT already changed the way of communications and doing daily tasks in a large number of fields such as education, as ICT significantly changed the way of teaching and learning and the roles played by both teaching staff and students. Moreover, ICT has become an important part of most organizations and businesses these days (Zhang and Aikman, 2007). Also, Dawes (2001) believes that ICT has the power to support teaching and learning, and provide new enhanced approaches for doing the required tasks in ways that have not been possible before.

Historically there has been much psychological research undertaken in the area of attitude and attitude formation. Common findings in the research show that attitudes and beliefs are linked, attitudes and behaviour are linked and attitudes are essentially likes and dislikes. Bem (1970) maintains that our affinities for and aversions to situations, objects, persons, groups or any other identifiable aspects of our environment, have roots in our emotions, behaviour and social influences upon us. Proceedings ascilite Melbourne 2008: Full paper: Siragusa & Dixon 943 The word attitude connotes a subjective or mental state of preparation for action. Attitudes find their roots in our beliefs and they influence our behaviour. They represent the way in which we view the world and organize our relationships. Attitudes are literally mental postures and guides for conduct to which each new experience is referred before a response is made. Droba (1933) described an attitude as a mental disposition of the human individual to act for or against a definite object.

Krueger and Reckless (1931) defined attitude as a residuum of experience which conditions and controls further activity. In this way they can be viewed as acquired tendencies to act in specific ways, towards or against an environmental factor

which is imbued with either negative or positive value. More recent research indicates that attitude represents a summary evaluation of a psychological object and is described both internally and externally in dimensions such as good-bad, likeable-dislikeable, harmful-beneficial, pleasant-unpleasant (Ajzen & Fishbein, 2000; Eagly & Chaiken 1993).

All of the above definitions imply a preparation, or readiness for response based on experiences and attitude formation that has occurred prior to the stimulus. If this is the case, students who are approaching an interaction with elements of an online learning program such as an animation may have already based their attitudes towards the experience on past interactions such as formal learning situations which incorporate information communication technology (ICT) as well as the abundance of such technologies available on a daily basis through media in general. Their attitudes may also be influenced by their perceptions of the relationships between the sometimes conflicting dimensions of the visual representation before them. If Krueger and Reckless (1931) are correct, the expectations of the sample towards their interaction with the technology should match the eventual development of the attitudes they hold regarding its components.

Human beings constantly search for meaning and categorizing events and environments is one way of doing exactly that. Fine discrimination of the environment is beyond the capacity of human attention so individuals treat many discriminated stimuli as instances of the same phenomenon (Krech et al., 1958, p. 101). Language plays a key role in labeling categories and their attributes. Similarly, each label may be denoted differently and the meaning changed accordingly. The affective component is the result of the changing of a category. Once a category has been formed, it becomes associated with meaning and therefore represents either a favourable or unfavourable state. The behavioural component is comprised of beliefs regarding the correct behaviour towards members of a particular category. Over a period of time and following a series of experiences students develop either favourable or unfavourable feelings associated with certain interactions. These feelings or 'states' may well form the basis of their attitudes towards their own self conceptualization of the use of (ICT) as a means of enhancing learning.

Student attitudes towards ICT which emerge through the interaction with the animation utilized in the current research may have been determined through collaborating with peers, the administration of the project, and the influence of academic staff towards its conceptualization. There was not a suitable scale available to measure the secondary school students attitude towards information and communication technology (ICT) and the researcher decided to construct and standard a scale to measure the secondary school students attitude towards information and communication technology (ICT).

**Pooling of Items:**

In order to frame the items for the present scale the researcher collect the information from various sources like internet search, research journals ( national as well as internal), books, review of literature, M.Phil. and Ph.D. thesis's, and also opinion were sought from experts who were teaching Educational Technology and Instructional Technology as a subject at various levels like B.Ed, M.Ed , College and University. The scale attitude towards information and communication technology (ICT) is like a Likert type scale having 50 items ; out of which 39 items are positive and 11items are negative.

**Item Analysis :**

The process followed for ascertaining the effectiveness of test item is known as item analysis. The effectiveness of test item is determined by difficulty level, discriminating power and content validity. Only those items which are effective are to be retained, while those which are not should either be discarded or improved. There are variety of techniques and procedure for item analysis. But the most convenient, simple and practicable procedure is followed in this construction of this scale is: a) Ranking all the scored paper in descending order, b) selecting the best 25 percent and poorest 25 percent of the papers for calculation, c) tabulating for each item, the number of pupils in the upper and lower groups, d) computing the difficulty index and discriminating power of each item.

**Selection of Items:**

On the basis of the difficulty index and discriminating power considered same items is rated. Generally the difficulty index of a good item is considered to lie between 0.4 and 0.6 and discriminating power more than 0.4 is considered to be ideal. So the items satisfying both the above criteria were selected for the present scale.

**Validity :**

Validity is that quantity of a data gathering instrument or procedure that enables it to measure what it is supposed to measure.

Without ascertaining the validity, the tool can lead to incorrect research conclusions which in turn can influence educational decisions.

The different types of validity are :

1. Content validity
2. Face validity
3. Criterion validity
4. Construct validity

In the present study, the content validity has been ascertained. Content validity is the degree to which the sample of items represents systematically defining the specific content in precise terms specifying the objectives and describing how the data will be sampled to develop test items. It is ascertained by obtaining opinions of experts regarding the relevance of these items.

The researcher conducted the pilot study to determine the content and face validities of the tool. This pool of statements was given to a panel of ten judges. Those items, which were agreed upon, by most of the experts were retained, as per the suggestions of the experts a few items were modified. The remaining items were deleted from the tool. Items of the highest agreement and not less than 80% of agreement were selected. Thus the content and face validity were established.

### **Reliability:**

A test score is called reliable when we have reasons of believing the score to be stable and trustworthy. If we measure a student's level of achievement, we hope that his score would be similar under different administrators, using different scores, with similar but not identical items, or during a different time of the day. The reliability of a test may be defined as;

“The degree of consistency with which the test measures what it does measure”.

The four procedures in common use for computing the reliability coefficient of a test is

1. Test- Retest method
2. The Alternate or Parallel Forms Method
3. The Internal Consistency Reliability
4. The Inter-Rater reliability

In the present scale , the Reliability has been ascertained by split-half technology (consistency) followed by the use of Spearman-Brown Prophecy formula was found to be 0.91, which is high and hence the scale is reliable.

### **Administration and Scoring:**

The administration and scoring of the scale “ Attitude towards Information and Communication Technology (ICT)” is quite easy. The scale attitude towards information and communication technology(ICT) is like a Likert type scale and having 50 items ; out of which 39 items are positive (favourable) and 11items are negative (unfavourable). As shown in table 4.0 below.

	Item Wise Serial No.	Total
Positive (Favourable)	1,2,3,5,6,9,11,12,13,14,15,16,17,18,19,20,21,22,23,25,26,28,31,32,33,35,36,37,39,40,41,42,43,44,46,47,48,49,50	39
Negative (Unfavourable)	4,7,8,10,24,27,29,30,34,38,45	11
Total		50

each item or statement in the attitude scale is followed by five responses , one of the which is checked by the subject, indicating degree of strength of attitude, such as 'Strongly Agree', 'Agree' , 'Undecided', 'Disagree' and , 'Strongly Disagree'. The scale was given by hand to the respondents. The each and every statement or item of the scale was clearly explained by the investigator to the respondents. Latter respondents were asked to indicate , for each item, their response to the statements as Strongly Agree, Agree, Undecided, Disagree and Strongly Disagree. The scoring of the attitude scale is given below table 5.0;

	SA	AG	UND	DA	SDA
Positive	5	4	3	2	1
Negative	1	2	3	4	5

#### Standardization of a Tool:

A tool is said to be standardized if it is constructed according to some (1). Well defined procedure, (2) Administered according to definite instructions, (3) Scored according to definite plan and (4) That it provides a statements of norms. A tool is standardized in respect of content, method of administration, method of scoring and setting up of norms.

Thus standardization is a process for refining a measuring instrument through scientific procedures.

Its steps are as follows i) Preparing a draft form of the tool and writing items as per the operational definition of the tool. Items should be selected in such a way that the expected respondent behavior in different situations is reflected in the items, ii) Computing discrimination index and difficulty index (if it is a test) of the items. In other words, conducting item analysis. Through this process item validity is established, iii) ascertaining content validity, construct validity and criterion validity as a case may be, iv) Ascertaining the reliability of the tool, v) fixing the time limit. This includes recording the time taken by different individuals at the time of the preliminary try out so as to fix the time limit for the final administration of the tool. It also depends upon the purpose of the tool. Time allowances must always take into consideration the age and ability of the respondents, the type of items used and the complexity of the learning outcomes to be measured, vi) writing the directions for

administering the tool. Careful instructions for responding to different type of items and for recording responses should be provided. The directions should be clear, complete and concise so that each and every respondent knows what he/she is expected to do. The respondent should be instructed how and where to mark the items, time allowed and reduction of errors, if any, to be made in scoring. Instructions for scoring are to be given in the test manual, vii) preparing a scoring key. To ensure objectivity in scoring, the scoring should be done in a pre-determined manner. In quantitative research, scoring key is prepared in advance, viii) establishing norms. Computing the norms (age-wise, gender-wise, grade-wise, urban-rural location-wise and so on). Norms provide the user of a standardized tool with the basis for a practical interpretation and application of the results. A respondents score can be interpreted only by comparing it with the scores obtained by similar respondents. In the process of standardization, the tool must be administered to a large, representative sample for whom it is designed.

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### Attitude Scale Towards the Information and Communication Technology in Education

**Investigator:** *Ab. Waheed Shah*, Ph.D Scholar, Department of Education, University of Kashmir

#### About Yourself:

- 1) Name of the respondent : .....
- 2) Gender: Male      Female                      3) Type of the School: Govt.      Private
- 4) Name of the Institution : .....
- 5) Locality : Urban      Rural                      6) Class: .....

#### Instructions

Some statements are recorded below. After going through the each statement indicate your opinion by marking " ✓ " against the column at appropriate place. Your information shall not be disclosed and shall be used for research purpose only.

S. No	Statement	Strongly agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1	We must acquire the ability to use the computer for academic purposes.					
2	We should know the knowledge about the computer and its various uses.					
3	Do you think that computer processes data itself?					
4	Computers are not required in space technology.					
5	Present age demands Computer and Internet knowledge.					
6	Computer education is believed to increase the quality of education.					
7	Computer does not find its place in trade and commerce.					
8	Computer does not increase the capacity of doing work.					
9	Computer works accurately than human beings.					
10	ICT cannot help in child centred curriculum.					
11	Computer can store data easily and quickly.					
12	Use of ICT seems to have replaced the teacher.					



S. No	Statement	Strongly agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly disagree
13	Complicated problems are easily solved by computer.					
14	ICT is an aid in teaching.					
15	ICT is believed to modernize our curriculum.					
16	Computer and education go together.					
17	Computer is an inevitable component for technical education.					
18	Students take computer education non-seriously.					
19	Many students can use a single computer at the same time.					
20	IT has grown so tremendously that any data can be sent quickly to any place in least expensive way.					
21	IT related education should be made essential in schools.					
22	ICT in education shall help us to reduce the intellectual strain for calculations.					
23	Technological and scientific development depends on ICT in education.					
24	ICT Education is not job oriented.					
25	ICT education will solve our day to day problems and related mundane works.					
26	IT education is believed to create a pleasure in the minds of students.					
27	Advertisement about IT education in news papers and various T. V. Channels are not useful.					
28	Education through ICT enhances the student's capabilities.					
29	ICT education integrated with other subjects does not prove effective.					
30	ICT education has no association with other subjects.					
31	Special teachers are required for IT education.					



S. No	Statement	Strongly agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly disagree
32	ICT education is possible both at home and in school.					
33	Misuse of internet is higher in present days.					
34	ICT will not be useful for school education.					
35	ICT is considered to be a time consuming programme.					
36	Do you agree that students get chance for computer education through ICT?					
37	Do you think that ICT is helpful for getting computer literacy in a low cost?					
38	We cannot get qualified teachers for ICT in schools.					
39	Do you consider that ICT makes learning faithful?					
40	ICT gives learners and teachers opportunities for endless repeatability and patience.					
41	ICT helps in accessing world latest knowledge to the students.					
42	ICT tools appeal both the senses (audio-visual) to the students.					
43	ICT should be taught as a subject to the students.					
44	Students prefer ICT rather than traditional method.					
45	ICT does not help in developing interests to the students.					
46	ICT has grown so fast that any data can be sent quickly to any place.					
47	ICT facilitate the integration of knowledge from different sources.					
48	ICT allow the students to better communicate with the teacher.					
49	Engaging with ICT students can work more effectively.					
50	ICT can pay the way for individualized learning.					

## **A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF SELF-CONTROL OF SINGLE CHILD ADOLESCENTS AND ADOLESCENTS WITH SIBLING**

*Rita Arora\**  
*Rajni Bala\*\**

### **Abstract**

The present investigation is an attempt to study the self-control of single child adolescents and adolescents with siblings. It is based on the hypothesis that there is no significant difference between self-control of single child adolescents and adolescents with siblings as perceived by peer group and teachers. The size of sample is 400, comprising 200 single child adolescents and another 200 adolescents with siblings of district Sirsa, Haryana. A self-constructed and standardized scale consisted 66 items for peer group and 50 items for teachers was designed by the investigators. Ex-post facto research method was used. The data was analyzed using t-test. The findings revealed no significance difference in the level of self-control between single child adolescents and adolescents with siblings.

**Key Words:** Adolescents; Only Child; Self-Control; Nuclear family Culture.

### **Introduction**

Throughout the history, only children were relatively uncommon. Over the 20th century, birth rates and average family sizes fell sharply, for a number of reasons including availability of birth control and increased formal employment of women. In recent years, the number of families in U.S., Europe and Japan choosing to have one child has increased considerably since 1940s. In India also, there has been a continuous diminishing in the mean size of families, a change in the family structure and an increase in the frequency of families with adults could interfere in the intellectual development, in the personality and adaption of the subject of social life. Although India's cultural environment has traditionally strongly favored large families, but in recent years India has also seen rise in one-child families. **James Lament, (2011)** writes in his article '**India sees rise in one-child families**' that close to 10 percent of Indian household are opting to have only one child as they seek to concentrate their resources

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to maximize earning opportunities for their offspring in a scramble for jobs. This trend is most pronounced among educated people in Metro Politian areas.

Only child are often the subject of a stereotype that equates them with "spoiled"- "brats". Historically, there have been reports that only children receive excessive attention, mature precociously and due to the absence of sibling, become selfish, demanding dependent and moody, in comparison to children with siblings. Researches do not confirm the stereotype about only children, suggesting that they do not possess personality problems more frequently than children with siblings and even show benefits related to intelligence, school achievements and career success.

This study attempts to investigate the level of self-control in single child adolescents and adolescents with siblings. The investigator tried to find the difference regarding the level of self-control in single child adolescents and adolescents with siblings as perceived by peer group and teachers. Self control is the ability to control one's emotions, behavior and desires in the face of external demands in order to function in a society. It is also known as self-regulation.

### **Statement of the problem**

A Comparative Study of Self Control of Single Child Adolescents vs. Adolescents with Sibling in District Sirsa

### **Terms defined**

**Only child:** Only child is a person with no sibling either biological or adopted.

**Self-control:** Self-control is the ability to control one's emotions, behavior and desires in the face of external demands in order to function in a society.

### **Research Question**

- Is there any difference in the level of self control of single child adolescents and adolescents with sibling?

### **Objectives of the study**

- To study the level of self - control in the single child adolescents of Sirsa District.
- To study the level of self-control in the adolescents with sibling of Sirsa District.
- To study the difference between the levels of self control in single child adolescents and adolescents with siblings of Sirsa District.

### **Hypotheses of the study**

1. There is an average level of self control in the single child adolescents as perceived by peer group of Sirsa District.

2. There is an average level of self control in the single adolescents as perceived by teachers of Sirsa District.
3. There is an average level of self control in adolescents with sibling as perceived by peer group of Sirsa District.
4. There is an average level of self control in the adolescents with siblings as perceived by teachers of Sirsa District.
5. There is no significance difference in the level of self control in single child adolescents and adolescents with siblings as perceived by peer group of Sirsa District.
6. There is no significance difference in the level of self control in single child adolescents and adolescents with siblings as perceived by teachers of Sirsa District.

### Methodology

The study has been conducted using Ex-Post-Facto research method.

### Sample

For this study purposive sampling method is used and the size of sample is 400 comprising, 200 single child adolescents and another 200 adolescents with siblings. The sample has been selected from the same setting.

### Tools

A self control scale consisting of 66 items for peer group and 50 items for teachers has been used to collect the data. The tool was self constructed and also standardized.

### Statistical Technique

t - test was used by the Investigator to find the level of difference in the single child adolescents and adolescents with sibling with regard to self-control.

### Analysis and Interpretation

**H-1 There is an average level of self-control in single child adolescents as perceived by peer group of Sirsa District.**

**Table 1: Level of Self-Control in Single Child Adolescents as Perceived by Peer Group of Sirsa District**

Class Intervals	Frequency	Level
0-110	0% 0	Low
110-220	63% 63	Average
220-330	37% 37	High

Table 1 depicts the level in self-control of single child adolescents as perceived by peer group. None of the adolescents as a single child has demonstrated the low level of self-control whereas 63% adolescents possess average level of self-control while remaining 37% adolescent students have shown a high level of self-control. In other words one third students have high level of self-control and two third students have shown average level of self-control in the eyes of their peer group. The notable thing is that none of the students have shown low level self-control. Hence, the hypothesis that there is an average level of self-control in single child adolescents as perceived by peer group is accepted. Majority of the adolescents students need to develop a high level of self-control. The probable reason for it may be the single child's parents are likely to yield to the only child's demands, over indulgence is more likely characterize the parenting style for single child and thus more likely to mold them in to self-control, impulsive, temperamental and risk-takers. **Blaire & Razza** (2007) studied on self-control and found that the children with high level of self-control predict more positive outcomes.

#### **H-2 There is an average level of self control in the single adolescents as perceived by teachers of Sirsa District.**

**Table 2: Level of Self-Control in Single Child Adolescents Students of Sirsa District as Perceived by Teacher**

Class Intervals	Frequency	Level
1-84	0% <sub>0</sub>	Low
85-168	54% <sub>54</sub>	Average
169-250	46% <sub>46</sub>	High

Table 2 shows the level of self-control in single child adolescent's students as perceived by their teachers. None of the adolescents have shown the low level of self-control in the eyes of their teachers. 54% adolescents possess average level of self-control while 46% adolescents' students have shown the high level of self-control. In other words near about 50% adolescent students have shown an average level of self-control and other approximately 50% adolescent students have shown high level of self-control as perceived by their teachers. Hence, the hypothesis that there is an average level of self-control in single child adolescents as perceived by teacher is accepted. There is a need to develop high level of self-control among single child adolescent students.

When the perception of teachers is compared with that of peer group, it is found that there is a difference between the perceptions of peer group and teachers. More adolescent students have shown high level of self-control in front of their teachers to show that they are well behaved and mannered. Another reason for it can

be the class room situations. It can also be said that students show more discipline in front of elderly people and act as per social norms.

**H-3 There is an average level of self control in adolescents with sibling as perceived by peer group of Sirsa District.**

**Table 3: Level of Self-Control in the Adolescents with Siblings as Perceived by Peer Group of Sirsa District**

Class Intervals	Frequency	Level
0-110	0% <sub>0</sub>	Low
110-220	52% <sub>52</sub>	Average
220-330	48% <sub>48</sub>	High

Table 3 depicts the level of self-control in adolescents with siblings as perceived by peer group. 0% students have shown the low level of self-control whereas 52% adolescents have shown the average level of self-control and 48% adolescents have shown the high level of self-control in the eyes of their peer group. In other words near about 50% students have shown the high level of self-control and 50% have the average level of self-control. Hence, the hypothesis that there is average level of self-control in adolescents with siblings as perceived by peer group of Sirsa district is accepted.

There is a need to develop the level of self-control in the adolescents with siblings. Self-control is vital for overcoming obsessions, fears, addictions and any kind of unsuitable behavior. It puts adolescent in control of their life, behavior and reactions. It gives them a sense of mastery over life and brings balance in to their life. Tangney, J.P., Baumeister, R.F. & Boone, A.L., (2004) studied that good self-control and self-regulation appear to be lifelong. Adolescents with higher level of self-control have better grade in college and more emotionally stable. They also have higher self-esteem and better interpersonal skills. Low self-control is thus, a significant risk factor for a broad range of personal and interpersonal problems.

**H-4 There is an average level of self control in the adolescents with siblings as perceived by teachers of Sirsa District.**

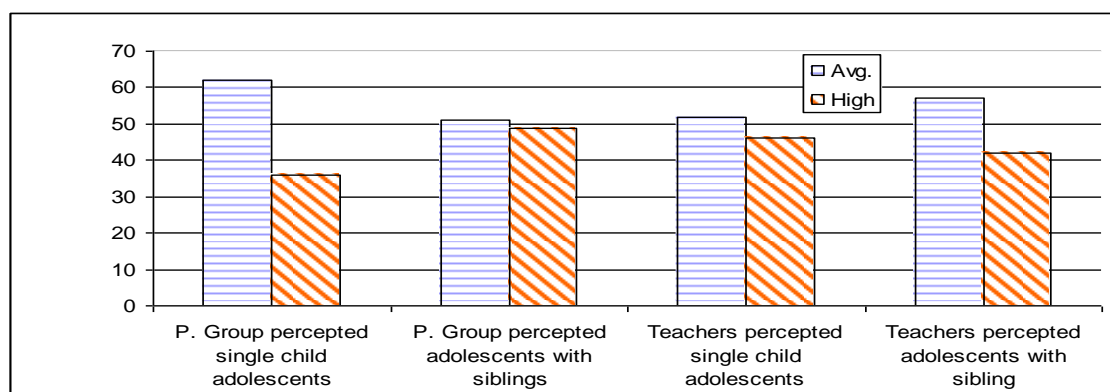
**Table 4: Level of Self-Control in the Adolescents with Siblings as Perceived by Teachers of Sirsa District**

Class Intervals	Frequency	Level
1-84	0% <sub>0</sub>	Low
85-168	57% <sub>57</sub>	Average
169-250	43% <sub>43</sub>	High

Table 4 shows the level of self-control in adolescents with sibling as perceived by their teachers. No adolescent student has shown the level of self-control. In other words 0% adolescent students have shown the low level of self-control whereas 57% adolescents student with siblings have possessed the average level of self-control while 43% adolescents students with siblings have shown the high level of self-control in the eyes of their teachers. The notable thing is that none of the adolescent student has low level of self-control. Hence, the hypothesis that there is an average level of self-control in adolescents with siblings as perceived by teachers of Sirsa district is accepted.

Adolescent students need to develop a high level of self-control. Normandear & Guay (1998) supports the findings of the presence study and highlighted the importance of self-control for children. They found that higher level of self-control is related to stronger achievement in language and mathematics.

**Figure 1: Level of Self-Control in Adolescents**



Peer Group of adolescents found a large number of adolescents have average level of self-control within both the groups i.e. single child adolescents and adolescents with siblings while teachers of adolescents have also found a large number of adolescents have average level of self-control within both the groups. Teachers have not found much variation between the levels of self-control between both the groups comparative to peer groups.

**H-5 There is no significance difference in the level of self control in single child adolescents and adolescents with siblings as perceived by peer group of Sirsa District.**

**Table 5: Level of Self-Control in Single Child Adolescents Students and Adolescents with Siblings as Perceived by Peer Group of Sirsa District**

Group	No.	Mean	S.D.	t-Value
Single child (Adolescents)	100	213.04	23.37	.876
Child with siblings (Adolescents)	100	215.52	19.25	Not Significant

Table 5 delineates the difference in the level of self-control in single child adolescent students and adolescent students with siblings as perceived by peer group. The mean value of self-control of single child and adolescents with siblings is 213.04 and 215.52 respectively. The standard deviation for single child adolescent students is 23.37 and for adolescent students with siblings is 19.25. The calculated t-value .0876 is less than the table value of 1.972 at 0.05 level of significance at 198 degree of freedom. Hence, the null hypothesis that there is no significant difference in the level of self-control among single child adolescents and adolescents with siblings as perceived by peer group is accepted. In other words the adolescents as single child do not differ from adolescents with siblings with regard to self-control. **Adler 1987**, found after a quantitative review of 141 studies on 16 personality traits, including self-control contradict the opinion, that only children maladjusted due to pampering.

**H-6 There is no significance difference in the level of self control in single child adolescents and adolescents with siblings as perceived by teachers of Sirsa District.**

**Table 6: Level of Self-Control in Single Child Adolescents and Adolescents with Siblings as Perceived by Teachers of Sirsa District**

Group	No.	Mean	S.D.	t-Value
Single child (Adolescents)	100	165.79	18.80	.326
Child with siblings (Adolescents)	100	166.83	23.82	Not Significant

Table 6 interprets the difference in the level of self-control in single child adolescents and adolescents with siblings as perceived by their teachers. The mean value of self-control of single child adolescents and adolescents with siblings is 169.79 and 166.83 respectively. The standard deviation for single child adolescents is 18.80 and for adolescents with siblings is 23.82. The calculated t-value is .326 is less than the table value of 1.972 at 0.05 level of significance at 198 degree of freedom. Hence, the null hypothesis that there is no significant difference in the level of self-control in single child adolescents and adolescents with siblings as perceived by their teachers is accepted. In other words the adolescents as single child do not differ from adolescents with siblings with regard to self-control in the eyes of their teachers.

**Panwar P.S. (1986)** in his research on "Role of academic achievement and school back ground in self-concept, self-disclosure and inferiority feeling among students of Kumauni hills" found that academic achievement, home background and school environment had significant effect on self-concept of adolescents. The study substantiates the finding of the present study.

#### **Educational Implications**

- The results reveal that more than 50% adolescents, whether they are single child or child with sibling have shown average level of self control. The



teachers and parents need to take these adolescents from average level of self control towards high level of self control.

- Various strategies to enhance their level of self control need to be adopted by parents and teachers.

### Conclusion

Self-control is the ability to control impulses and reactions and is another name for self-discipline. It is not some kind of negative and limiting behavior, as some people think. When self-control is used wisely and with common sense, it becomes one of the most important tools for self-improvements and for achieving success. Self-control is vital for overcoming obsessions fears, addictions and any kind of unsuitable behavior. It improves our relationships, develops patience and tolerance. The adolescents whether they are single child or with siblings do not differ with regard to self-control because every individual has his/ her own behavioral characteristics. Adolescents need to develop their level of self control. Parents and teachers need to adopt various strategies to enhance the level in adolescents.

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## **ADMINISTRATIVE PARTICIPATION OF UNIVERSITY TEACHERS WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO GENDER**

*Hafizullah Qureshi\**

### **Abstract**

The study aims to find and compare the Administrative Participation of university teachers. 90 male and 30 female faculty members were drawn randomly from University of Kashmir and Sheri-Kashmir University of Agricultural Science and Technology (SKUAST) Teacher's Participation in administration Scale by Haseen Taj (2000) was used for data collection. The collected data was subjected to statistical treatment by using mean, SD and t- test. The findings revealed administrative participation of male university teachers higher as compared to female university teachers.

**Key Word:** Administrative Participation; University Teachers; Gender.

### **Introduction:**

Since universities have grown and become more complex as the nation itself has evolved and became more complicated. University and Higher education is expanding both horizontally and vertically. Adults are being taught formal and non formal education to adjust to the changing situations. To meet this purpose, a broad plan of social education is being framed out. But the success of all these educational plans rests on the effectiveness and execution of educational administration. According to Vesey (1965): "*the increased complexity of the higher education climate in general and universities in particular necessitates 'competencies in administrators commensurate with the elevated level of complication.'*" Administration has been deemed by practitioners and scientists as both an art and a science. As an art, it is thought that administration is informed by sensibilities, perceptions and intuitions. The administrator as an artist strives to create new dimensions and to influence others as he or she faces in the surrounding environment. As a science, administration is directed by an understanding of structure, schedules, systems and power. The administrator as a scientist collects and analyzes information, assesses relationships, infers causality and generates and tests hypotheses (Nisbett & Ross, 1980). Educational Administration is

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direction, leadership and control of efforts in a productive way of a group of individuals towards some common set goals. It is the management with high efficiency of any organization having the organized aims related with the education of the group of individuals forming that organization. It is must to organize and implement plans, policies and programmes devised for specific educational objectives. The real aim of administration is to identify the strengths that the organization possess people and work on those. The main function of the educational administration is to help to achieve the objectives of an institution. Unless administration of education is improved or it is made ready to meet the new needs and challenges, the system cannot secure the desired results or reach the target (Mohanty, 1998).

The head of the institution is the key educational leader and the chief executive officer of a complex and heterogeneous community comprising of eminent, devoted and dedicated professors and lecturers, students, their parents, governing bodies, education departments and Universities (Gupta, 1987). Besides, a drive to get the job done and accomplish the mission, the essence of effective leaders is how they think of and treat the people they are responsible for? Leaders do not belittle people or make them feel that they have nothing to contribute. Leaders don't hide in their offices to ignore problems. Leaders have to be visible; they have to convey a sense of oneness. The role of the academic department head in higher education is judged to be an important aspect of institutional leadership. The teachers of an academic institution in a college or university play a key role in the success of the institution. Tucker (1992) agreed that "a brilliant university or college administration with inept chairpersons cannot survive; an inept administration, with the help of a group of brilliant chairpersons usually can. The position of department chairperson, then, is an important one". Metaphors have often been used to describe the position that department heads hold in colleges and universities. Seagren, et al. (1993), described the situation that department heads face as a "block of wood held in a vise for shaping". The position as head of an academic department in higher education has been characterized as having no parallel in business or industry (Gmelch, 2002). Department heads often assume their duties at a substantial cost to their professional interests and scholarly productivity (Tucker, 1984). Teacher deal with both external and political relationships, must maintain college resources, promote internal productivity with faculty and attend to personnel matters.

One group of researchers noted that, "It is at the departmental level that the real institutional business gets conducted" (Seagren, Creswell, & Wheeler, 1993). There is also growing evidence that people develop a mental picture, or perception, of what makes a "good administrator" or ways in which "good administrators" would behave in a given situation (Schermerhorn, Hunt & Osborn, 2000). Individuals who lead the academic department have been called the "front-line leaders" in higher education (Gmelch, 2000). Recent literature has suggested that department heads are facing

increasing pressures and demands on their roles as administrators and leaders (Thompson, 1999, Brown, 2002; Brown & Moshavi, 2002). The position of the academic department head in higher education is one that requires leadership, administrative skills, and scholarship (Lucas, 2000; Gabbidon, 2005) and bridges the gap between faculty and administration. Nearly 80 percent of all administrative decisions in higher education are made at the academic department level (Knight & Holen, 1985; Wolverton, Gmelch, & Sarros, 1999; Brown & Moshavi, 2002). Raymond & Gomara (2014) found that the interpersonal skills of school administrators of West Visayas State University-January Campus were very clearly evident in their support to the faculty. Yousuf & Dahar (2013) found that there is a significant number of teachers have the chance to supervise Red Cross and Union Funds. Adamu & Ajay (2012) found that leadership behaviour and communication methods are significantly related to administrative effectiveness of heads of academic departments. Osim & Mbon (2012) that there is no significant influence of principals' innovative behaviour on teachers' task behaviour. Chinelo (2011) found that all school administrators in Nigeria should wisely adopt participatory decision-making for optimal goal attainment. Choudhary, et al (2011) found that female HODs were more considerate than male head of departments. While comparing the job satisfaction of female and male faculty members, results showed that female faculty members were more satisfied than male faculty members and female faculty members were satisfied with the supervision method of their head of departments. Karabasanagoudra (2011) found that male heads of secondary schools have higher decision making compared to female heads. Riffat-Un-Nisa, et al (2011) found that high directive leadership contributed negatively in job satisfaction with supervision Thus the above studies are relevant and it gives conqueror the researcher to read the problem as:

Statement of the Problem:

“Administrative participation of University Teachers with Special Reference to Gender”.

### **Objectives of the Study**

The following objectives were formulated for the present investigation:

1. To find and compare the administrative participation of university teachers on the basis of gender..

### **Hypotheses**

The following hypotheses were formulated for the present investigation:

1. There shall be a significant difference between the mean scores of university teachers in their administrative participation on the basis of gender.

### **Operational Definitions of Variables**

The variables under investigation are explained as under:

### Administrative Participation

Administrative Participation in the present study refers to the dominant set of scores as measured by the Administrative Participation Scale developed by Haseen Taj.

**University Teachers:** These include the teaching staff working in University of Kashmir and Sheri Kashmir University of Agriculture Science and Technology (SKUAST-K)..

### Delimitations of the Study

Keeping in view the time and resources available to the present investigator, the study was delimited to teachers of University of Kashmir and Sheri Kashmir University of Agriculture Science and Technology (SKUAST) in the age group of 40 plus.

**Design of the Study:** Descriptive method was used for the present study.

**Sample:** 120 male and female Professors and Associate Professors within the age range of 40+. Were selected by using random sampling technique.

**Selection and Description of Tools:** Administrative Participation Scale (2000) developed by Haseen Taj was used for data collection.

### Analysis and interpretation of the data:

The calculated data was analysed and interpreted as under:

**Table 1.00: Showing the Significance of difference between the Mean Scores of Male (N=90) and Female (N=30) University Teachers on (Planning) Dimension of Administrative Participation.**

Gender	N	Mean	S. D	't'-Value	Result
Male	90	19.24	4.21	3.15	Significant at 0.01 level
Female	30	15.9	5.28		

The data has further been analyzed by way of computing 't' values between male and female university teachers on various areas including composite score of Administrative participation. The results reveal gives the mean differences of male and female university teachers on *Planning* area of Administrative Participation. The mean score in case of male university teachers has been reported higher (M= 19.24) than the mean score of female university teachers (M= 15.9). The obtained t-value is reported to be 3.15, which is significant at 0.01 level. This mean difference favors the male group of teachers. Therefore, it can be inferred that male university teachers seem to be readily available to join with other teachers in other departments and try to work out common programmes. The results further reveal that male university teachers are observed

actively involved in the developmental programmes of the institution as compared to female university teachers.

**Table 4.2: Showing the Significance of difference between the Mean Scores of Male (N=90) and Female (N=30) University Teachers on (Organizing) Dimension of Administrative Participation.**

Gender	N	Mean	S. D	't'-Value	Result
Male	90	20.81	4.02	2.44	Significant at 0.05 level
Female	30	18.47	4.67		

A perusal of Table 4.2 reveals the significance of difference between the mean scores of male and female university teachers on *Organizing* component of Administrative Participation. The mean scores in case of male university teachers is seen higher (M= 20.81) than female university teachers (M=18.47). The obtained *t*-value came out to be 2.44 which is significant at 0.05 level of confidence. On the basis of the results, it can be inferred that male university teachers are in consonance with regard to carrying out the co-curricular activities of the institution as when the work is assigned to them. They are reported to be active in the maintenance of the institutional plans. Besides, male university teachers are seen to be active in the organization of institutional clubs as compared to female university teachers. It has also been reported that they involve themselves in maintaining the discipline of the institution. Whereas, female university teachers are observed hesitant in the fulfillment of such responsibilities.

**Table 4.3: Showing the Significance of difference between the Mean Scores of Male (N=90) and Female (N=30) University Teachers on (Communicating) Dimension of Administrative Participation.**

Gender	N	Mean	S. D	't'-Value	Result
Male	90	22.21	4.66	0.29	Not Significant
Female	30	21.87	5.86		

The results reported in table 4.3 reveals that male and female university teachers don't differ significantly on *Communicating* component of administrative participation. The mean score in case of male university teachers is reported to be (M=22.21) as compared to female university teachers (M=21.87). The calculated *t*-value came out to be 0.29, which is not significant at any level of confidence. It can be inferred that both (male and female) the groups of university teachers equally inclined towards the communicating skill. The results further reveal that both the groups of teachers are observed to: encourage the students to form different communities in the

institution; participate actively in staff club meetings; attend the faculty meetings with zeal and zest and arrange the staff meetings. Both the groups of teachers help the head of the institution in i) orienting new teachers and ii) holding of follow-up conferences with teachers.

**Table 4.4: Showing the Significance of difference between the Mean Scores of Male (N=90) and Female (N=30) University Teachers on (Controlling) Dimension of Administrative Participation.**

Gender	N	Mean	S. D	't'-Value	Result
Male	90	17.21	3.95	0.18	Not Significant
Female	30	17.03	4.94		

Table 4.4 reveals the significance of difference between the mean scores of male and female university teachers on *Controlling* component of Administrative Participation. The mean scores in case of male university teachers have been reported to be (M=17.21) and in case of female university teachers (M= 17.03). The obtained *t*-value came out to be 0.18 which failed to arrive at any level of significance. On the basis of the results, it can be inferred none of groups has shown any superiority to each other. Both the groups are reported to participate in the preparation of institutional budget. It has also been observed that both male and female university teachers support the head of institution during admission process. They are reported to be careful to see that the institutional equipment does not get damaged. Both the groups of university teachers equally share their responsibility in making the adequate budgetary allotments for co-curricular activities. The results further reveal that male and female university teachers offer their support to introduce innovative methods in the institution.

**Table 4.5: Showing the Significance of difference between the Mean Scores of Male (N=90) and Female (N=30) University Teachers on (Evaluating) Dimension of Administrative Participation.**

Gender	N	Mean	S. D	't'-Value	Result
Male	90	16.78	3.36	2.72	Significant at 0.01 level
Female	30	14.43	4.31		



The table 4.5 gives information about the mean comparison of male and female university teachers on *Evaluating* component of administrative participation. The obtained mean score in case of male university teachers is higher (M=16.78) as compared to female teachers (M=14.43). The calculated *t*-value is reported to be 2.72 which is significant at 0.01 level. The results reveal that male teachers seem to take active part to see the progress of the students in academics and accordingly inform their parents. They look after the physical conditions of the classes like seating arrangements, ventilation etc. Their opinion is solicited by the head of the institution for the welfare of the institutional affairs. While as female university teachers are reported to keep themselves away from such responsibilities.

**Table 4.6: Showing the Significance of Difference between the Mean Scores of Male (N=90) and Female (N=30) University Teachers on Composite Score of Administration.**

Gender	N	Mean	S. D	't'-Value	Result
Male	90	97.3	13.58	2.54	Significant at 0.05 level
Female	30	87.7	15.31		

Male and female university teachers were further compared on *Composite Score* of Administrative Participation Scale. The mean score in case of male university teachers has been reported to be higher (M= 97.3) as compared to the mean score of female university teachers (M=87.7). The calculated' value is reported to be 2.54. The difference between the mean scores is significant at 0.05 level. (Refer Table 4.6). Therefore, it can be asserted that male university teachers are more inclined to carry the supervision of institutional activities. This does not mean that female university teachers lack this component but are reported to be lower in carrying such activities than male teachers.

### **Conclusion:**

The study revealed the following conclusions:

1. Male teachers were observed to be actively involved in the developmental programmes of the institution. They were participatory in constructing the time table and designing of the curriculum. While as, female university teachers are observed to be hesitant in working with other teachers in running the institutional affairs.
2. The study concluded that male university teachers seem to be active in the organization of institutional clubs.
3. Both the groups of university teachers are seen to: encourage the students to form different communities in the institution; participate actively in



staff club meetings; attend the faculty meetings with zeal and zest and arrange the staff meetings.

4. None of the groups has shown any superiority to each other on controlling dimension of administrative participation.
5. The results concluded that male university teachers were active to see the progress of the students in academics and accordingly post their parents about the progress. They look after the physical conditions of the class like seating arrangements, ventilation etc. While as female university teachers keep themselves away from such assessments.
6. The result revealed that male university teachers are involved in preparing the institution budget and prove helpful to their heads in orienting new teachers in the institution.

### **Educational Implications**

The present study was conducted to assess the Administrative Participation of University Teachers with special reference to Gender. The findings of this investigation may be helpful in devising programmes for improving the Administrative Participation of University Teachers in the following ways.

1. University teachers should find their place in various academic decisions of the institution. Besides, they should be involved in various administrative assignments.
2. UGC-Academic Staff College should organize special training courses for teachers working in universities to help them in the development of administrative participation skills.
3. A hand book may be prepared for university teachers that may guide them in administering their institution effectively
4. Educational leaders create learning environment that allow teachers and students to be more successful. The study will stimulate the teachers to do self introspection and gather self analysis data regarding the impact of their leadership behaviour on the organizational climate.
5. This study could be used by the central office personnel and the higher authorities to identify teachers who experience problems in creating a healthy campus climate.

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## **HIGHER EDUCATION SYSTEM IN INDIA: HOW FAR IT IS INCLUSIVE?**

*Jyotsna Ashokkumar Amin\**

### **Introduction**

Inclusive education has been the focus of the policy makers now a day after a long neglect of years. Inclusion of people with disabilities into the mainstream society is a much neglected issue in a country like India where a large percentage of children (about 10%) are born with birth defects. These children with disabilities have to face enormous challenges in their lives to get a formal education. The percentage of people who are successful in integrating themselves with the activities of mainstream life is very less as compared to the total number of such people. Children with physical and mental disabilities (like autism, cerebral palsy, hearing and visual impairments,) have to face enormous challenges in their life to get formal education. The attitude of the mainstream schools towards the inclusion of students with disabilities is extremely disappointing. According to the Persons with Disabilities (PWD) Act, every child with a disability has equal right to free education in an appropriate environment till he attains the age of 18. But how many schools in our country are actually aware of the Act? Very few, it seems. The parents of these children have to face rejection at each and every stage of their endeavor. Few of the lucky out of these reach to higher education level and because of their innate potentials they shine bright sometimes. Instead of empathy they often suffer from sympathetic behavior which led them down mentally. But what about those who don't know the actual meaning of inclusion. If we talk about the higher education system inclusion is seen as if these students who get admission they are treated differently by those who do not belong to it. They are made to look down for themselves after getting reservation in getting admission or sometimes treated badly.

Present paper throws light on the growth of Higher education system for the inclusion of various different groups in the mainstream. It compares the various inclusive groups and their representation in the growth of higher education. How inclusive is education in India? Acknowledging that inequalities in primary and

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secondary education will produce unequal participation in higher education and hence they need to be studied together, the paper nevertheless proposes to focus on higher education, as higher education is regarded as an engine for equitable economic and social progress, and inequalities in higher education are also reflective of cumulative inequalities in school education.

Inclusive development policies are expected to aim at the creation of a 'society for all'. They are viewed as affirmative policies that aim at empowering the marginalized people and the involuntarily excluded, by ensuring equal access to markets, services and economic, political and social spaces to all. In short, make all effective partners in the processes of socioeconomic and political development. Accordingly, inclusive education is meant to focus on the poor, the marginalized, the disadvantaged strata of the society and those living in backward regions. It is concerned with overall equity, not excluding any section of the society. A major part of any strategy for increasing the 'inclusivity' part of 'inclusive growth' must be to improve the capabilities of persons of all vulnerable and weaker sections of the society (Basu, 2001). This involves increasing their endowment of assets, including human capital endowments.

### Growth of higher education in India

The growth in higher education during the post-independence period has been remarkable, in terms of number of universities, colleges, students and teachers.

**Table 1: Growth of Higher Education in India**

Year	Universities	Colleges	Teachers ('000s)	Enrolment million	GER(%)
1950-51	28	578	24	0.17	1.5
1960-61	45	1819	62	.56	4.2
1970-71	93	3277	190	1.96	4.7
1980-81	123	4577	244	2.75	5.9
1990-91	184	6627	271	4.4	8.1
2000-01	254	10152	395	8.94	15.0
2010-11	559	32964			
2011-12	700*	35539	933.7	21.7	21.2*

*Source: Twelfth Five-Year Plan (New Delhi: Planning Commission 2013).*

Compared to 20 universities at the time of independence, at present, there are more than 700 universities, including institutions deemed to be universities and university level institutions. The number of colleges has increased from less than 500 to more than 37,000 during the same period, and the enrolments have increased to nearly 21 million from less than 200,000 in 1947-48. Presently, there are nearly one million teachers in higher education. The gross enrolment ratio in higher education stands at 21.1 per cent in 2012-13 compared to 1.5 per cent in 1960-61.

Growth in Higher Education Attainment among Adults (%) is indicated in the report of the National Sample Survey (NSS) a brief of which is given in the proceeding lines.

According to the gross enrolment ratios estimated, based on NSS reports,

- ❑ 10 percent of the 18–23 age group was attending higher education in 1983–84, 23.1 percent have attended in 2009–10 in about 26 years, the ratio increased by three times.
- ❑ In contrast, net enrolment ratio increases at a slower pace; it increased very modestly from 8 percent in 1999–2000 to **10.2 per cent by 2004–05** by about 2 points in 5 years
- ❑ The enrolment ratio in higher education in many other countries is much higher: it is above 75 % in developed/ high-income countries;
- ❑ The average for the developing countries is 24 % and the world average is 31% in 2011 (UIS, 2014). It can be noted that in no developed country the enrolment ratio is below 40 per cent.
- ❑ The enrolment ratio in higher education in India is **21.1 % by 2011** projected.

From the above it is seen that India is still striving to grow in terms of its adult attains the higher education. To bridge this gape government of India has provided various initiatives and inclusive education is one of them.

### **Inclusive Higher education in India**

According to the UK Department for International Development (DfID) definition, (2000) “Inclusive education in a developing country implies the equal right of all children to the ‘educational package’, however basic that package may be.” (Sapon-Shevin, 2003) said that Inclusion is not about disability, nor is it only about schools. Inclusion is about social justice...Inclusion demands that we ask, what kind of world do **we want to create**? What kinds of skills and commitment do people need to thrive in diverse society?

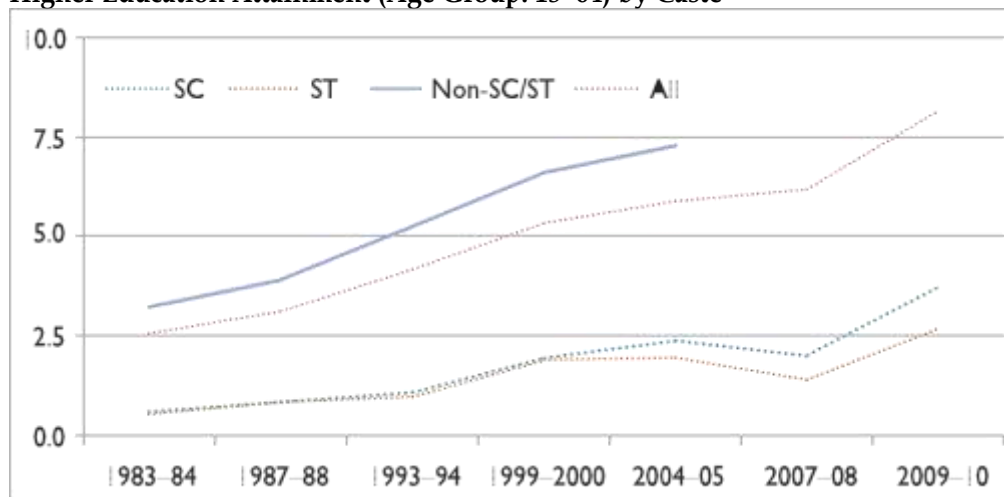
Government of India in its Eleventh Five-Year Plan (2007–12) and later in the Twelfth Five-year Plan (2012–17) already indicated the positive scenario towards the inclusive growth. It further indicated that caste, religion, gender, region and poverty have been the main bases for exclusion in India, it is intended that these groups form the main focus of attention while formulating policies and plans for inclusive growth.



Probably the most important problem faced by the higher education system in India is the persistence of failure of inclusion in access to higher education. Inequalities in access to higher education result in socio-economic inequalities in the society which, in turn, accentuate inequalities in education. In fact, it is a cyclic chain of inequalities: inequalities in access to higher education result in inequities in access to labour market information, which result in inequalities in employment and participation in labour market, resulting in inequalities in earnings contributing in turn to socio-economic and political inequalities. The socio-economic and political inequalities again are translated into the education sector, resulting in inequalities in education. Inequalities in access to education reflect loss in individual as well as social welfare. That economic returns to investment in education of the weaker sections are estimated to be higher than returns to their counterparts (Tilak, 1987), implies that inequalities in education would cause huge losses in national output; and that inclusive strategies that contribute to equity should be viewed favourably not only from the point of view of social justice but also even in terms of economic well-being, as the total equity gains might surpass the losses in efficiency, if any (Patnaik, 2012).

#### **Scenario of Inclusion by Caste**

The word caste in India has no constitutional definition as India is a secular country. To promote equality, it has declared some sections as scheduled castes and scheduled tribe. But socio-political system has deepened the roots of caste based inclusion in every sector of life.

**Graph 1: Higher Education Attainment (Age Group: 15–64) by Caste**

Source: National sample survey

According to the national sample survey report,

- ❑ There is not much variation in the eligible enrolment ratio between several caste groups. While it ranges between 50 per cent and 54 per cent for SC, for OBCs and others (non-backward sections), the ratio is much higher, 62 per cent in case of STs.
- ❑ Between various caste groups the transition rate ranges between 14 per cent (for ST) and 22 per cent (SC). SCs are ahead of all others.
- ❑ Less than 3 per cent of the STs and just 4 per cent among the SCs had completed levels of higher education in 2009–10.

It is to be noted that there is no constitutional provision for other backward group for the inclusion by caste other than these to prescribed caste originally.

### Scenario of Inclusion by Religion

Gap of inclusion in gross enrolment ratio between various religious groups are much higher. Estimates on gross enrolment ratio are available for Hindus, Muslims, Christians and 'others'. Enrolment ratio among Muslims was only 14 per cent in 2009–10, while it was 24.2 per cent among Hindus and 37 per cent among Christians. The enrolment ratio among 'Others' that includes Jains, Sikhs, etc., is also high – 28 per cent in 2009–10. The enrolment ratio is the highest among the Christians and the least among the Muslims (Table two). This is the same situation consistently throughout the period between 1983–84 and 2009–10. While there has been improvement in case of all the four groups between 1983–84 and 2009–10, the inter-group inequalities by religion did not decline much. In fact, the gap seemed to have widened.



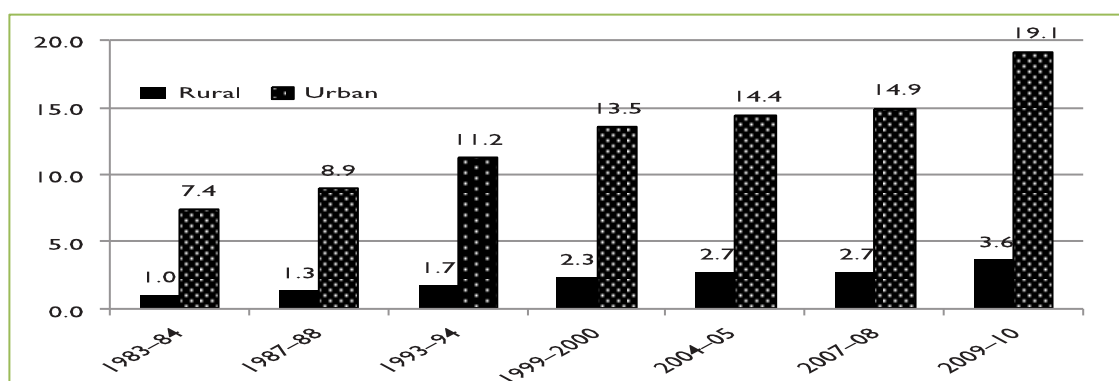
**Table 2. Enrolment Ratio in Higher Education by Religion**

Gross Enrolment Ratio	Muslims	Hindus	Christians	Others
1983-84	4.1	7.5	20.0	10.6
1987-88	4.4	8.8	17.0	11.4
1993-94	4.6	9.1	16.2	10.5
1999-2000	5.2	10.4	18.6	14.0
2004-05	7.6	13.2	20.8	14.7
2009-10	13.8	24.2	36.9	28.0
Transition ratio 2009-10	15.8	19.88	18.96	10.82

Source: National sample survey

**Scenario of Inclusion by Region**

There exist not only interstate disparities but also a high-degree inequality between rural and urban areas in each state. Based on NSS data, it is observed that in contrast to inequalities by gender, caste and religion, rural-urban disparities seem to be very high in the enrolment ratios. While 39 per cent of the relevant age group population in urban areas attended colleges/universities in 2009-10, it is only 16.5 per cent population who attended in rural areas. The ratio in urban areas was nearly 4.5 times higher than the ratio in rural areas in 1983. In 2009-10, this came down to 2.3 times, suggesting narrowing down of rural-urban disparities. Between 1999-2000 and 2004-05, the urban-rural differences in net enrolment ratio declined from nearly four times to three times. The eligible enrolment ratio is also less in case of rural population compared to urban population. But it only differs by less than 10 per cent points: 48 per cent in case of rural population and 57 per cent in case of urban population in 2004-05 (graph two).

**Graph 2 : Higher Education Attainment in Rural and Urban Regions in India**

Source: National Sample Survey

Consistently high rural–urban inequalities could also be noted in case of the rate of higher education attainment. The rate increased from 1 per cent in rural areas in 1983 to 3.6 per cent in 2009–10, while in urban areas it increased from 7.4 per cent to 19.1 per cent during the same period. Although the rural–urban gap is getting reduced in terms of rate of increase, in terms of absolute differences it seems to be widening (graph two). In general, the rate of improvement is very slow; and more importantly, the absolute levels of higher education attainment are very low in rural areas.

### Scenario of Inclusion by Gender

Women constitute 43 % of the total enrolments in higher education in 2011–12, while there were only 14 women per 100 men in higher education in 1950–51, according to the available UGC statistics (UGC, 2013). One of the most important dimensions of inequality is between men and women. Women are generally found to be lagging behind men in every sector including higher education in India as in many countries, though reverse trends could be observed of late in a good number of countries. During the post-independence period, there is a significant improvement in women’s participation in higher education. Thus, compared to the earlier decades, this marks a significant improvement. While this 43 per cent is an all-India average across all disciplines of study, there are wide variations between different states and also across disciplines. Women students constitute 11 per cent in engineering/technology, 4 per cent in medicine and less than 5 per cent in education. Nevertheless, the overall level of participation of women in higher education has improved remarkably and the current overall level is quite impressive.

**Table 3: Enrolment Ratio in Higher Education, by Gender**

Gross Enrolment Ratio	Women	Men	Coefficient of Inequality
1983–84	4.49	10.87	2.4209
1987–88	5.37	11.82	2.2011
1993–94	5.9	11.7	1.9831
1999–2000	8.0	12.1	1.5125
2004–05	10.4	14.8	1.4231
2009–10	18.7	27.0	1.4402
<b>Net Enrolment Ratio</b>			
1999–2000	6.8	9.4	1.3807
2004–05	8.5	11.8	1.3905
<b>Eligible Enrolment Ratio</b>			
2004–05	48.6	55.6	1.1440
<b>Transition Ratio</b>			
2009–10	19.0	19.7	1.0374

Note: Coefficient of inequality is simply the male–female ratio.

Source: Twelfth Five-Year Plan (New Delhi: Planning Commission 2013).

The gross enrolment ratio among men increased from 10.9 per cent in 1983–84 to 27 per cent in 2009–10 – it increased by 2.5 times in about two decades and a half. In contrast, only 19 per cent of the women in the relevant age group were enrolled in higher education in 2009–10. But what is strikingly clear is: there has been a rapid progress in the enrolment ratio among women compared to men. The gross enrolment ratio for women increased by more than four times. As a result, gender inequalities in gross enrolment ratio have come down very significantly during this period. A simple coefficient of inequality (ratio of male enrolment ratio over female enrolment ratio) declined from 2.4 in 1983–84 to 1.4 in 2009–10 (Table 3). The available estimates on net enrolment ratios, however, indicate that between 1999–2000 and 2004–05, the increase in enrolment ratios is very small in case of both men and women; hardly it increased by 2 per cent points in either case, and the level of inequality remained the same. The male–female differences are much less in case of eligible enrolment ratios. While 49 per cent of eligible girls join higher education institutions, the corresponding ratio is marginally higher for men, 56 per cent, a difference of about 7 per cent points. Gender variations are the least in transition rates – the rate being 19 per cent in case of women and 20 per cent in case of men in 2009–10. Percentage of adults (15+) with higher education reflects the cumulative growth. Absolute rates of higher education attainment have increased in case of both men and women, but there has been faster growth in case of women.

### **Scenario of Inclusion of Person with Disability**

A comprehensive countrywide sample survey was undertaken by the National Sample Survey Organization in 1991 to estimate the number of people with disabilities. It was reported that about 1.9 per cent of the population (i.e., 16.2 million) have physical and sensory disabilities. Many developing and least developed countries and areas do not collect disability data. In the case of those that have done so, the data collected do not reflect the full extent of disability prevalence. This limitation is due in part to the conceptual framework adopted, the scope and coverage of the surveys undertaken, as well as the definitions, classifications and methodology used for disability data collection.'

In India, identification of children by 'head counting' has posed many difficulties. Data on disability are generally under-reported as a result of a lack of adequate skills to identify children with invisible disabilities, and a lack of precise definitions for identifying children with mild and moderate disabilities. Disability identification in the population was included in the 2001 census; however, the data are yet to be published.

According to UNICEF's Report on the Status of Disability in India 2000, there were around 30 million children suffering from some form of disability. The Sixth All-India Educational Survey (NCERT, 1998) reports that of India's 200 million school-aged children (6–14 years), 20 million require special needs education. While the

national average of gross enrolment in school is over 90 per cent, less than five per cent of children with disabilities are in school. The majority of these children remain outside mainstream education. The low turnout can be attributed to causes such as difficulty in coping with general education demands and social reasons. Regional disparities in the number of children with special needs in India are shown in Table 1. Recognizing the problem of disability and regional disparities, the government and NGOs are initiating policy reforms and strategies for special needs and inclusive education.

### **Reflections on Inclusion higher education**

The contribution of education to development is widely recognized. Direct and indirect benefits education produce to individuals and externalities are indeed large in quantum. Abundant literature is available that highlights the contribution of education to economic growth, poverty reduction and reduction in inequalities. To break the cyclical chain of inequalities—where inequalities in education contribute to inequalities in labour market information, which lead to inequalities in employment, which further cause inequalities in earnings that result in sociopolitical inequalities, which in turn cause inequalities in participation in education—education is considered as a very effective strategy. In fact, education is found to be a more sustainable and more effective measure than other measures to reduce inequalities in society (Carnoy, 1993). It is more so in democratic societies like India where other approaches may not be practicable. Given all this, the role of education in inclusive growth, and also the relationship between education and inclusive growth need no emphasis. After all, education is a constituent of inclusive growth; as an instrument, it contributes to inclusive growth and its development is also influenced by inclusive growth. As the World Bank (2006) notes, 'inclusive growth process is intricately linked with attempts to improve markedly the quality of basic services such as education (healthcare, power and water supply) for every one across the country'.

For education to promote inclusive growth, it has to be necessarily inclusive. A system of education characterized by exclusiveness or by a high degree of inequalities cannot contribute to inclusive growth. It has to be qualitatively good and widely accessible to all sections of the society in an equitable way. Inequality in education or unequal access to education is costly as it results in loss in individual welfare and loss in social welfare as well. Unequal education reproduces social inequality, as Salmi and Bassett (2014) observed, 'given the extensive social and private benefits that result from tertiary education, inclusive access and success are essential for achieving social justice and ensuring the realization of the full potential of all young people'. Even from a narrow perspective of the education sector, inequalities mean loss to the education sector, in terms of lack of or low 'diversity' (UNESCO, 2009).

## Conclusion

Education and its goals in India are towards the attainment of equality in terms of caste, colour, religion, region and gender since independence. People started talking about the inclusive education where persons with disabilities are given special provision and the system is getting sensitive towards it. But the scenario from this paper pauses questions that are we really moving towards inclusion? What about the other sections having inclusion by provision but still striving to be in the system? Without addressing the inequalities of the system we can not ensure inclusion of these groups. The groups other than CWSN do not required existing infrastructural changes or methodological changes in the education system, rather to be addressed by the changes in mind set only.

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## **EDUCATIONAL ACHIEVEMENT AND CAREER OPTIONS FOR MUSLIM YOUTH IN INDIA: CHALLENGES AND OPPORTUNITIES**

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*Salma Kuraisyh\*\**

### **Abstract**

This paper is an endeavour to understand the educational achievement of Muslims in India. The attempt also examines the Indian culture that discourages or influences the attainment in education of Muslim youth in Indian scenario. The findings revealed that no data is available regarding the contribution of minorities at higher and technical education levels. No data is available on the participation of minorities in different courses offered by Ministries other than the Ministry of Human Resource Development

**Key terms:** Educational Achievement; Career Options; Muslim Youth

### **Introduction**

According to National Commission for Minorities Act- 1992, there are five religious communities viz. Muslims, Christians, Sikhs, Buddhists and Zoroastrians which are considered to be the minorities in India. The actual data regarding the religious minorities as per census 2011 has not been released yet. Nevertheless, as per census 2001 the total percentage population of minorities in India was 18.4% percentage out of which Muslim minority constituted 13.4% which formed 72% of the total Minority population. Thus, the largest minority in India is Muslim minority.

Geographically, the Muslims are scattered throughout the whole country and their concentration varies significantly. The state of Jammu and Kashmir is the only state and Lakshadweep a single Union Territory where the Muslims are in majority. There are over 18.95 crore Muslims living in India making a total of 18.4% percent of the entire population of the country. The literacy rate of India has considerably increased from Census 2001 to 2011. The literacy rate of India as per census 2011 is 74.4%, male literacy rate is 82.14% and female literacy rate is 65.46%.

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**Literacy Rate (2001-2011)**

Literacy Rate	2001 (%)	2011 (%)	Difference
Total	64.83	74.04	9.2
Male	75.26	82.14	6.9
Female	53.67	65.46	11.8

Source: Census 2011

The participation of Muslims in education is a major concern over the state of their education. Compared to other religious minorities, Muslims lag far behind while considering their educational achievement. However the literacy rate according to census 2011 in terms of different religious communities has not been yet released. Thus, as per census 2001 the literacy rate of Muslim minority was 59.1%.

**Literacy Rate of Muslim minority community**

Community	Male literacy rate	Female literacy rate	Total literacy
India	75.3	53.7	64.8
Muslim	67.6	50.1	59.1

Source: census 2001

**Constitutional provisions for Education in India**

The constitution of India was framed by the Constituent Assembly set up in 1946. Some provisions of the Constitution are related to the education. The Constitution committed itself to provide elementary education under Article 45 of the Directive Principles of State policy which stated that *"The State shall endeavour to provide within a period of ten years from the commencement of this Constitution, for free and compulsory education for all children until they complete the age of fourteen years."*

However Article 21 A stated that *"The State shall provide free and compulsory education to all children of the age of six to fourteen years in such a way as the State may, by law, determine."* Consequently in 2002 Education was considered as a Fundamental Right and was approved through 86<sup>th</sup> amendment to the Constitution.

Article 45 was modified in 86<sup>th</sup> amendment to the constitution which now reads as *"The state shall endeavour to provide early childhood care and education for all children until they complete the age of 6 years"*.

Constitutional Provisions were also made regarding the establishment of minority Institutions in the country as Article 30(1) reads as *"All minorities...shall have the right to establish and administer education institutions of their own."* The right under



Article 30 also includes the right of a minority to impart education to its children in its own language. However, the Minority Educational Institutions are of three types:

- 1) Institutions that seek recognition as well as aid from the state;
- 2) Institutions that seek only recognition from the State and not aid;
- 3) Institutions that seek neither recognition nor aid from the State.

The institutions of the first and second type are subject to the regulatory powers of the state with regard to syllabus prescription, academic standards, discipline, situation, employment of teaching staff and so on. The institutions of third type are free to administer their affairs but subject to operation of general laws like contract law, labour law, industrial law, tax law, economic regulations, and so on.

#### **National Policy on Education (Part IV- Education for Equality {4.8 Minorities})**

The National Policy on Education, 1986 states the following regarding education of minorities vide para 4.8 of the document: "*Some minority groups are educationally deprived or backward. Greater attention will be paid to the education of these groups in the interest of equality and social justice. This will naturally include the Constitutional guarantees given to them to establish and administer their own educational institutions, and protection to their languages and culture. Simultaneously, objectivity will be reflected in the preparation of text-books and in all school activities and all possible measures will be taken to promote an integration based on appreciation of common national goals and ideals, in conformity with the core curriculum*"

#### **National Commission for Minority Educational Institutions**

The National Commission for Minority Educational Institutions was recognized on 11 November 2004 with an aim to advise the Central Government or any State Government on the protection of the constitutional rights of the minorities. These rights include the establishment of minority Educational Institutions of their own choice. The compensation amount fixed by the state for the compulsory acquisition of any property of a minority educational institution shall not restrict or abrogate the right guaranteed to them. Later on, the National Commission for Minorities Educational Institutions Amendment Act, 2006 and 2010 made National Commission for Minority Educational Institutions augmented and more powerful. The commission has three roles; adjudicatory function, advisory role and recommendatory powers. It can issue minority status certificates to educational institutions

#### **Muslim contribution to Indian Education**

The educational attainment of Muslims in the present scenario in India is quite deteriorating but history witnesses the fact that Muslims worked very hard for the development of education system in India. Since the time immemorial or before the advent of Islam, education was considered to be the monopoly of Brahmins in India. The common people were deprived of education in early Hindu periods. But with the



advent of Islam in India, the notion about education was totally changed. It is because of the Muslim rulers that every citizen irrespective of caste, creed, sex or religion can have the right to education. Muslims had put their efforts to establish several enlightened learning centers in India like Aligarh Muslim University at Aligarh, Darul Uloom Deoband at Deoband, etc.

### **Educational attainment of Muslims in India**

The educational attainment of Muslims in India is alarmingly deteriorating in spite of the fact that they make up the largest minority in India and forms an important class which is deprived of education (higher) in general and Technical education in particular. The Census data as per Census 2011 regarding the educational attainment of Muslims is not available, however according to Census 2001 the educational attainment of Muslims in higher education and technical education is indicated in the table that follows:

#### **Graduate and Diploma Holders**

	Number in Lakhs		Percentage of Population with 20+ years of age	
	Graduates	Diploma and certificate	Graduates	Diploma and Graduates
Muslims	23.9	2.7	3.6	0.4
Total	376.7	40.5	6.7	0.7

Source: Census 2001

From the perusal of the above table it is clear that only about (7%) of the total population with age twenty or more than twenty (20+) years are Graduates or diploma holders and this proportion is less amongst Muslims where it is about 4 percent or less. According to Census data, the contribution of Muslims whose age is twenty years or above in Technical Education is as low as one percent which is quite alarming. As per Census 2001, about 38 million populations aged 20 years or above hold the degree of graduation and it is only 4 million of population who have received education of a Technical diploma or Technical Certificate course. The number of Muslim graduates is only 4 million which amounts to about 3.6% of the appropriate population. Nevertheless, the contribution of Muslims in Technical is much more alarming as only about 0.4% Muslims is technically qualified. Thus, the need of the hour is to improve the educational attainment of Muslims in India especially the higher education and technical education. National Council of Applied Economic Research conducted a study on the deprivation of Muslims. The findings of the study revealed that, the Muslims have a very poor development status in India. The results further revealed

that the illiteracy, meager income, lack or irregular employment and the like responsible for the poverty of Muslims is prevalent in the Muslim Community.

### **Sachar Committee Report**

On 9<sup>th</sup> of March, 2005 a high level Committee under the Chairmanship of Justice Rajinder Sachar was constituted for the preparation of a genuine Report on the Social, Economic and Educational Status of the Muslim Community in India. The high level Committee popularly known as 'Sachar Committee' submitted its report on 17<sup>th</sup> November. A total of 76 recommendations were made on the basis of the Sachar Committee Report. The report brought to the limelight the condition of Muslims especially their contribution in education. According to this report, "one-fourth of Muslim children in the age group of 6-14 years have either never attended school or are drop-outs. For children above the age of 17 years, the educational attainment of Muslims at matriculation is 17 percent, as against national average at 26 percent. Only 5% of Muslims who completed middle school are likely to complete secondary education, as compared to 62% at the national level." Keeping the educational attainment of Muslims in view, the condition of Muslims is much more deteriorating than other Communities in India.

### **Conclusion**

Muslims have a glorious history of several centuries of enlightened rule in India but in spite of that they are still lagging behind in their educational attainment, especially in technical education; this may be due to the fact that there is less opportunity for Muslims in technical institutions of repute or may be due to less or no number of Muslim minority Technical Institutions. Thus, the uplifting of Muslims in education is not simply a question of charity but it is a dire necessity to facilitate their education, improve their social and Economic condition in the country.

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## **SOCIAL INTELLIGENCE AND VOCATIONAL INTERESTS OF PHYSICALLY CHALLENGED AND NORMAL SECONDARY SCHOOL STUDENTS DISTRICT PULWAMA**

*Tasleema\**  
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### **Abstract**

Intelligence is a term describing one or more capacities of mind. Within this context the difference in the mental and physical capabilities has resulted the growth of two categories of students. Physically challenged secondary school students build an innate scientific interest and are more interested in professional medical courses like pharmacy, surgeon and medicine. The aim of the paper is to compare social intelligence and professional interests of physically challenged and normal secondary school students. Both the categories of the students involving physically challenged and normal students were selected on the basis of random sampling method. To carry out the study comprehensively, social intelligence scale and interest record scale were used to assess the social intelligence and vocational interests of different groups of secondary school students (Physically challenged and Normal). The data was analysed by using various statistical techniques such as mean, S.D and t-test. The paper analyses and compares the social intelligence of physically challenged students with normal (healthy) students. It also focuses on the vocational interests of both categories of students. The results revealed that the physically challenged secondary school students have good level of memory to remember the relevant issues, names and faces of people. Normal secondary school students are sensitive to the happenings around and thus respond more often in a tactful way. Physically challenged secondary school students have more scientific interest which includes occupations like chemist, pharmacist, physician and surgeons as compared to their counterparts.

**Keywords:** Social intelligence, aptitude, Disability, comprehensively, Vocational interests, physically challenged, physically normal.

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## Introduction

As per history of mankind, the differences or deficiencies in the physical and mental aspects or characteristics of human beings have been of such concern as that of differences in size, shape etc. The disability among human beings has been always a subject of debate among people in all societies. People in different societies viewed concept of disability differently because of the attitude of the people towards disability is deeply rooted in their socio-cultural values. The term "disability" has been defined in many ways. Besides, other terms such as impairment and handicap have been synonymously used for disability.

The following five categories of disabled children requiring special educational facilities have been chosen for the present study and are described as:

- Visually impaired means a person with impairment of visual functions even after treatment or standard refractive correction and who is capable of using residual vision with appropriate assistive devices.
- Hearing impaired person is defined as one who generally with the use of a hearing aid has residual hearing sufficient to enable the successful processing of linguistic information through auditions.
- Speech impaired person is one who is found to deviate in terms of his speech abilities from the children of his age or grade so that his speaking behaviour may begin to call attention of his self and other.
- An orthopaedic impairment is an impairment that interferes with the normal functioning of bones, joints or muscles.
- Crippled person is a person who is unable to walk properly.

Intelligence is a term describing one or more capacities of mind. This can be defined in different content like capacities for abstract thought, understanding communication, reasoning, learning, planning, emotional intelligence and problem solving. Research on the concept of social intelligence began when Thorndike (1920) put forth the idea that intelligence could be separated into three facets. These facets include social, mechanical and abstract intelligence. The defining factor separating these facets is the types of subjects or stimuli, individuals must interact with. Social intelligence pertains to individual's interaction with people in an intelligent manner. Social intelligence is a mental ability distinct from abstract and mechanical intelligence (Thorndike, 1927). Ford and Tisak (1983) defined social intelligence in terms of behavioural outcomes and were successful in supporting a distinct domain of social intelligence. They defined it as one's ability to accomplish relevant objectives in special social settings. Marlowe (1986) equated social intelligence to social competence. He defined it as the ability to understand feelings, thoughts and behaviours of persons, including oneself, interpersonal situation and to act appropriately upon that understanding. Several studies have shown that social intelligence is multidimensional

and distinguishable from general intelligence domains (Jones and Day, 1997); Marlowe (1986). These concepts of social intelligence are incorporating internal and external perceptions, social skills and other psycho-social variables (Taylor, 1990). Marlowe's (1986) model of social intelligence comprised of five domains\_ personal attitude, social performance skills, empathetic ability, emotional expressiveness and confidence and Sub (2007) showed that social undertaking and social knowledge were separate constructs of social intelligence.

Vocational interest is related to the likeness one has for a particular job or vocation. The interest need to be assessed, including the subject of interest, vocation of interest, work of interest and value of interest (Ekennia, 2011). According to Ekennia, no individual can perform any job well without any element of interest. Boys and girls begin to show concern about possible vocational choices and goals when they reach adolescence. Making a vocational choice is a difficult problem for young people, whose work opportunities have been limited to chores at home, working in stores, helping in service stations and other kinds of unskilled labour. Their knowledge of the work world is gained through unsystematic reading, observation, being around business establishments and other kinds of haphazard opportunities to learn. Vocational interests of the student depend upon the knowledge, attitudes, values, physical characteristics and environmental influences. Lack of awareness of personal characteristics, meagre knowledge and limited experiences combine to produce a confused interest figuration for many boys and girls. The school has a responsibility to assist the students with their vocational problems in several ways.

### **Objectives**

1. To study and compare social intelligence of physically challenged and normal secondary school students of district Pulwama.
2. To study and compare vocational interests of physically challenged and normal secondary school students of district Pulwama.

### **Hypotheses**

1. There is no significant difference between social intelligence of normal and physically challenged secondary school students of district Pulwama.
2. There is no significant difference between vocational interests of normal and physically challenged secondary school students of district Pulwama.

### **Method and Procedure**

Descriptive method of research has been used as it helps to obtain pertinent and precise information concerning the current status of the study.

The sample for the present study consisted of 360 secondary school students. The study was conducted on 180 physically challenged and 180 normal secondary

school students in the age-group of 14+ and the sample has been taken on the basis of simple random sampling technique.

#### **Tool Used**

##### **Chadda and Ganesan social intelligence scale (SIS):**

Chadda and Ganesan social intelligence scale (1986) was used to assess the social intelligence of physically challenged and normal secondary school students which includes eight dimensions\_ patience, cooperativeness, confidence, sensitivity, recognition of social environment, tactfulness, sense of humour and memory.

##### **R.P Singh`s Interest Record Scale (1975)**

R.P Singh`s Interest Record Scale (1975) was used to assess the vocational interests of physically challenged and normal secondary school students which includes seven dimensions as; mechanical, business, scientific, aesthetic, social, clerical and outdoor.

#### **Statistical Treatment**

The data was analyzed by applying various statistical techniques such as mean, S.D and t-test.

#### **Analysis and Interpretation**

Table 1.0 shows the mean comparison of physically challenged and Normal secondary school students on various dimensions of social intelligence scale. The perusal of the table indicates that the two groups viz physically challenged and normal secondary school students does not show any significant difference on the patience (t.value  $0.68 < 0.01$ ) dimension of social intelligence scale. The table further highlights that the two groups shows insignificant difference on the dimensions of cooperativeness, confidence, recognition of social environment, tactfulness and sense of humour. It is clear from the above table that the two groups viz physically challenged and normal secondary school students show significant mean difference on memory dimension of social intelligence scale. The table shows that the physically challenged secondary school students have good level of memory than the normal secondary school students. The table highlights that the two groups viz physically challenged and normal secondary school students significantly differ (t-value  $1.96 > 0.05$ ) on sensitivity dimension of social intelligence scale. It means that normal secondary school students are sensitive to the happenings around and thus respond more often in a tactful way. On composite score it has been found that the two groups viz physically challenged and normal secondary school students do not differ significantly. Therefore the hypothesis which reads as, "There is no significant difference between social intelligence of normal and physically challenged secondary school students of district Pulwama." Stands partially accepted.

**Table 1.0: Mean comparison of Physically challenged and Normal secondary school students on various dimensions of Social Intelligence**

S. No	Dimensions	Group	N	Mean	S.D	t-value	Level of significance
1	Patience	Physically challenged	180	17.12	2.57	0.68	Insignificant
		Normal	180	17.74	2.95		
2	Cooperative-ness	Physically challenged	180	22.83	2.87	1.41	Insignificant
		Normal	180	23.28	3.23		
3	Confidence	Physically challenged	180	17.01	2.65	0.03	Insignificant
		Normal	180	17.02	2.75		
4	Sensitivity	Physically challenged	180	18.89	2.93	1.96	Significant at 0.05
		Normal	180	19.49	2.79		
5	Recognition of social environment	Physically challenged	180	1.14	0.72	1.00	Insignificant
		Normal	180	1.20	0.67		
6	Tactfulness	Physically challenged	180	3.22	1.49	1.50	Insignificant
		Normal	180	3.43	1.33		
7	Sense of Humour	Physically challenged	180	2.57	1.41	0.64	Insignificant
		Normal	180	2.66	1.30		
8	Memory	Physically challenged	180	6.02	2.69	2.28	Significant at 0.05
		Normal	180	5.32	3.14		
<b>Total</b>		<b>Physically challenged</b>	<b>180</b>	<b>88.1</b>	<b>17.78</b>	<b>1.46</b>	<b>Insignificant</b>
		<b>Normal</b>	<b>180</b>	<b>90.82</b>	<b>17.71</b>		

Table 1.1 reveals the mean comparison of physically challenged and normal secondary school students on various dimensions of vocational interest scale. The perusal of the table indicates that the two groups viz physically challenged and normal secondary school students does not show any significant difference on mechanical (t.value  $0.10 < 0.01$ ) and business (t.value  $0.40 < 0.01$ ) dimensions of vocational interest scale. The table further highlights that the two groups show insignificant difference on the dimensions of aesthetic (t.value  $0.01 < 0.01$ ), social (t.Value  $0.33 < 0.01$ ), clerical (t.Value  $0.36 < 0.01$ ) and outdoor (t.Value  $1.38 < 0.01$ ) of vocational interest scale. It is clear from the table that the two groups show significant mean difference on the scientific (t.Value  $2.40 > 0.05$ ) dimension of vocational interest scale. It means that the physically challenged secondary school students have more scientific interest than the normal secondary school students. On composite score it has been found that the two



groups do not differ significantly. Therefore the hypothesis which reads as, “There is no significant difference between vocational interests of normal and physically challenged secondary school students of district Pulwama.” Stands partially accepted.

**Table 1.1: Mean comparison of Physically challenged and Normal secondary school students on various dimensions of vocational interests.**

Sr. No	Dimensions	Group	N	Mean	S.D	t-Value	Level of significance
1	Mechanical	Physically challenged	180	23.02	4.73	0.10	Insignificant
		Normal	180	22.97	4.51		
2	Business	Physically challenged	180	22.21	3.81	0.40	Insignificant
		Normal	180	22.04	4.21		
3	Scientific	Physically challenged	180	27.50	5.06	2.40	Significant at 0.05
		Normal	180	26.18	5.44		
4	Aesthetic	Physically challenged	180	23.71	4.62	0.01	Insignificant
		Normal	180	23.66	3.95		
5	Social	Physically challenged	180	31.61	4.98	0.33	Insignificant
		Normal	180	31.45	4.21		
6	Clerical	Physically challenged	180	17.31	3.91	0.36	Insignificant
		Normal	180	17.16	3.98		
7	Outdoor	Physically challenged	180	20.67	4.17	1.38	Insignificant
		Normal	180	20.06	4.37		
<b>Total</b>		<b>Physically challenged</b>	<b>180</b>	<b>166.03</b>	<b>31.28</b>	<b>0.76</b>	<b>Insignificant</b>
		<b>Normal</b>	<b>180</b>	<b>163.52</b>	<b>30.67</b>		

## Conclusion

The results revealed that physically challenged secondary school students have good level of memory to remember the relevant issues, names and faces of people because the two groups showed significant mean difference on memory dimension of social intelligence scale. The two groups showed insignificant difference on dimensions of patience and co-operativeness of social intelligence scale. Thus both the groups are more patient and co-operative. Physically challenged and normal secondary school students differ insignificantly on dimensions of confidence, and tactfulness so the two groups are confident, sensitive and tactful. The two groups do not show any significant difference on dimensions of recognition to social environment

and sense of humour. That is why both the groups have good sense of humour and recognized to social environment. Physically challenged and normal secondary school students differ significantly on sensitivity dimension of social intelligence scale. It means that the normal secondary school students are sensitive to the happenings around and thus respond more often in a tactful way. The results further revealed that the two groups significantly differ on scientific interest dimension of vocational interest scale which includes occupations like chemist, pharmacist, physicians and surgeons, so physically challenged secondary school students have more scientific interest as compared to their counterparts. Physically challenged and normal secondary school students on mean comparison showed insignificant difference on the dimensions like mechanical, aesthetic, social, clerical, business and outdoor of vocational interest scale. Thus both the groups have same vocational interests.

### **Educational Implications**

1. Workshops/symposia should be organized by teacher education institutions for general teachers working in different institutions to develop positive attitude and proper adjustment level with normal as well as physically challenged students.
2. Connectivity between general and special schools should be maintained for the introduction /establishment of vocational courses as per the abilities of the students.
3. Physically challenged students should be provided congenial atmosphere for curricular as well as co-curricular activities so that they will get equal chance of participation in such activities to reduce the inferiority complex.

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## **LEADERSHIP POTENTIAL SCALE (LPS) CONSTRUCTION AND STANDARDIZATION**

*Shaheena Akhter\**

### **Introduction**

Education is the most powerful agency in moulding the character and determining the future of individuals and of nations. It is an integral part and basis of human life, an essential human virtue that develops human intellect and body, fashions and models him for society and cultural being. In its most comprehensive sense it aims at storing the mind with useful knowledge and training his powers of mind and body to healthful and harmonious action. Researches have revealed that education is the most single factor in achieving rapid economic development and technological progress in creating a social order founded on the values of freedom, social justice and equal opportunity.

Thus, in the area of knowledge and development, the university education (higher education) occupies a centre stage position. It influences the social changes through opinion building, economic development through human resource development which is caused by education training and socio economic development through Research and Development. The Commissions have formulated the training of character, development of qualities for character, citizenship in democratic social order, training for leadership and improvement of vocation efficiency.

The student is attracted by the protest movements, riots and demonstrations. To some students these represent real commitment and leadership. Many are eager to take an active part in social reforms and revolution. As a higher level student, he is exposed to crowded schools and then moves into a crowded labour market. At the same time, less and less independence of choice and activity confronts him. He seeks and desires a feeling of value in the scheme of things, a sense of achieving and belonging which brings identification with these movements, activities and individuals. The higher education student has the opportunity to provide the positive leadership and guidance so critically needed at this period.

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## **Need and Importance**

Education is a useful tool which can work for wonders if used rightly. The need of the hour is to make it society oriented. Only the use of right type of education can help really in the fast changing political and social setup of life whose foundations are laid on democratic philosophy. So the need of the hour is to keep education up-to the mark and up-to date in every aspect. Mazzine says, "True democracy refers to the progress of all under the leadership of the wisest and the best". A democracy cannot function successfully unless all the people- not merely a particular section - are trained for discharging their responsibilities and this involves training in discipline as well as leadership. There is no more dangerous maxim in the world of today than "My country, right or wrong". The whole world is now so intimately interconnected that no nation can or dare live alone and the development of a sense of world citizenship has become just as important as that national citizenship. This means that the educational system must make its contribution to the development of habits, attitudes and qualities of character, which will enable its citizens to develop democratic values so as to counteract all those fissiparous tendencies which hinder the emergence of a broad, national and secular outlook.

It is clear that we shall have to formulate our aims with reference to the training of character to develop the leadership qualities among students to enable them to assume the responsibility of leadership in their own small groups of community or locality for the development of nation as whole. Hence, research in these areas can be tremendous help to the students for developing leadership qualities. Keeping in view the present scenario of a higher education and status of the field as a whole, one needs to take a realistic view about the future direction in which higher education programme must move.

## **Development of Scale**

Leadership potential means the effectiveness of a leader to display his competence, fairness and identification. It denotes the occupancy of a status and the active performance of a role that mobilizes more or less organized collective and voluntary effort towards the attainment of shared goals and objectives. Hence, leadership is the name of the "group guiding force". Therefore, in order to have a potential leader in the society a scale like "Leadership Potential Scale" (LPS) is needed to know about students' potential for leaderships.

### **A. Description of the Leadership Potential Scale (LPS)**

The leadership potential scale (LPS) is a Likert type scale which is to be developed for the purpose of measuring students potential for leadership behavior.

Leadership potential scale consists of various dimensions viz.

1. Interpersonal relations, 2. Understanding of people

3. Value inculcator      4. Social communication  
5. Emotional stabilizer    6. Operation as a citizen

### B. Pooling of Items

List of 45 items were pooled from various sources and were given to experts to evaluate their content accuracy. 45 statements were included in the initial format of the scale.

**Table 1: Category wise Number of items in the scale**

S. No.	Dimensions	No. of items
1	Interpersonal relations	06
2	Understanding of people	12
3	Value and ethical inculcator	05
4	Social communication	06
5	Emotional stabilizer	07
6	Operation as a citizen	09
	Total Items	45

### C. Try out

Initial format (45 statements) on 5-point response scale was administered on a sample (N=120) students of higher education.

### D. Item Analysis

The response sheet received from students was arranged from maximum to minimum on the basis of overall score. The criterion of 27% above & 27% below was employed on the response to determine the upper & lower group. The 't' value of each item between those groups were computed.

**Table 2: Sample for item analysis study (N=120)**

<i>Sex</i>	<i>U.G</i>	<i>P.G</i>	<i>Total</i>
<i>Boys</i>	32	27	59
<i>Girls</i>	30	31	61
<i>Total</i>	62	58	120

**Item Revision**

Only those statements in the final format were retained whose 't' value were found significant at 0.01

**Final Format**

The final format consists of 40 items. These items were reshuffled into 6 dimensions & were administered on a sample of (N=60) students of higher education for redrafting, reconstruction & for checking language difficulty & interpretation difficulty.

**Simple for final format (N=60)**

<i>Sex</i>	<i>U.G</i>	<i>P.G</i>	<i>Total</i>
<i>Boys</i>	15	15	30
<i>Girls</i>	15	15	30
<i>Total</i>	30	30	60

<b>S. No.</b>	<b>Dimensions</b>	<b>No. of items</b>	<b>Serial no. of items in the scale</b>
1	Interpersonal relations	05	02,03,04,05,25,
2	Understanding of people	11	01,08,09,10,11,12,13,14,15,16,18,
3	Value and ethical inculcator	04	19,23,26,27,
4	Social communication	06	06,07,21,24,28,29,
5	Emotional stabilizer	06	17,20,30,31,32,33,
6	Operation as a citizen	08	22,34,35,36,37,38,39,40
	<b>Total</b>	<b>40</b>	

**E. Standardization**

The scale has been standardized by finding its reliability & validity.

**Reliability:**

The reliability of scale has been determined by two methods.

- a) **Split half (U/L):** The reliability of the sample (N=210) students of higher education by applying Spearman Brown prophecy formula come out to be as 0.90 (significant).

- b) **Split half (O/E):** The reliability of the sample (N=210) students of higher education by applying spearman brown prophecy formula came out to be as 0.91 (significant).

**Table 03: Reliability (N=210)**

Reliability	Spilt half (U/L)	Split half (O/E)
	0.90	0.91

**Sample for Reliability and Validity Study (N=210)**

Sex	Under-graduate	Post-graduate	Total
<i>Boys</i>	55	55	110
<i>Girls</i>	50	50	100
<i>Total</i>	105	105	210

### Validity

The validity of scale has been determined by the following method:

#### Construct/internal consistency validity:

7×7 correlation matrix was worked out. The matrix is presented as under: -

	Inter personal relations	Unders-tanding of people	Value inculca-tor	Social commu-nication	Emotional stabilizer	Operation as a citizen	Total
Inter personal relations	*	.287**	.095	.385**	.195**	.516**	.581**
Underst-anding of people		*	.267**	.379**	.404**	.498**	.737**
Value inculcator			*	.181**	.269**	.251**	.567**
Social communication				*	.364**	.534**	.682**
Emotional stabilizer					*	.386**	.629**
Operation as a citizen						*	.791**
Total							*

\*\* = Correlation is significant at 0.01 level.



### *F. Administration of LPS*

The scale can be administered to a group as well as individual students studying in the class with the instruction given at top of it. The scale requires 10 minutes for its completion..

### *G. Scoring*

Each item is scored on 5 point scale distributed on Almost never, Rarely Sometimes, Frequently, Almost always.

	<b>Almost never</b>	<b>Rarely</b>	<b>Some-times</b>	<b>Frequently</b>	<b>Almost always</b>
<b>For Positive worded items</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>1</b>
<b>For Negative Items</b>	<b>X</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>

The possible range of scores on the scale is 40-204. Student scoring high on the scale tend to have more leadership potential than the student scoring low in the scale.

**Table 04**

<i>Norms</i>	<i>Range of Score</i>	<i>Classification</i>
	188-193	Excellent
	182-187	Above Average
	176-181	Average
	170-175	Below Average
	164-169	Poor

### *Utility*

The LPS is valuable & useful for the students, teachers, administrators, teacher educators & above all to researchers. It will guide the teachers in developing good qualities of leadership. Among the students & this will lead to healthy relationship between teachers & students. To administrators, it will be helpful in the promotion of good leadership. A good teacher leader is a national assist & a precious dynamic force. The scale will help the researchers to explore the different characteristic of leadership behavior & qualities for an assemblage of individuals to function as a group.

**Faculty of Education, University of Kashmir**

**LEADERSHIP POTENTIAL SCALE (LPS) (Shaheena Akhter)**

Name of the student: \_\_\_\_\_ Age: \_\_\_\_\_ Sex: \_\_\_\_\_ Class\ Course: \_\_\_\_\_

Name of the College\ Department: \_\_\_\_\_ Date: \_\_\_\_\_

**Instructions:**

There are 40 statements on the pages that follow. Each statement has a 5 - point rating scale ranging from "Almost always".

You are requested to read each item thoroughly & give your responses by marking ( ) on the appropriate box that best describes you. Please note that you have not to judge the items in terms of their desirability or undesirability. You have to record your own responses with regard to each statement. Give your responses frankly & truthfully. There is no advantage in giving a wrong impression about yourself. Give the first answer as it comes to you & proceed as quickly as possible. Your responses will remain confidential.

**LEADERSHIP POTENTIAL SCALE**

S. No	Statements	Almost Never	Always Rarely	Some-times	Freque-ntly	Almost Always
1	I understand the problems of the community/group to which I belong	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2	I am fair in my dealings towards the community/ group for promoting interpersonal relations.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3	I cooperate & work as a member of the community/ group to sustain my membership character.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4	I have a better understanding of people by being honest and reliable.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5	I am close to the community/ group for maintaining interpersonal relations.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6	I act as the spokesman of my Community/group.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

S. No	Statements	Almost Never	Always Rarely	Some-times	Freque-ntly	Almost Always
7	I do not mingle with the members of the community/ group	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8	I am affectionate & cordial with the members of my community/ group.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
9	I thrust my views & opinions on the members of the community/ group.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
10	I do not have a clear understanding of social issues.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
11	I promote the activity of understanding & influencing people.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
12	I develop & encourage warm relationship with the community/ group members.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
13	I try to set an exemplary behaviour or the community/ group through my actions.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
14	I encourage self-centered activities Of the members of the community/ group.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
15.	I impose my suggestions on the community/ group members.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
16	I motivate the people of my community/ group by becoming a role model for them.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
17	I am unaware of the needs of the Community/ group members.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
18	.I am prepared to make sacrifices for the common good of the community/ group	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
19	I do not share my values & attitudes with the community/ group.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
20	I am unsupportive towards the community/ group in its programmes.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

S. No	Statements	Almost Never	Always Rarely	Some-times	Freque-ntly	Almost Always
21	I am not rational in decision making process for the community/group.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
22	I am dedicated towards the betterment of the community/group.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
23	I feel I do not possess sufficient knowledge & skills to lead the community/group towards the path of progress & development	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
24	I am popular in my community / group as i am less selfish	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
25	I promote greater interpersonal sensitivity by being less conservative.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
26	I do not abide by the rules & regulations of the community/group.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
27	I give opportunity to others also to grow & develop.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
28	I persuade people to cooperate for the achievement of the common objective.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
29	I try to be a part of the community/group by identifying myself with them.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
30	I tend to escape from the obligation towards my community/ group.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
31	In grave provocations, I do lose my temper & confidence.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
32	I lack tremendous emotional control to face challenging situations calmly within my community/group.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
33	I make right use of my emotions for mobilizing people for a common cause.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
34	I am a conscientious citizen as I give priority to the problems of the community/ group.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

S. No	Statements	Almost Never	Always Rarely	Some-times	Freque-ntly	Almost Always
35	I keep my interests subservient to the interests of the community/group.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
36	I am conscious of the need to serve the community/group better without any personal greed.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
37	I determine all the policies in consultation with the community/group to promote effective citizenship.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
38	I add to the tension of the community/ group by being cold & uncooperative.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
39	I derecognize the rights of the community/ group members.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
40	I persuade others to make effective contribution for the welfare if the community/group.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

## USING MULTIMEDIA TO FACILITATE LEARNING CHEMISTRY CONTENT BY CLASS VIII STUDENTS

Vijay, P. Singh\*  
Ahrar Husain\*\*

### Abstract

The study was carried on a group of 71 students of class VIII. The purpose was to see how far the use of multimedia facilitates students in learning chemistry. Pre-test and post-test design was planned. The sample was split into the experimental group (N=37) and Control Group (N=34). Two Units/Chapters from Class VIII Science course were selected for making the intervention including Combustion and Flame (Class VIII), Metals and Non-Metals. The data collected through pre-test and post-test scores of both the groups were statistically analyzed. The findings indicated there was no significant difference in the achievement of both groups taught by lecture method and use of multimedia science content, respectively.

**Key Words:** Multimedia Science Content; Teaching-Learning of Science; Elementary Level

### Introduction

Recent developments of in the field of Educational Technology particularly use of Information Communication Technology and Multimedia. The children are very much fascinated by the new gadgets and their use. The advent of new technologies has revolutionalized every walk of life by adding new style of processes to get the products at a faster and effective pace. Education and its processes are also greatly influenced. Modern day education cannot be visualised without the use of these technologies. Teaching-learning at elementary level should primary be activity based. Use of multimedia has been one of the resources to create an interesting and attracting learning environment in the schools. A new culture school is being developed in the developing countries as also pointed out by Thoman and Jolls (2004) when they said that *"the convergence of media and technology in a global culture is changing the way we learn about the world and challenging the very foundations of education."*

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The effectiveness and contribution of the various types of media is dependent on various aspects such as; i) discussion between teacher and learner at the level of descriptions; ii) interaction between the learner and some special aspects of the world defined by the teacher; iii) adaptation of the world by teacher and action by learner; and iv) reflection on learner's performance by teacher and learner (Laurillard, 1993). Roschelle et al., (2000) have argued that "the structure and resources of traditional classrooms" are often inadequate and that "technology - when used effectively - can enable ways of teaching that are much better matched to how children learn."

The pedagogical intervention with the infusion of new technologies is in the focus of modern practices of education particularly school education. It has also been argued in literature that these should not be used in isolation to other methods and approaches. For example the National Curriculum Framework 2005 stated that as long as Educational Technology (ET) is used in isolation from the other components related to teaching learning, it will fail to convince a teacher about the significance of her role in engineering the teaching-learning situation and the importance of making it a more meaningful experience for both herself and her pupils. The NCF further pointed out that 'introducing the use of media and technology enabled methods of learning, making it inherent and embedded in the teaching-learning process of teachers' (NCF 2005: Position paper on Educational Technology- *Para 6.4.4*).

It has also been observed that multimedia and computer based technology help students in developing various skills of learning and construction of knowledge. Barnett et al., (2005, p. 351) reported that Computer-based modeling tools "create exciting opportunities for students to create, manipulate, and interact with their own constructions, which in turn support them in developing understandings through their first-hand experience."

The studies have also been reported about the effectiveness of multimedia in science teaching -learning. Elliot et al. (2014) found that "multimedia technology has transformed science learning ...radically different learning experiences ensued." Tony et al. (2013) in their study found that multimedia ...more effective than the traditional teaching approach, it was also more efficient in requiring far less teacher guidance. A similar study with students of other level of elementary level has already been reported by us (Singh and Husain, 2015) and this study is in continuation of our previous work by making interventions with a sample of Class VIII students.

#### **Objectives of the Study:**

The present study was based on the following objectives:

1. To study the effectiveness of Multimedia Science (Chemistry) content in enhancing achievement level of Elementary Level Class VIII (upper primary level) Students.
2. To compare the Achievement Level of students taught by using Multimedia

Science Content and Lecture Method of Teaching Science at Elementary Level.

**Hypotheses:** The following hypothesis was assumed for the study.

( $H_1$ ): There is no significant difference in the Achievement Levels of students taught science by the investigator using Multimedia Content and by Lecture Method.

### Methods and Procedure

#### Content:

For the intervention with Class VIII students, following chemistry content of Class VIII was chosen.

- Combustion and Flame:- Different Zones of flames viz. Zone of complete combustion, partial combustion and incomplete combustion and the process of combustion were explained with the help of demonstration activities using Candle Flame in group of sample population.
- Metals and Non-Metals:- The Physical properties of Metals such as Malleability, Ductility, Metallic Lustrous, Thermal and Electrical Conductivity etc. and those of Non-Metals such as Physical States, Brittleness, Non-conductor of heat and electricity etc. and Chemical behaviour of metals and non-metals were taught by organizing sessions with the use sessions with students.

#### Material:

For the intervention, Multimedia science content developed by Dove Multimedia Pvt. Ltd. Mumbai, Tirumala Softwares, Delhi and CAL unit of Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan Delhi, were procured and used for organizing the teaching-learning of the selected topics/units.

#### Sample:

The sample consisted of TWO intact groups of Class VIII Students from two different Government schools of Delhi. The control group (S8TLM) of 34 students and Experimental groups (S8TMC) of 37 students constituted the sample.

#### Tools:

The achievement tests were developed in consultation with the practicing science teachers. These tests were administered as *pre-tests* and *post-tests* to the sample consisting of intact groups (Sections) of students studying in class VIII of these schools.

- A) The pre-test containing 10 items on each of the following two units of class VII which are basically related to the chemistry content, was developed and administered.



1. *Acids, Bases and Salts (Class VII)*
2. *Physical and Chemical Changes (Class VII)*

B) Similarly Post-test containing 10 items from each of the following topics was developed;

1. *Combustion and Flame (Class VIII); and*
2. *Metals and Non-Metals (Class VIII).*

The marking of the responses of the subjects was done and the data pertaining to pre-test scores and post-test scores were subjected to further statistical analysis.

*Procedure:*

First of the pre-test was administered to two intact groups of the students followed by teaching sessions were organized with both the groups. The selected content was taught by the first author himself to control group by Lecture Method (S8TLM) and by using Multimedia Content with experimental group (S8TMC). The investigator briefed the experimental group about the content before screening the multimedia content in the class. All necessary arrangements were made to conduct the session un-interrupted. The experimental group was asked to view the content carefully and attentively and note down all important points, concepts and queries. A post screening discussion was held in the class to recapitulate the content presented and clear students' doubts if any. The achievement of post of both the groups assessed by administering post-test after completing the topics, as planned.

### Result and Discussion

The experimental group of Class VIII was also taught by using selected Multimedia Content for the topics as decided to be covered and indicated above. The comparative data (pre-test and post-test) of both the groups is presented in Table 1 and Table 2, below.

**Table1: Pre-test data of Control as well as Experimental Group2 of Class VIII students (S8TLM vs. S8TMC)**

Statistics	Control S8TLM (N= 34)	Group: Exp. Group:S8TMC (N = 37)
Mean	8.50	7.70
SD	1.69	1.37
SEM	0.29	0.23
Df	69	
T	2.19	
SED	0.36	
P value (two tailed)	0.032	

**P value and statistical significance:**

The two-tailed 'p' value equals 0.032 and by conventional criteria, this difference is considered not to be statistically significant. The mean of S8TLM minus S8TMC equals 0.80, which is not a substantial difference which indicates the parity of the groups before beginning the intervention.

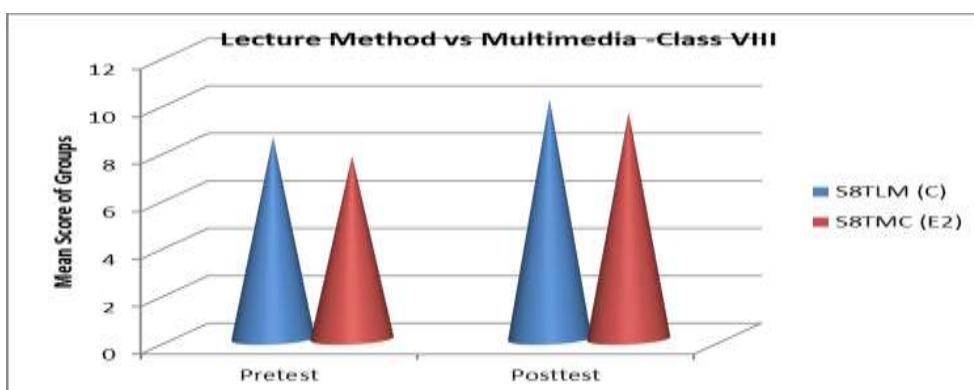
**Table 2: Post-test data of Control as well as Experimental Group2 of Class VIII students (S8TLM vs S8TMC)**

Statistics	Control Group:S8TLM (N= 34)	Exp. Group:S8TMC (N = 37)
Mean	10.09	9.54
SD	2.39	1.94
SEM	0.41	0.32
df	69	
t	1.06	
SED	0.52	
P value (two tailed)	0.291	

**P value and statistical significance:**

The two-tailed P value equals 0.291 and by conventional criteria, this difference is considered to be not statistically significant. The mean of S8TLM minus S8TMC equals 0.55, which is not a significant difference and thus it suggests that for class VIII students the teaching through Multimedia content (TMC) could not bring much change in their performance. However, on comparing the performance of the each group on pre-test and post test it is observed that the gain score of the experimental group ( $9.54-7.70= 1.84$ ) was more than the control group ( $10.09-8.50 = 1.59$ ). Thus the use of multimedia could produce a significant difference in the students' learning of Science (Chemistry) concepts.

The graphical presentation of the mean scores of pre-test and post-test of control and experimental groups is as under.



**Figure 1: Comparison of Mean score of Control and Experimental Group2- Class VIII (S8TLM vs S8TMC)**

The post-test results the performance of the control group is a bit better than the experimental group as indicated. However, 't' value as well as 'p' values of the post test score are non-significant.

On the basis of the above analysis the Hypotheses 8, (H 8.: There is no significant difference in the Achievement level of elementary level students Taught by the investigator through Multimedia Science content and Lecture method of teaching) is approved

### Conclusion

The paper made an attempt to compare the Lecture Method of teaching without any support material mainly 'Chalk and Talk' approach and the teaching with use of Multimedia Content. The achievement levels learning of two comparable groups of elementary level students were assessed through pretest and posttest. The findings of this study are paradoxical as it indicated that the intervention with the use of multimedia science content could not show significant improvement the achievement levels of students. On the basis of the study it could be corroborated that use of multimedia alone at elementary level particularly in learning of science is not so effective. However, it could give better results if used in combination with other methods. Some of the researches have also suggested that 'these tools can be effective additions to regular instruction and can help students visualise unseen phenomena ... development of scientific thinking (CITED page id=148).

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## **INTEGRATING INFORMATION AND COMMUNICATION TECHNOLOGY IN EDUCATION: REMOVING HURDLES TO MOVE FORWARD**

*V.S. Sumi\**

### **Abstract**

Information and Communication Technology (ICT) may be understood as the set of technological tools and resources used to communicate and to create, publicize, store and manage information. ICT has revolutionized each and every aspects of our life. It has also opened new avenues in teaching and learning process. The ICT has brought more rich material in the classrooms and libraries for the teachers as well as to the students in so many ways like - Online learning, e -learning, virtual university, e - coaching, e - education, e - journal, etc. With the help of ICT, the teacher and students are in a position to utilize their potentialities at its optimum level which leads to broaden their mental horizon. It has provided an opportunity to the students to use their senses maximum and to interact with their teachers in an open atmosphere for the required information. In the same way, ICT makes it possible for the teachers to use variety of techniques in their teaching to make the content more easy and interesting.

Each and every motivated teacher is trying to use the ICT resources in their classroom teaching-learning process to enhance the quality of his / her teaching by using ICT resources. It is a well known fact that unless and until the teachers have developed the interest towards the use of ICT, they could not be able to develop their teaching competency effectively in this age of science and technology. Therefore, it is high time to develop the competency of teachers with the help of ICT in the teaching-learning process to get satisfactory results. This paper explores the methods and techniques of using the ICT effectively to enhance the teaching competency of a teacher with a purpose to make their teaching more effective and interesting.

**Keywords:** Information and Communication Technology, pedagogy, curriculum,

### **Introduction**

The fact that knowledge is becoming a central economic driving force, with the shift from the concept of information society to that of knowledge societies, leads us to re-consider the impact of the educational process, the role of teachers and the nature of

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their training. As knowledge is becoming more than ever a tool for power as well as an object of trade, the notion of higher education as public service tends to get weaker. Information and communication technologies (ICTs)—which include radio and television, as well as newer digital technologies like computers and the Internet. These are advertised as potentially powerful enabling tools for educational change. When used appropriately, different ICTs helps to expand access to education, strengthen the relevance of education in digital workplace, and lift up educational quality. This is made possible by helping other to make teaching and learning into an engaging, active process connected to real life. The skill of introducing different ICTs in the classroom and other educational settings all over the world over the past several decades suggests that the full realization of the potential benefits of ICTs is not usual. The effective integration of ICTs into the educational system is a complex, versatile process that involves not only technology but it also includes curriculum and pedagogy, institutional readiness, teacher competencies, and long-term financing, among others. If given enough initial capital, getting the technology is the easiest part.

### **ICT-Meaning**

ICTs stand for information and communication technologies and are defined (Medha, 2015) as a “diverse set of technological tools and resources used to communicate, and to create, disseminate, store, and manage information.” These technologies include computers, the Internet, broadcasting technologies and telephony. In recent years mobile technology has been widely popular among the students as well as teachers. To improve the efficiency and effectiveness of education at all levels and in both formal and non-formal settings, we have to move along with all these technological support. But ICTs are more than just these technologies have a longer and richer history as instructional tools which can be used to enrich teaching-learning.

### **Importance of ICT**

Information and communication technologies are increasingly utilized by higher education institutions globally. ICT become a part of formal and informal mode of education. ICTs in higher education are mainly used for preparing course material, delivering and sharing content, communication between learners and teachers, delivery of presentations and lectures, academic research, administrative support and student enrolment. ICTs can provide greater access for different target learners and have become medium for enriched pedagogical experiences, particularly for distance educators and learners separated by time and space. Appropriate implementation of new or revised policies will likely to require the involvement of outside ministries and national educational boards and agencies.

### **Challenge which Cause ICT Growth**

- An ever increasing demand for higher education
- Growing population of students

- Diversification of learner population
- Growing need for lifelong learning
- Need for quality assurances
- Shrinking of public funding
- ICT is a major tool for reaching out towards new target groups engaged in lifelong learning processes.
- Problems of ICT implementation

### **Why ICT in Teacher Education Field**

The emerging growth of ICT clearly figures out the fact that the conventional system alone cannot meet the challenges that exists in educational field. The knowledge society has moved far beyond to develop its own economy and industry, so ICT plays an important role. It is seen that young people have trying to master all these new and different techniques very fast but not all teachers.

The rapidly changing roles in virtual learning environment, teachers are more like of a mediator's role and students gained greater control over their own learning. For the development of the country we had an urgent need for highly qualified talent or to retrain the huge workforce. It is also wanted to ensure that the elderly could access lifelong learning programmes.

### **Implementation of ICT**

Implementation of ICT in higher learning environment is a complex task. To facilitate the change processes better the first step is to actually understand what problems and challenges in implementation of ICT leads to and how it affects practice. Implementation of ICT consists of three interrelated process, selection of ICT, and adaptation of ICT and change of practice with ICT.

#### **1) Selection of ICT**

Teachers primarily refer to the pedagogical and academic demands and resources available.

Factors which influences selection of ICT:

- Learning environment
- Supporting students to construct knowledge
- Academic content
- Higher productivity of resources
- Support from organization
- Feasibility of the instrument system



## 2) **Adaptation of ICT**

Adaptation of ICT depends on the technology and the reason for using it. It may seem strange that a technology can be a mediating artifact in a transformation process aiming at adaptation of the technology itself.

It is seen that with a fixed amount for each course each year and little for allocating extra resources to innovation, teachers may be less inclined to implement new technology even though they are expected to do so. The pedagogical and academic tradition is important to the teachers in the adaptation process because they seek a change towards a new practice based in tradition.

## 3) **Change of practice**

Change of teaching practice was the overall goal guiding the teachers through the initial selection of technology. It is a greater challenge to introduce new ways of learning. Students are important because the teacher is teaching and thus in direct interaction with the students. Teachers are significant because they also take part in defining the academic and pedagogical tradition that is part of the context in which the individual teacher shapes his or her own course.

### **Problems of ICT Implementation**

Within universities themselves, the implementation of ICT is not an easy task for faculty and staff members, decision makers and academics. Most of them are sometimes reluctant to pedagogic approaches. Teaching staff and instructors lack incentive and rewards, lack of feedback towards higher levels of decision and general policy (Collis, 2001).

It is the lack of poor infrastructure and lack of ICT skills which keep the educational system very stunted in its growth. There is a gap between the sophistication of the technology available and the knowledge of staff and students.

### **Role of teacher**

Instead a continuous exposure of contradictions emerging in the implementation process may be used to motivate and drive the learning process forward. An understanding of learning that links learning, new activity forms and change in the subject of an activity.

The teachers all express a common motive for introducing a new teaching and learning practice with ICT. They all want to improve quality one way or another. Prior to introducing a new practice and improving quality, certain conditions have to be complied with.

Teachers also learn to master the technology sufficiently to use it in their courses. In all cases the learning process has reached into teaching process but started as part of the course preparation. Depending on previous knowledge and the choice of ICT the teachers have spent different amounts of time on the process.

## Conclusion

Information and Communication Technology allow users to participate in a rapidly changing world. Now each and every work is increasingly transformed by access to varied and developing technologies. Technological tools can be used to find, explore, analyze, exchange information responsibly and without any kind of discrimination. ICT can be employed to give users quick access to ideas and experiences from a wide range of people, communities and cultures.

Vital determinants of competitiveness are the skills of the workforce at all levels. The effective use of the technologies requires skills and the move from simple to complex technologies requires more, better and more diverse skills. The need for increased skills rises with the level of developments but even the least developed countries have to improve their human capital base if they are to grow and prosper.

The education and training system has to upgrade skills constantly in line with emerging needs. Skilled and experienced individuals can provide an economy with greater technological capabilities and use of information technology for job seeking is expected to bring about a change in the socio-economic structure of the society.

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## **OCCUPATIONAL STRESS OF WOMEN EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATORS WORKING AT ELEMENTARY LEVEL IN RELATION TO LENGTH OF SERVICE**

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### **Abstract**

The present study was aimed to investigate the occupational stress of women educational administrators in relation to length of service. The sample of the study comprises of 300 women educational administrators working at elementary school level of district Anantnag and district Srinagar (150 from each district). The data was collected by using Occupational Stress Index of A. K. Srivastava and A. P. Singh. The statistical techniques viz. mean, S.D and test of significance were used to interpret the collected data. The findings of the study show significant mean difference between the two groups of women educational administrators.

**Key Words:** Occupational Stress, Women Administrators, Length of Service, Elementary Schools

### **Introduction**

Occupational stress is a universal problem faced by an increasing number of people in the workplace. It is a term used to define ongoing stress that is related to the work place. The stress may have to do with the responsibilities associated with the work itself, or be caused by conditions that are based in the corporate culture or personality conflicts. As with other forms of tension, occupational stress can eventually affect both physical and emotional well-being if not managed effectively. Occupational stress is a physical or psychological disorder associated with an occupational environment and manifested in symptoms such as extreme anxiety, or tension, or cramps, headaches, or digestive problems. Stress that happens due to a person's employment is termed occupational stress. Occupational stress is defined as the harmful emotional (that is anxiety and depression), physical (that is insomnia, headaches, and infections), and behavioral responses (that is job dissatisfaction, low

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commitment and poor work performance) that occurs when work necessities do not match the capabilities, possessions and needs of the worker.

Despite the existence of many articles that report on research into the workplace stress experienced by teachers, few deal with the stress experience of school administrators. Given that administrators have been challenged with major structural change with the introduction of school-based management, this is a subject area that requires further investigation. Evidence from the available literature confirms that the roles and responsibilities of administrators do change under a school-based management context (Bullock and Thomas, 1994; Beck and Murphy, 1998). Leadership demands are now qualitatively different from what they have been (Townsend, 1999; Cranston, 2000; Cheng and Chan, 2000). Administrators spend more time engaged in dealing with their expanding managerial and accountability responsibilities and spend less time on educational and curriculum leadership. In England, the introduction of school-based management has been associated with a considerable cost in principals' time and effort. Campbell and Neill (1994) reported that primary principals and teachers working 54-60 hour per week experiencing significant emotional distress. The competing demands now placed on administrators need to be acknowledged and formal mechanisms put into place that will assistance them to meet the challenges presented by rapid changes in their profession.

Occupational stress that is experienced at work is (often) negative in nature and thus it is very vital for employees to know what makes them feel stressed and how they can mitigate the negative outcomes of the work stress. Stress at work is caused by a number of factors identified by many researchers such as role conflict (Alexandros, *et al.*, 2003), insecurity of job (Jordan et al, 2002), role ambiguity (Yousef, 2002, Beehr, *et al.*, 1987), pressure of time (Salas and Klein, 2001), performance pressure (Cahn *et al.*, 2000) interpersonal conflicts (Narayanan, 1999), work overload (Wilkes *et al.*, 1998, Sullivan and Bhagat, 1992). Khoury and Analoui (2010) found that the determinants of work stress were little or no support from management, lack of appreciation and benefits, limited participation in decision making, work overloads and employers being not very kindhearted in guiding how to cope with stress. Salleh, *et al.* (2008) while conducting research on work stress in furniture industry found five key antecedents to job related stress i.e. support, adaptability, job security, conflict and integrity and concluded that these predictors have the potential of affecting job stress. Integrity was found having inverse relationship and highest correlation with job stress. Among the many factors causing stress; work overload, lack of resources and lack of co-ordination and comfort with the immediate supervisor and with colleagues causes more of the work stress as compared to the other sources (Kazmi *et al.*, 2008).

### **Need and Importance of the Study**

The study of occupational stress among women educational administrators is of utmost importance. One's abilities are reflected through the performance and that

performance is directly related to the mental state and physique. The school is a place where future nation is shaped. A school under stress is an expansive organization to run, both in cost to teacher's well-being and in financial terms. Research has shown that administrators stress is reliably associated with number of variables, including those intrinsic to the job, individual cognitive weakness and systematic factors (Chambers, et al, 2001; Dembroski and Costa, 1987). Occupational stress among educational administrators can lead to a variety of negative outcomes including emotional exhaustion, feeling of depersonalization and a sense of failure with one's personal accomplishment. Occupational stress directly influences the personality of an individual. A stressful individual shows such type of behaviour which is socially and psychologically unacceptable. A general tendency exists in the literature according to which females experience higher levels of occupational stress (Feather and Volkmer, 1991).

Various research studies have been conducted by investigators in the field occupational stress. Various attempts have been made to identify factors that predispose people to stress. Many of such attempts have established a link between the incidence of stress and the personality of individuals. For instance, Akinboye and Adeyemo (2002) found that some people are generally more stress prone while others are generally less stress prone depending on their personality traits. In the same vein, Rioli and Savicki (2003), Readeke and Smith (2004) and Van-Dierendonck (2005) reported that personality characteristics of employees have the tendency to moderate the effect of stressful situations on employees such that certain traits may buffer or enhance more negative outcomes than others. The findings are consistent with those of Kokkinos (2007) who reported that personality characteristics were associated with stress or burnout dimensions, thus providing support for the transactional model of psychological distress in which in order to better understand its process, both environmental and personality variables should be considered.

Arroba and James (2002) reported that the relationship between gender and stress is complex and varied and that women are more affected by stress than men. Melhinsh (1998) and Philips and Segal (1996) concluded that since most women work longer hours than men and both do not share duties equally at home, women tend to experience more psychological symptoms of occupational stress than men. While scanning the literature, the investigator found that entire field is unexplored and after making a depth study of different surveys, journals and other research inputs, investigator found that no systematic study has been conducted that can throw light on occupational stress of women educational administrators in relation to length of service. Thus, in the light of above research gap the investigator justifies, conducting and pursuing serious research study in this direction.

### **Statement of the Problem**

Occupational Stress of Women Educational Administrators Working at Elementary Level in Relation to Length of Service

### **Objectives of the Study**

The following objectives have been formulated for the present investigation:

1. To study the occupational stress of women educational administrators working at elementary school level.
2. To compare the occupational stress of women educational administrators on the basis of length of service.

### **Hypotheses**

The following hypotheses have been formulated for the present investigation:

Junior women educational administrators differ significantly from senior women educational administrators on occupational stress.

### **Operational Definitions of Terms and Variables**

#### **Occupational Stress**

Occupational stress in the present study has been considered as the dominant set of scores measured by Occupational Stress Index (1984) developed by A. K. Srivastava and A.P. Singh.

#### **Length of Service**

Length of service in the present investigation shall refer the period of service rendered by the individual educational administrator in the organization from the date of entering the job. It is pertinent to mention here that length of service has been classified as:

- (i) **Junior Women Educational Administrators:** Women administrators having the administrative experience of six years.
- (ii) **Senior Women Educational Administrators:** Women administrators having the administrative experience of more than six years.

### **Sample**

The present study was conducted on a sample of 300 women educational administrators (150 each from Srinagar and Anantnag districts) drawn randomly from various government elementary schools.

### **Tools**

The following tool has been used to collect the data:

Occupational Stress Index (OSI) of A. K. Srivastava and A. P. Singh. This scale assesses twelve (12) areas of occupational stress. These areas are: I) Role Overload, II) Role Ambiguity, III) Role Conflict, IV) Unreasonable Group and Political Pressures, V) Responsibility for Persons, VI) Under Participation, VII) Powerlessness, VIII) Poor Peer Relations, IX) Intrinsic Impoverishment, X) Low Status, XI) Strenuous Working Conditions and XII) Unprofitability.

### Statistical Treatment

The data was subjected to statistical analysis by computing Mean, S. D and Test of Significance.

**Table 1.0: Showing the Significance of difference between the Mean scores of Junior and Senior Women Educational Administrators on each of 12 Dimensions of Occupational Stress Index (N=150, each group).**

*Group	**SS	***Dimensions					
		RO	RA	RC	UGPP	RP	UP
JWEA	$\bar{X}$	21.28	10.91	17.02	12.53	9.63	11.47
	SD	3.63	2.53	2.84	2.26	2.05	3.01
SWEA	$\bar{X}$	18.15	8.63	14.05	11.05	10.03	10.51
	SD	3.49	1.66	2.65	2.45	2.33	3.08
	't'- Value	7.63	9.12	9.28	5.48	1.6	2.74
	Remarks	0.01 level	0.01 level	0.01 level	0.01 level	Insignifi cant	0.01 level
*Group	**SS	***Dimensions					
		PL	PPR	II	LS	SWC	U
JWEA	$\bar{X}$	9.3	11.24	11.05	7.73	10.4	6.11
	SD	2.37	2.03	2.10	2.14	1.99	1.58
SWEA	$\bar{X}$	8.33	10.89	9.45	6.26	8.49	6.47
	SD	2.10	2.13	2.09	1.86	1.90	1.72
	't'- Value	3.73	1.46	6.67	6.39	8.68	1.89
	Remarks	0.01 level	Insignifi cant	0.01 level	0.01 level	0.01 level	Insignifi cant

#### Acronyms:

\*Group: JWEA: Junior Women Educational Administrators

SWEA: Senior Women Educational Administrators

\*\*SS: Statistical Sign

\*\*\*Dimensions: 1. RO: Role Overload, 2. RA: Role Ambiguity, 3. RC: Role Conflict, 4. UGPP: Unreasonable Group and Political Pressures, 5. RP: Responsibility for Persons, 6. UP: Under Participation, 7. PL: Powerlessness, 8. PPR: Poor Peer Relations, 9. II: Intrinsic Impoverishment, 10. LS: Low Status, 11. SWC: Strenuous Working Conditions and 12. U: Unprofitability.



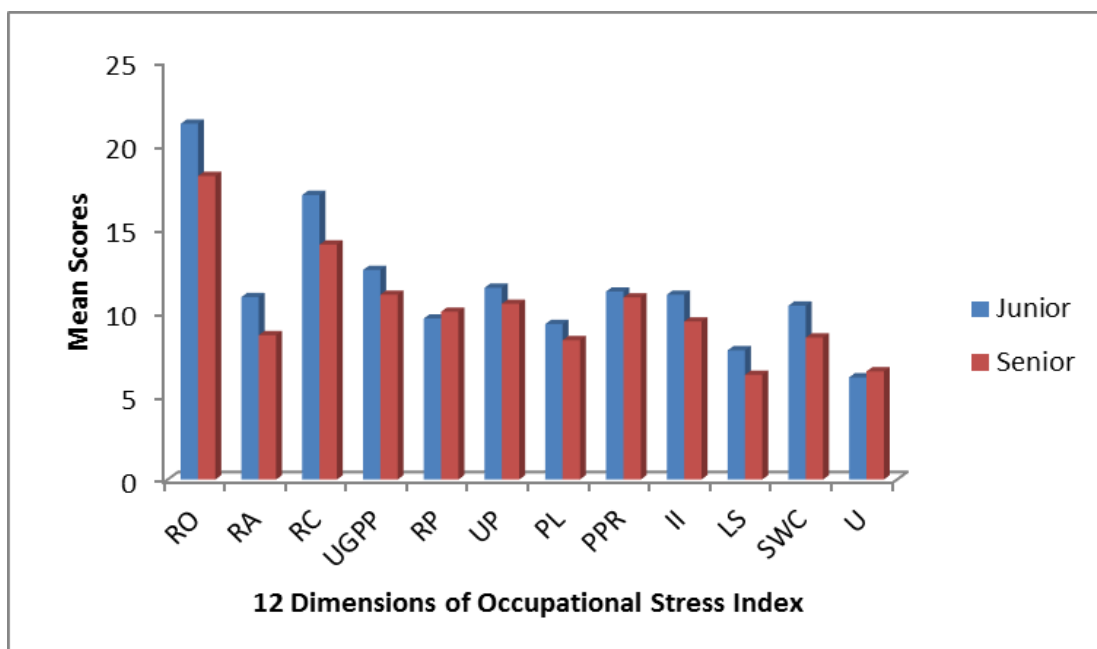


Fig. 1.0: Showing the Mean difference of Junior and Senior Women Educational Administrators on each of 12 Dimensions Occupational Stress Index.

#### Analysis and Interpretation of Data

The data have been analyzed and interpreted in the following way:

A perusal of table 1.0 shows the significance of difference between the mean scores of junior and senior women educational administrators on twelve (12) dimensions of occupational stress index. The detailed discussion is given below:

On 'Role Overload' dimension of occupational stress index the mean score in case of junior women educational is reported to be higher ( $M = 21.28$ ) than the mean score of senior women educational administrators ( $M = 18.15$ ). The calculated 't'-value came out to be 7.63 which is significant at 0.01 level ( $P > 0.01$ ). From these results it can be said that junior women educational administrators experience high work load as compared to senior women educational administrators due to staff insufficiency, lack of time and personal problems. The results further reveal that junior women educational administrators tend to dispose of their assigned work without consuming much amount of time.

On 'Role Ambiguity' dimension of occupational stress index the results reveal that junior women educational administrators obtained higher mean score ( $M = 10.91$ ) than senior women educational administrators ( $M = 8.63$ ). The obtained 't'-value came out to be 9.12 which is significant at 0.01 level ( $P > 0.01$ ). The results further reveal that

junior women educational administrators are seen to be characterized by vague and insufficient information related to job role. Vague and poor planning of job and limited expectations by colleagues of the organization are also reported between the two groups of teachers.

On 'Role Conflict' dimension of occupational stress index it has been reported that junior women educational administrators obtained a higher mean value ( $M=17.02$ ) as compared to senior women educational administrators who are reported to have low mean score ( $M=14.05$ ). The calculated 't'- value came out to be 9.28 which is significant at 0.01 level ( $P>0.01$ ). On the basis of these results it can be said that junior women educational administrators experience difficulty in implementing new procedures and policies. The results further reveal that they have contradiction between office instructions and formal working procedures.

On 'Unreasonable Group and Political Pressures' dimension of occupational stress index it has been found that junior women educational administrators have obtained a higher mean score ( $M = 12.53$ ) in comparison to senior women educational administrators ( $M = 11.05$ ). The obtained 't'- value came out to be 5.48, which is significant at 0.01 level ( $P>0.01$ ). On the basis of these results it can be said that junior women educational administrators find much difficulty to adjust themselves with the political and group pressures and formal rules and instructions than senior women educational administrators.

On 'Responsibility for Persons' dimension of occupational stress index the mean score of senior women educational administrators is reported to be 10.03 whereas the mean score of junior women educational administrators is reported to be 9.63. The obtained 't'- value came out to be 1.6 which is statistically insignificant. The results further reveal that both junior and senior women educational administrators show similarity on aspects like thrust of responsibility of other persons, the responsibility of employee's future, and responsibility for the progress of organization.

On 'Under Participation' dimension of occupational stress index the results reveal that junior women educational administrators are reported to have obtained a higher mean score ( $M = 11.47$ ) as compared to senior women educational administrators ( $M = 10.51$ ). The obtained 't'- value came out to be 2.74 which is significant at 0.01 level ( $P>0.01$ ). On the basis of these results it can be inferred that junior women educational administrators seem to have low power in the organization and do not accept the suggestions made by others. The results further reveal that they do not participate actively in framing the new policies and programmes of the organization.

On 'Powerlessness' dimension of occupational stress index it is observed that junior women educational administrators have obtained a higher mean score ( $M = 9.3$ )

as compared to senior women educational administrators ( $M = 8.33$ ). The calculated 't'-value has been found significant at 0.01 level ( $t = 3.73, P > 0.01$ ). On the basis of these results it can be said that junior women educational administrators lack coordination, interest and opinion in making appointments for important posts than senior women educational administrators.

On 'Poor Peer Relations' dimension of occupational stress index the mean score in case of junior women educational administrators is reported to be 11.24 as compared to mean score of senior women educational administrators 10.89. The calculated 't'-value came out to be 1.46 which failed to arrive at any level of significance. From these results it can be inferred that both groups of women administrators i.e. junior and senior have similar characteristics to establish interpersonal relationships with their colleagues and other staff members within the organization.

On 'Intrinsic Impoverishment' dimension of occupational stress index the mean score in case of junior women educational administrators is reported to be ( $M = 11.05$ ) whereas the mean score in case of senior women educational administrators is reported to be ( $M = 9.45$ ) The obtained 't'-value came out to be 6.67 which is significant at 0.01 level ( $P > 0.01$ ). From these results it can be inferred that junior women educational administrators tend to have monotonous nature of assignments, opportunity to utilize abilities and experiences independently. They have the capacity to develop aptitude and proficiency and place of suggestion in problem solving.

On 'Low Status' dimension of occupational stress index it has been observed that junior women educational administrators have obtained higher mean score ( $M = 7.73$ ) as compared to the senior women educational administrators ( $M = 6.26$ ). The calculated 't'-value has been found to be 6.39 which is significant at 0.01 level of significance ( $P > 0.01$ ). On the basis of these results it can be said that junior women educational administrators seem to get low respect from the employees of the organization and higher authorities do not give due significance to their post and work.

On 'Strenuous Working Conditions' dimension of occupational stress index the obtained mean score of junior women educational administrators is reported to be higher ( $M = 10.4$ ) than the mean score of senior women educational administrators ( $M = 8.49$ ). The obtained 't'-value came out to be 8.68 which is significant at 0.01 level of significance ( $P > 0.01$ ). From these results it can be said that junior women educational administrators work under tense and risky circumstances than senior women educational administrators.

On 'Unprofitability' dimension of occupational stress index no significant difference was observed between the mean score of junior and senior women educational administrators. The mean score of junior women educational administrators is reported to be below ( $M = 6.11$ ) whereas as the mean score of senior

women educational administrators is found to be slightly higher ( $M = 6.47$ ). The obtained 't'- value came out to be 1.89 which is statistically insignificant. On the basis of these results it can be inferred that both groups of women educational administrators have similar characteristics on low salary, absence of rewards, and lack of motivation.

### **Conclusion**

On the basis of analysis and interpretation following major conclusions have been drawn:

1. Junior women educational administrators differ significantly from senior women educational administrators on nine (09) dimensions of occupational stress index. These dimensions are: dimension I) Role Overload; II) Role Ambiguity; III) Role Conflict; IV) Unreasonable Group and Political Pressures V) Under Participation; VI) Powerlessness; VII) Intrinsic Impoverishment; VIII) Low Status and IX) Strenuous Working Conditions.
2. The study concludes that the two groups of women educational administrators are similar on three (03) dimensions of occupational stress index viz. dimension I) Responsibility for Person; II) Poor Peer Relations; and III) Unprofitability.
3. The comparison further revealed that junior women educational administrators experience high amount of work load and are characterized by vague and insufficient information related to job role. They also experience difficulty in implementing new procedures and policies, and to adjust with the political and group pressures and formal rules and instructions.
4. Junior women educational administrators experience poor interpersonal relations with other persons. They do not have tendency to express their opinion, instruction and decision regarding the training programmes of the employees. They do not utilize abilities and experiences independently.

### **Educational Implications**

The findings of this study may be helpful in devising programmes of improvement in school administration in the following ways:

1. Better stress coping mechanism should be used by the school administrators, like exercises, proper diet, peer and social support and optimism at the place of work.

2. The handbook should be developed for women educational administrators. This will be useful for them in their smooth functioning and to be effective instructional administrators.
3. There is a need for an Employment Assistance Programme (EPA) to counsel women administrators in the administration of their work related stress.
4. District administration must make every effort to provide adequate monitoring programmes for both male and female educational administrators.

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## **THERAPEUTIC EFFECTS OF YOGA TO INCREASE QUALITY OF HUMAN LIFE**

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### **Abstract**

As we aware that yoga is going to be popular in the present world social scenario. In this study is to assess the finding of the selected articles and research papers in respect of therapeutic effect of yoga and to provide a comprehensive review of the significance of regular practice of yogic activities. As participation rates in body and mind fitness programmes such as yoga continue to increase, it is essential part for health care professional to be informed about the nature of yoga and the evidence of its many therapeutic effects of yoga. Manuscript in this regard provides information regard the therapeutic impact of yoga as it has been explored by the researcher on the various population concerning a multitude of different ailments. Therapeutic yoga is defined as application of yoga postures and practice to the treatment of the health conditions and involve instruction in yogic practices and teaching to prevent reduce or alleviate structural, physiological, emotional and spiritual pain, suffering or limitations. The finding of the study indicates that yogic practices increase the muscular strength and moveable joint flexibility, promote and improve respiratory and cardiovascular function, promote recovery and treatment of addiction, reduce anxiety, tension, stress, depression, chronic pain, improve sleep pattern and enhance over all well-being and good quality of life. All the researches and articles perused by the investigator indicate that cure of human physical and physiological diseases can be removed by the regular practice of yogic activities as well as prevention of the diseases must be mentioned if the individual is doing practice of the yogic practices.

**Keywords:** Stress, depression, Therapeutic yogic exercises, quality of life, chronic pain

### **Introduction**

There are various type of yoga such as Astang Yoga, Hath Yoga, Grehand Yoga, Raj Yoga, Kundalni Yoga, Gyan Yoga, Bhakti Yoga, Tantar Yoga, Mantar Yoga and Karm Yoga etc. But aim of all yoga are the same for all rounder development of the

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human. Yoga origin is from Indian culture. The ancient tradition of yoga is now regarded in the western world as a holistic approach to maintained good health and it is classified by the National Institute of Health as a form of complementary and alternative medicine (CAM). The word "yoga" comes from a Sanskrit root "yuj" which means union, or yoke, to join, and to direct and concentrate one's attention.(2-3) Regular practice of yoga promotes strength, endurance, flexibility and facilities characteristics of friendliness, compassion and greater self-control, while cultivating a sense of calmness and well-being. (4-5) Sustained practice also leads to important outcomes such as changes in life perspective, self- awareness and an improved sense of energy to live life fully and with genuine enjoyment. (6-8) The practice of yoga produces a physiological state opposite to that of the flight-or -fight stress response and with that interruption in the stress response, a sense of balance and union between the body and mind can be achieved .(9) Yoga is an systematic process to create fitness in body and mind that involves a combination of muscular activity and an internally directed mindful focus on awareness of the self, the breath, and energy. (4) Four basic principles underlie the teachings and practices of yoga's healing system. (6) The first principle is the human body is a holistic entity comprised of various interrelated dimensions inseparable from one another and the health or illness of any one dimension affects the other dimensions. The second principle is individuals and their needs are unique and therefore, must be approached in a way that acknowledge this individuality and their practice must be tailored accordingly. The third principal is yoga is self-empowering: the student in his or her own healer. The person can prevent himself and cure the various type of disorders concerned to the human. Most of the diseases of the human can easily be cured through the long and regular practice of yogic activities. The fourth principle is that the quality and state of an individual mind is crucial to healing. When the individual has a positive mind-state healing happens more quickly, whereas if the mind-state is negative, healing may be prolonged.

After going through all Vedas and Upanishadas, the Maharishi Pantanjali wrote a granth namely Astang yoga which is complete its self for the harmonious development of the humanity. Yoga Sutras which is widely acknowledge as the authoritative test on yoga. (2-6) Today, many people identify yoga only with asana, the physical practice of yoga, but asana is just one of the many tools used for healing the individual; only three of the 196 sutras mention asana and the remainder of the text discusses the other components of yoga including conscious breathing, meditation, lifestyle and diet changes, visualization and the use of sound, among many others.(6) In Yoga Sutras, Panjanjali outlines an eightfold path to awareness and enlightenment called astanga, which literally means "eight limbs".(2-10)

The eight limbs are comprised of ethical principles for living a meaningful and purposeful life; and also teaches the moral and ethical conduct and self-discipline, they direct attention towards one's health while acknowledging the spiritual aspects of

one's nature. Any of the eight limbs may be used separately, but within yoga philosophy the physical postures and breathing exercises prepare the mind and body for meditation and spiritual development.

Based on Patanjali's eight limbs, many different yogic disciplines have been developed. Each has its own technique for preventing and treating disease. In the Western world, the most common aspects of yoga practiced are the physical postures and breathing practices of Hatha yoga and meditation. Hatha yoga enhances the capacity of the physical body through the use of a series of body postures, movements (asanas), and breathing techniques (pranayama). The breathing techniques of Hatha yoga focus on conscious prolongation of inhalation, breath retention, and exhalation. It is through the unification of the physical body, breath, and concentration, while performing the postures and movements that blockages in the energy channels of the body are cleared and the body energy system becomes more balanced. Although numerous styles of Hatha yoga exist, the majority of studies included in this manuscript utilized the Iyengar style of yoga. The Iyengar method of Hatha yoga is based on the teachings of the yoga master B.K.S. Iyengar. Iyengar yoga places an emphasis on standing poses to develop strength, stability, stamina, concentration and body alignment. Props are utilized to facilitate learning and to adjust poses and instruction is given on how to use yoga to ease various ailments and stressors.

Yoga has been recognized as a form of body and mind medicine that integrates an individual's physical, mental and spiritual components to improve aspects of health, particularly stress related illnesses. Evidence shows that stress contributes to the etiology of heart disease, cancer, and stroke as well as other chronic conditions and diseases. Due to the fact that stress is implicated in numerous diseases, it is a priority to include a focus on stress management and reduction of negative emotional states in order to reduce the burden of disease. The scientific study of yoga has increased substantially in recent years and many clinical trials have been designed to assess its therapeutic effects and benefits. It is important for health care professionals to be informed about the nature of yoga and the evidence of its many therapeutic effects. Thus, this review of the literature is timely and important and provides information regarding the therapeutic effects of yoga in various populations concerning a multitude of different ailments and conditions. Therapeutic yoga is defined as the application of yoga postures and practice for the treatment of health conditions. Yoga therapy involves instruction in yogic practices and teachings to prevent reduce or alleviate structural, physiological, emotional and spiritual pain, suffering or limitations. Yogic practices enhance muscular strength and body flexibility, promote and improve respiratory and cardiovascular function, promote recovery from and treatment of addiction, reduce stress, anxiety, depression, and chronic pain, improve sleep patterns, and enhance overall well-being and quality of life.

## Methodology

It is pertinent to mention here that how the investigator examined the effect of yoga on human body and mind. In order to locate research studies and interventions that examined the therapeutic effects of yoga, databases were searched through Google Scholar via a universities web browser. Initially, the following key words were entered into the database via the advanced search option: "yoga," and "therapeutic effects." This search was conducted to obtain general information regarding yoga's therapeutic effects in the existing literature. Subsequently, a second search was conducted using the following key words or exact phrases, "hatha yoga," "therapeutic effects of yoga," "stress," "anxiety," "depression," "pain," and "chronic disease." The following criteria were used for including studies in this review: (1) the article had to be peer reviewed, (2) published between the years 1990 and 2009, (3) the intervention had to incorporate some form of yoga and/ or meditation, and (4) effects of yoga on some outcome were measured. In order to select the articles included in this manuscript, several steps were taken. First, the title was read. If the article appeared appropriate to the examination of the therapeutic effects of yoga, it was saved to a folder. The articles describing interventions that utilized yoga as a means to achieve some health outcome were chosen for further review. Each of the articles chosen were then thoroughly read and reviewed. The selected research papers and articles include a broad spectrum of the benefits, its application, and therapeutic effects of yoga all the research paper of the scientific approach were included to peruse in the study.

## Findings

Psychological problems such as depression, anxiety, stress, and insomnia are among the most common reasons for individuals to seek treatment with complementary therapies such as yoga. Yoga encourages one to relax, slow the breath and focus on the present, shifting the balance from the sympathetic nervous system and the flight-or-fight response to the parasympathetic system and the relaxation response. The latter is calming and restorative; it lowers breathing and heart rate, decreases blood pressure, lowers cortisol levels, and increases blood flow to the intestines and vital organs.

The main aims of yoga is to achieve peacefulness of the mind and create a sense of well-being, relaxation of body and mind, improved self-confidence, improved physical mental efficiency, increased attention of mind, reduced irritation, and an optimistic outlook on life. The practice of yoga creates energy in body and mind which is vital to the function of the immune system. Yoga leads to an inhibition of the posterior or sympathetic area of the hypothalamus. This inhibition optimizes the body's sympathetic responses to stressful stimuli and restores autonomic regulatory reflex mechanisms associated with stress. Yogic practices forbids the areas responsible for fear, aggressiveness and rage, and stimulate the rewarding pleasure centers in the median forebrain and other areas leading to a state of bliss and pleasure. This

inhibition results in lower anxiety, heart rate, respiratory rate, blood pressure, and cardiac output in students practicing yoga and meditation.

Regular practice of yoga improves the stress and depression and can lead to significant increases in serotonin levels coupled with decreases in the levels of monamine oxidase, an enzyme that breaks down neurotransmitters and cortisol. Commonly patients turn to complementary therapies due to the adverse effects of medication, lack of response or simply preference for the complementary approach. A number of studies predict the potential beneficial effects of yoga interventions on tension, anxiety, stress and depression to increase the concentration of mind.

Flexibility improved by the cultural asanas is one of the first and most obvious benefits of yoga. Regular practice of asanas creates a gradual loosening of the muscles and connective tissues surrounding the bones and joints; this is thought to be one reason that yoga is associated with reduced aches and pains in the moveable joints. Yoga helps to build muscle mass and maintain muscle strength, which prevents from such as arthritis, osteoporosis and back pain. When you practice of cultural asanas you will feel that the joints are taken through their full range of motion, squeezing and soaking areas of cartilage not often used and bringing fresh nutrients, oxygen and blood to the area, which helps to prevent conditions like arthritis and chronic pain.

The practice of asanas ,pranayama and bandha etc. always increase blood circulation and levels of hemoglobin and red blood cells which allows for more oxygen to reach the body cells, enhancing their function. It makes also thins the blood which can decrease the risk of heart attack and stroke, as they are often caused by blood clots. Twisting poses wring out venous blood from internal organs and allow oxygenated blood to flow in when the twist is released. Inverted poses encourage venous blood flow from the legs and pelvis back to the heart and then pumped through the lungs where it becomes freshly oxygenated. Many studies show yoga lowers the resting heart rate, increases endurance, and can improve the maximum uptake and utilization of oxygen during exercise.

While stimulation is good, too much taxes the nervous system and yoga provides relief from excess stimulation and the stressors and hectic nature of modern life. Restorative postures, savasana, pranayama, and meditation encourage pratyahara, a turning inward of the senses which enables downtime for the nervous system, the byproduct often being improved sleep. Pharmacological treatment of insomnia is often associated with hazardous side effects such as states of confusion, psychomotor performance deficits, nocturnal falls, dysphoric mood, impaired intellectual functioning and daytime sleepiness, especially in older adults. Therefore, alternative forms of therapy for improving sleep are becoming utilized more frequently. These alternative therapeutic approaches can be generally classified into three categories: behavioral based educative methods (e.g. avoiding caffeine or other stimulants before bedtime), relaxation techniques (e.g. progressive muscular relaxation, yoga, and

meditation) and formal psychotherapy. Because of its ability to increase relaxation and induce a balanced mental state, yoga has been studied to evaluate its possible effects on sleep and insomnia.

Yoga is not so helpful to cure cancer, but a definitive way of preventing it, yoga increases physical, emotional and spiritual wellness, and brings about a certain peace, of which many cancer patients desire. Yoga, breathing exercises, and meditation can reduce stress, promote healing, and enhance quality of life for patients of cancer. The growth of tumors and other cancer indicators are exacerbated by stress, thus it is especially important for people with cancer to reduce and manage stress effectively. Several premises exist as rationale for applying yoga-based interventions with cancer patients. Research suggests that yoga can produce an invigorating effect on mental and physical energy that improves fitness and reduces fatigue. Additionally, when practicing yoga, a fundamental emphasis is placed on accepting one's moment-to-moment experiences creating mindfulness and not forcing the body past its comfortable limits. Having this healthy sense of acceptance is especially important for individuals dealing with life-threatening illness as it decreases the stress one experiences from unpleasant symptomology. Initially, cancer patients likely benefit from the poses themselves which are designed to exercise each and every muscle, nerve and gland throughout the body. The postures precisely address the tension, holding, and blockage of energy in any particular joint or organ. As this tension is released, energy flows more readily throughout the body and allows patients to experience a sense of increased well-being and strength as well as a balance of mind and body.

In summary, stress has a negative impact on the immune system and prolonged exposure increases susceptibility to disease and leads to physical and mental health problems such as anxiety and depression. Practicing yoga and meditation as a means to manage and relieve both acute and chronic stress helps individuals overcome other co-morbidities associated with diseases and leads to increased quality of life. As a non-pharmacological form of treatment, yoga based interventions are an alternative option for the treatment of mood disorders. Further investigation of yoga as a therapeutic intervention in depressive disorders is needed and future studies should seek to identify which of the yoga-based interventions is most effective and what levels of severity of depression are more likely to respond to this approach.

In addition to the effects of yoga on mood disorders and stress reduction, yogic practices are shown to improve cardiorespiratory performance, psychological profile, and plasma melatonin levels and also significantly reduced systolic blood pressure, diastolic blood pressure, mean arterial pressure, and orthostatic tolerance. Furthermore, yoga helps to improve the cardiovascular efficiency and homeostatic control of the body and results in improvements in autonomic balance, respiratory

performance, and overall well-being. Yoga based lifestyle modifications were also shown to aid in regression of coronary lesions as well as to improve myocardial perfusion in patients with CAD. Inevitably, cardiovascular parameters alter as one ages, but these age-related deteriorations in cardiovascular functions are slower in persons who practice yoga regularly as yoga practitioners had lower heart rate as well as lower systolic and diastolic blood pressure than matched controls.

Numerous studies show that asana, meditation or a combination of the two can reduce pain and disability while improving flexibility and functional mobility in people with a number of conditions causing chronic pain. Additionally, in some cases use of pain medication was reduced or eliminated completely. Yoga was also shown to improve gait function and reduce age-related changes in gait among a group of healthy, non-obese elders.

Regarding yoga's effects for cancer patients, results show a decrease in post-chemotherapy-induced nausea frequency, nausea intensity, intensity of anticipatory nausea, and anticipatory vomiting. Additionally, yoga subjects reported decreased anxiety, depression, and distressful symptoms and also showed significantly reduced toxicity scores compared to the controls. Results from another study showed patients experienced significantly lower levels of pain and fatigue, and higher levels of invigoration, acceptance and relaxation following participation in a yoga intervention. Yoga, breathing exercises, and meditation can reduce stress, promote healing, increase energy, decrease adverse treatment effects, and enhance quality-of-life for patients with cancer.

Yoga's ability to increase relaxation and induce a balanced mental state was studied to evaluate its effect on sleep quality and improving insomnia. Regular practice of yoga resulted in a significant decrease in the time taken to fall asleep, an increase in the total number of hours slept, and in the feeling of being rested in the morning. Additionally, yoga had a positive influence on sleep patterns in individuals with lymphoma. Furthermore, participation in yoga classes improved self-reported quality-of-life as well as measures of physical function among an elderly population.

According to Buddhist philosophy the roots of addiction are in the mind and the practice of mindful meditation encourages addicts to accept the basic impermanence of human experience and helps them to develop a detached awareness of thoughts. Yoga and meditation practices exert positive influence on addictive behaviors. Through the practice of yoga, addicts shift from self-inflicted harm and disrespect toward their bodies to more respectful, caring, and loving behaviors. Eating disorders are a specific type of addiction and yoga appears to be beneficial in improving body image disturbances and useful in the recovery from eating disorders. One study found that female yoga practitioners attribute their positive feelings and sense of well-being to yoga practice and report less self-objectification, greater



satisfaction with physical appearance and fewer disordered eating attitudes compared to non-yoga practitioners.

The findings of the aforementioned studies examining the psychological and physical outcomes of yoga prove difficult to summarize and draw concrete conclusions due to variation in the research designs, differences in the duration and frequency of yoga classes, and differences in the specific yoga programs and populations being studied. Nonetheless, results for the included studies demonstrate many of the numerous therapeutic effects, benefits and profound healing power of yoga.

### **Discussion**

Yoga is going to be popular day to day in the Western countries as a discipline for integrating the body and mind into union and harmony, when adopted as a way of life, yoga improves physical, mental, intellectual and spiritual health. Yoga offers an effective method of managing and reducing stress, anxiety and depression. There are numerous studies which demonstrate the efficacy of yoga on mood related disorders. The treatment of tension, anxiety, stress and depression involves mostly psychological and pharmacological interventions; however, body-mind interventions are becoming increasingly popular as a means to reduce stress in individuals. It is a form of body-mind exercise, has become an increasingly widespread therapy used to maintain wellness, and alleviate a range of health problems and ailments. Yoga should be considered as a complementary therapy or alternative method for medical therapy in the treatment of stress, anxiety, depression, and other mood disorders as it has been shown to create a greater sense of well-being, increase feelings of relaxation, improve self-confidence and body image, improve efficiency, better interpersonal relationships, increase attentiveness, lower irritability, and encourage an optimistic outlook on life.

When there does not exist the concrete guidelines regarding the frequency of practice, the more you practice the more you benefit. Yoga is a personalized practice and as such, frequency and duration are personal questions with individual answers. Yogic practice should do as per personal capacity of body and mind and it should be modified as per individual required needs and goals. Individuals should practice as often as possible, especially in the beginning. The length of the induction phase will vary depending on an individual's initial level of fitness and health status; the more difficult yoga is for someone in the beginning the more their body needs it.

The investigator tried to understand in beginning how disciplines such as yoga promote personal growth, health and well-being. By acknowledging the unity of mind, body and spirit, mind-body fitness programs (i.e. yoga) can assist people in their pursuit of peace, calmness, and greater wholeness and integration in their lives. Health care professionals, health educators and the like, need to be aware of the potential of yoga as an important component of a personal wellness plan.

In the modern arena the medicinal expects are going on in most of the cases to heal physical diseases and alleviate psychological disorders, it is argued that a purely medical approach is far less effective in healing the emotional, intellectual, and personality layers of the human entity. The discipline of yoga offers individuals a timeless and holistic model of health and healing and although it may not result in the complete elimination of physical diseases and/ or adverse conditions from the body it offers a holistic path of healing. There exists an indisputable connection between a person's overall physical and mental health and the inner peace and well-being yoga is designed to achieve. Therefore, it can predicted that yoga is an systematic, perfect and expensiveless process for growth and development, creation of health fitness and to cover the spiritual aspects. It always helps to leave smooth, calm, peaceful, happy and healthy life for the humanity.

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## **ROLE OF DEPARTMENTAL LIBRARY IN FACILITATING TEACHER EDUCATORS DURING THEIR TRAINING**

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### **Abstract**

This paper is based on a study conducted to know the role of departmental library in facilitating teacher educators during their pre-service training. In this study, all students studying at post graduate level in an institution were considered for the data collection. A self-developed questionnaire consisting of 51 items was used to collect data from all the students studying in M. Ed. general course in a college of education situated in Jammu city in India. The tool comprised of items related to background variables, availability of resources, frequency of using library, services provided by the library, access and purpose of using library. Data collected from 28 students revealed that most of the students visited library daily for the purpose a library is meant for.. The traditional and digital services provided by this PG library have been evaluated as satisfactory by all the students involved in the study.

**Key Words:** Teacher Educator; Departmental Library; College of Education.

### **Introduction**

Over the past few decades, the nature of library environment and mode of its services has changed considerably. With the development and application of information and communication technologies (ICTs), the library environment has shifted from the traditional library to hybrid library, to automated library and then digital library and virtual library and presently it has shifted to Library 2.0 version. With such changes, the structure and nature of library has changed in a dynamic way. Now the libraries have become knowledge centers where all kinds of information pertaining to any subject are available within some seconds. Library information networks like Developing Library Network (DELNET), Information and Library Network (INFLIBNET) have emerged as the most powerful medium for storage and retrieval of information. These networks work round the clock and connect every nook

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and corner of the globe. These networks provide access to a wide variety of services, i.e. Union Catalogue of Books, Journals, serial publications, CD-ROMs, etc. They are also providing the special facility of translation of languages and online dictionary, which is very helpful especially for the teachers, teacher educators and teacher trainees. This advancement in libraries has all together increased the learning and teaching capabilities of teachers and teacher educators.

Academic libraries have played critically an important role in facilitating research in all subjects and disciplines within their host universities and colleges (Jubb & Green, 2007; Patterson, 2009). Campbell (2006) argued that academic libraries are complex institutions with multiple roles. They provide not only books and space for students to study, but also provide services for facilitating research activities, such as bibliographies, reference services and information literacy classes. Opara (2001, as cited in Yusuf, F., & Iwu, J., 2010) suggested that the library stands in the same relationship to the society as the memory of an individual by making available and accessible to its users information required for teaching and independent study. Behling and Cudd (1967) assert that the library user is regarded as the most logical source to determine whether the library is playing its role satisfactorily or not.

In India, the National Knowledge Commission (2005) appointed by the central government envisaged the future road map for the growth and development of academic libraries by imbibing core issues such as, set up a national commission on libraries, prepare a national census of all libraries, revamp Library Information System (LIS) education, training and research facilities, re-assess staffing of libraries, set up a central library fund, modernize library management, encourage greater community participation in library management, promote information communication technology applications in all libraries, facilitate donation and maintenance of private collections, and encourage public private partnerships in LIS development, etc. The recommendations of the commission have generated a lot of hope among the library professionals and others who see it as a remarkable landmark in the library development in India. The National Curriculum Framework (2005) of the NCERT also attributes great significance to the library method of teaching and learning in schools.

### **Need & Significance of the Study**

Libraries in 21<sup>st</sup> century have brought revolution in all fields including Teacher Education. They have been reinventing themselves to meet the needs of teachers and teacher educators in modern world having advanced technology. They are responding well to new educational models, changing modes of teaching and learning and the evolving needs of research. Libraries being an inseparable organ of the colleges in general and teacher education in particular, meets the intellectual curiosity of teachers and future teachers with a view to nurture the capabilities of comprehension and assimilation of ideas. Libraries are important for empowering teachers and teacher educators. Libraries provide a forum for the teachers and teacher educators for gaining

knowledge and experiences. Libraries help in broadening the mental horizon and developing creative thinking of the teacher educator's in fact-finding process. They also provide a gateway to global knowledge with the use of information and communication technology and are also helpful in creating more positive attitude toward teaching and learning process.

In the present study, authors kept all these developments in cognizance and attempted to know that how much importance and emphasis is being given to cultivate favorable conditions for developing creative potential of students within their institution. That is why this study has been undertaken to know the extent of use of the resources, services and modern technologies of libraries of college of education by students studying in pre-service teacher education course at postgraduate level. It is an attempt to find the users' awareness about use of resources and services and their satisfaction with these. This information will be helpful for stakeholders to formulate policies to fill gaps wherever needed to improve whether it is in the present institution or any other of the same nature.

### **Literature Review**

Sarasvady & Khatri (2007) found in their study that the young participants who use electronic journals show high level of awareness of the collections and willing to resort for more electronic journals. Many participants revealed that they would use the print occasionally if more electronic journals are available and this is observed particularly for young generation. Singh (2007) found out that the respondents were generally satisfied with the resources (books, journals, databases, indexes, etc.) provided by the library and with the services (e.g. information skills classes, inter-library loans, etc.). In general, the students felt that the library had been useful to them in their research. Webb (2007) highlighted that the effective academic library are gateways to academic knowledge through their own collection and by facilitating access to material. In the line with its core purpose, providing effective library services could support the research activities of researchers. Haglund (2008) indicated that university libraries are dedicated to what they perceive as the needs of students and researchers at the university. Otherwise, they could not effectively assist the research activities, nor could they contribute to the university's research. Doraswamy (2010) found that sixty-five percent of the post-graduate students at P.B. Siddhartha College of Arts and Sciences, Vijayawada, India are using the library daily. Most of them are using the library mainly for the purpose of reading or borrowing the books and to use internet or email. The majority of the post-graduate students are browsing the book shelves (94.29%) and searching the library catalogue (79.29%) for getting the relevant documents as compared to the other sources. Most of the post-graduate students (67.38%) are satisfied while 32.62 percent are not satisfied with the overall library resources.

It is evident from the reviewed research that quite a few studies have been carried out on the role of departmental library in facilitating teacher educators during their pre-service training. Therefore, the authors took up this study with an aim to reveal how the departmental library helps in facilitating teacher educators during their training and education.

### **Objectives**

The main objectives of the present study were:

1. To find the frequency of use of the library by the students of PG department.
2. To find the extent of satisfaction of post-graduate students with regard to availability of resources in the library.
3. To find the extent of satisfaction of post-graduate students with regard to services provided in the Library.
4. To find out the purpose of visiting library by students.

### **Methodology**

A questionnaire entitled 'Role of Departmental Library in M.Ed.' was prepared to conduct this survey and collect data from all twenty eight post-graduate students of a college of education.

### **Sample for the Study**

The sample for this study consisted of all the students enrolled in M. Ed. course of the PG Deptt. of Education in MIER College of Education situated in Jammu city of J&K state in India.

### **Method of Data Analysis**

Data collected from the questionnaire was analyzed for frequencies and percentages.

### **Results**

#### **1. Frequency of Using Library**

In the questionnaire, a statement pertaining to find the number of visits by the students in library consisted of five options viz; daily, twice a week, weekly, fortnightly and monthly. The results are presented in the following Figure 1.

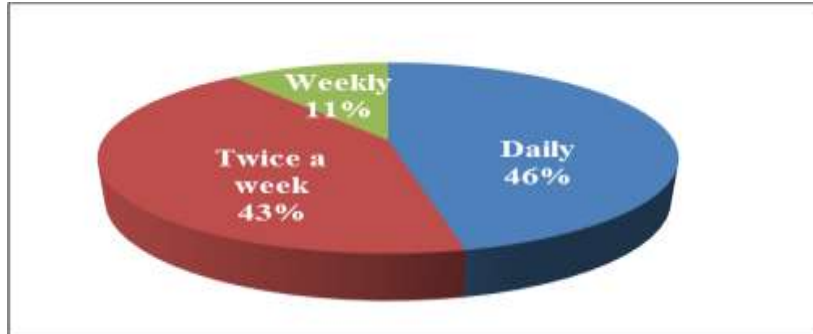
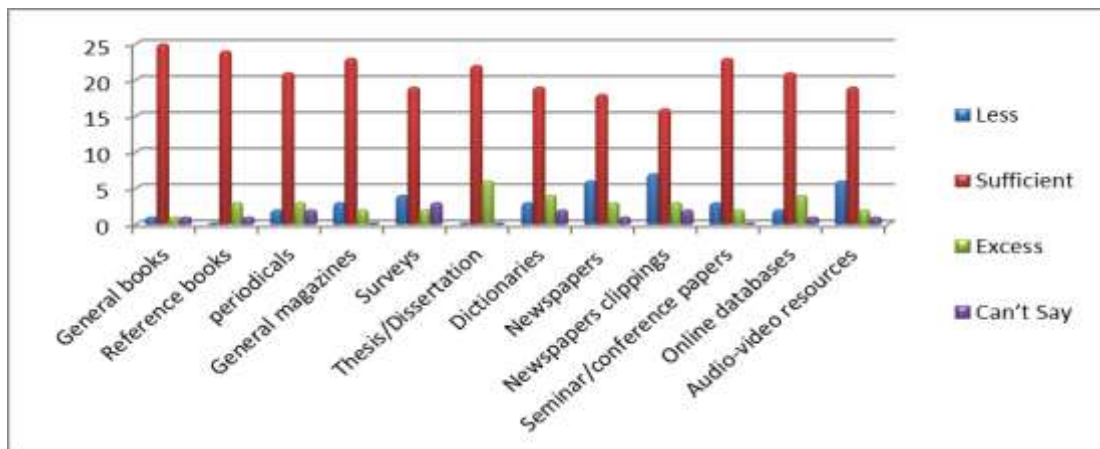
**Figure 1: Frequency of Using the Library**

Figure 1 shows that 13 (46.4%) of the student respondents used library daily, 12(43%) twice a week and 3 (10.7%) of student respondents visited the library weekly. However, no student responded for visiting library fortnightly and monthly. This shows that students visit library frequently in their department.

## 2. Availability of Library Resources

The results based on four response categories i.e. Less, Sufficient, Excess and Can't Say are presented below in the Figure2.

**Figure 2: Extent of Availability of Materials and Resources**

It is evident from Figure 2 that 89.28% of the post-graduate students responded 'sufficient' with regard to the availability of general books. 85.71% of the students responded 'sufficient' for reference book collection, 82.14% for general magazines and seminar/conference papers collection, 78.57% for thesis/dissertation collection, 75% for periodicals and online database collection, 67.85% for surveys, dictionaries and audio-video resources collection, 64.28% for newspapers collection and 57.14% of the students responded 'sufficient' for newspapers clipping collection.

Therefore, it is evident from the results that the departmental library has got enough resources for the students according to their needs.

### 3. Satisfaction with the Services

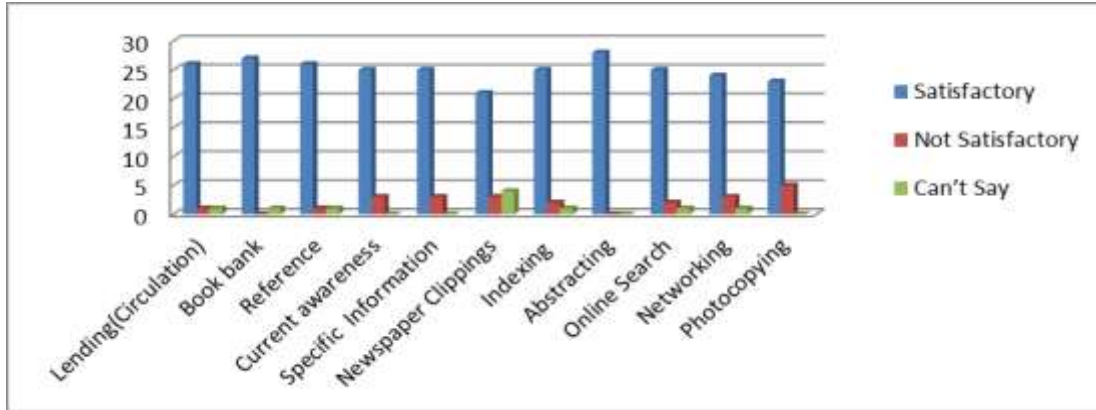
To know the satisfaction level of the students', eleven items were presented to be answered on three point response categories in the questionnaire and these categories were satisfactory, not satisfactory and can't say. The results obtained are given in Table1.

**Table 1: Percentage of Satisfaction with the Services Provided in Departmental Library**

S. No	Services	Satisfactory	Not Satisfactory	Can't Say
1.	Lending(Circulation)	92.9	3.57	3.57
2.	Book bank	96.4	0	3.57
3.	Reference	92.9	3.57	3.57
4.	Current awareness	89.3	10.7	0
5.	Specific Information	89.3	10.7	0
6.	Newspaper Clippings	75	10.7	14.3
7.	Indexing	89.3	7.14	3.57
8.	Abstracting	100	0	0
9.	Online Search	89.3	7.14	3.57
10.	Networking	85.7	10.7	3.57
11.	Photocopying	82.1	17.9	0

It is evident from Table 1 that 92.9% of the post-graduate students responded satisfactory with the circulation and reference services provided by the library and 3.57% of them were not satisfied and 3.57% of them responded 'can't say'. It is also evident from the table that 96.4% of the students were satisfied with book bank service provided in the library. 89.3% of the students were satisfied with the current awareness, specific information, indexing and online search. 75% were satisfied with newspaper clippings and 100% were satisfied with abstracting service. Similarly, 85.7% were satisfied with networking and 82.1 percent were satisfied with photocopying facility. It is also evident from the table that percentage of 'not satisfactory' and 'can't say' is very low as compared to the 'satisfactory'.



**Figure 3: Graphical Representation of Satisfaction with the Services**

The data shows that the satisfaction level of the students is very high for almost all of the services provided by the library.

#### 4. Reasons for Visiting Library

Eleven of the items in questionnaire were short listed from the literature for knowing the reason behind visiting library. These items were scored on three options i.e. yes, no and can't say. The results obtained from the analysis are given in Table 2.

**Table 2: Percentage of Reasons for Visiting Library**

S. No.	Library Resources	Yes	No	Can't Say
1	To Read Personal/Teachers' Notes	89.3	10.7	0
2	To Consult Textbooks Based on Curriculum	100	0	0
3	To Consult Electronic Journals (Printed )	78.6	14.3	7.14
4	To Consult Electronic Journals (Online resources)	71.4	28.6	0
5	For General Study	89.3	7.14	3.57
6	To Consult Reference Material	92.9	3.57	3.57
7	To Avail Photocopy Facility	82.1	10.7	7.14
8	To Write Assignments/Notes	85.7	10.7	3.57
9	To Read Newspapers	85.7	10.7	3.57
10	Recreation (For leisure and entertainment)	64.3	32.1	3.57
11	For Research Projects	100	0	0

It is evident from Table 2 that all (100%) post-graduate students are mainly using the library for consulting textbooks based on curriculum and for research projects. The next purpose is to consult reference material (92.9%). These two are



followed by to read personal/teachers' notes (89.3%), for general study(89.3%), to write assignments/ notes(85.7%), to read newspapers (85.7%),to avail photocopy facility (82.1%),to consult printed journals (78.6%),to consult electronic journals (71.4%)and only 64.3% are using library for recreation (for leisure and entertainment).Hence, it can be concluded that students have shown interest in browsing internet for getting more information and sharing and publishing this information over internet.

### 5. Access to Digital (Electronic) Services

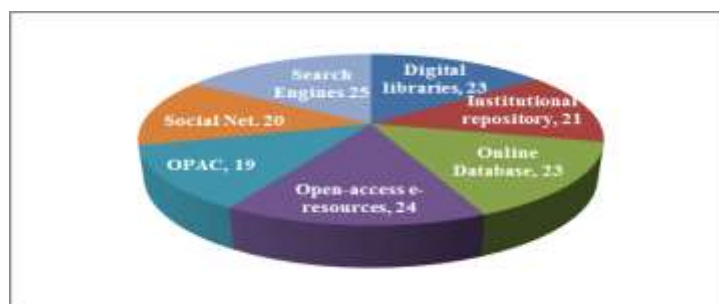
Statement based on access to digital (electronic) services were scored on yes, no and can't say. The results obtained are given in Table3.

**Table 3: Percentage of Responses on Access to Digital (Electronic) Services**

S. No.	Services	Yes	No	Can't Say
1	Digital Libraries	82.1	10.7	7.14
2	Digital Libraries	82.1	10.7	7.14
3	Online Database	82.1	10.7	7.14
4	Open-access e-resources	85.7	10.7	3.57
5	OPAC	67.9	10.7	21.4
6	Social Networking/Blogs/wikis	71.4	25	3.57
7	Search Engines (Google, Yahoo, Altavista)	89.3	7.14	3.57

It is evident from Table 3 that 89.3% of the post-graduate students were accessing search engines like Google, Yahoo, AltaVista. It is also evident that 85.7% of the post graduates were using open access e-resources, 82.1% were accessing digital libraries and online databases. Whereas students were also accessing institutional repository, social networking sites/blogs/wikis and OPAC (75%, 71.4% and 67.9%) respectively.

**Figure 4: Graphical Representation of Number of Responses (N=28) on Access to Digital (Electronic) Services**



## 6. Purpose of using ICT Resources and Services

Six of the items in questionnaire were short listed from the literature for knowing the purpose of using ICT resources and services. These items were scored on three options i.e. yes, no and can't say. The results obtained from the analysis are given in Table4.

**Table 4: Purpose of using ICT Resources and Services**

S. No	Service	Yes	No	Can't Say
1.	e-mail	92.9	7.14	0
2.	Study	100	0	0
3.	Research	100	0	0
4.	Publication of Articles	75	21.4	3.57
5.	Entertainment	67.9	32.1	0
6.	Self improvement/Awareness	100	0	0

Table 4 revealed that all (100%) the students of the post graduate department were using ICT resources and services for studying, research work, awareness. Maximum of them (92.9%) were using ICT resources and services for e-mailing followed by publication of articles(75%) and entertainment (67.9%). Therefore, it can be concluded that students have shown interest in browsing internet for getting more information and sharing and publishing this information over internet.

### Conclusion

The present study has led to useful results in which it has been found that students at post graduate level visit their departmental library frequently as it was also found by Doraswamy (2010). This shows that trainees have developed a good habit of visiting departmental library during their studies and training period. They have evaluated the library as an enriched one with enough resources for the students according to their needs. It was also found that the satisfaction level of the students is high for almost all the services provided by the library as also found by Singh (2007). Students have also shown interest in browsing ICT resources for getting updated and more information related to their field of research and sharing and publishing this information over internet. Hence, it can be concluded that an ideal departmental library has a very important role to play in grooming the future teacher educators during their training period.

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## LOCUS OF CONTROL AND GOAL ORIENTATION OF UNIVERSITY STUDENTS

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*Sandra Buela\*\*\**  
*Sharanappa\*\*\**

### Abstract

The study was carried to assess college students' Goal orientation and their Locus of control. A sample of 60 students was drawn randomly from the Central University of Karnataka. Rotter's Locus of Control Scale and Goal Orientation Measure by Zweig & Webster was used to collect the data. Pearson's correlation and t value was used for data analysis. The findings revealed: students with better performance approach orientation; post-graduate students with better learning orientation than undergraduate students. Locus of control had a significant but negative relation with students' learning orientation.

**Key words:** Locus of Control; Goal orientation; Learning orientation.

### Introduction

Education is an important contributor to success in one's life. In order to succeed any learner has to focus on many academic goals. Researchers studied extensively about academic goals for the past three decades. The Goal can be defined as a potentially accessible and conscious cognitive representation. Goal orientation is one's goal preference in achievement settings (Dweck, 1986) and a desire to develop, realize and exhibit the capability to perform a specific activity (Dweck & Leggett, 1988). Researchers have identified three different goal orientation viz. performance approach,

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performance avoidance and learning orientation. One of the determinant of one's goal orientation is the individuals personality.

### **Personality:**

Personality refers to *important* and *relatively stable* aspects of behaviour. It deals with a *wide range of human behaviour*. To most theorists, personality includes virtually everything about a person—mental, emotional, social, and physical. Some aspects of personality are *unobservable*, such as thoughts, memories, and dreams, whereas others are *observable*, such as overt actions. Personality also includes aspects that are concealed from yourself, or *unconscious*, as well as those that are *conscious* and well within your awareness. Bandura's socio-cognitive theory highlights the importance of personal beliefs about the task outcome.

Locus of control refers to the perception that individuals have about the source of things that happen to them. Neil defines "Locus of control as an individual's perception about the underlying main causes of events in his/her life or it is the belief regarding whether one's destiny is controlled by ourselves or by external forces (Neil, 2006). Where as Rotter initially defined it as "a set of belief about the relationship between behaviour and subsequent occurrence of rewards and punishments" (Rotter, 1966).

### **Internal and External Locus of Control:**

Rotter (1975) stated that internality-externality represents two ends of a continuum not an either or typology. The internal Locus of control is generally regarded as desirable when compared to external (Neil, 2006). Persons with internal orientation take active efforts to gain information to improve the behaviour and use them effectively. They believe the events are results primarily from their own behaviour and take responsibility for their behaviour (Phares, 1984). They are more likely to influence others, active in seeking information and knowledge concerning their situation. They are more skilled in solving the problems and adopt active as well as controlling approach towards their life events. They are less likely to be manipulated by others more achievement oriented and are analytical in nature.

Individuals with external Locus of control attribute the outcome of events to extend circumstance such as powerful others, fate or chance primarily determines events due to locating their control outside themselves. Externals tend to feel that they have less control over their fate. They tend to be more stressed and prove to clinical depression. It is considered as a concept that can vary according to the situation and it does not refer to a fixed, innate personality trait. Also, there are attempts to induce internality through interventions (Hans, 2000; Hattie, et.al, 1997).

### **Goal Orientation:**

Goal orientation is the degree to which a person or organization focuses on tasks and the end results of those tasks. Strong goal orientation advocates a focus on the ends that the tasks are made for instead of the tasks themselves and how those ends will affect either the person or the entire company.

### **Need of the Study:**

Our attempts to control our external environment begin in infancy, becoming more pronounced between ages 8 to 14. Wilson et al. (2007) reported that the gender difference in locus of control findings are ambiguous, as men are predominantly suggested to be more internally controlled as compared to women which holds across different domains, but there is also a considerable number of empirical studies which do not find a significant gender difference in locus of control (Sherman et al. 1997, Feingold 1994). Where as, Manager & Ekeland (2000) have concluded that girls have higher internal locus of control than boys. These contradictory finding requires the need for studying Locus of control among students.

The success of any learning depends on the motivation and goal orientation of students. Students with strong goal orientation demonstrate greater motivation to engage a variety of course content. And also College days are crucial stage after which students have to face the job. Hence, this study attempted to assess locus of control and goal orientation of students.

### **Methodology**

This study is an attempt to study the students of the Central University of Karnataka who belong to Karnataka and Kerala states. The methods being used is prescribed below.

### **Hypotheses**

The main hypotheses of this study are:

1. Students do not differ in Locus of control on the basis of their gender.
2. Students do not differ in locus of control with respect to their course of study.
3. Students do not differ in Goal orientation on the basis of their gender.
4. Students do not differ in Goal orientation with respect to their course of study.
5. There is no significant relationship between Locus of control with their goal orientation of students.

### **Sample**

A sample of 60 students within the age range of 18 -29 years were selected to carry out the study.

## Research Tools

Rotter's Locus of Control Scale and Goal Orientation Measure by Zweig & Webster were used in the investigation.

## Statistical Treatment

The collected data was put to statistical treatment by using mean, SD and t value.

## Results and Discussion

Table 1 shows the results of chi square test on Locus of control on the basis of gender. It is observed from the table that, chi square values are not significant, i.e.,  $\chi^2 (1, N=60)=1.086$ ,  $p=0.297$ . On the basis of this, it is concluded that percentages of students having Internal locus of control / external locus of control do not differ on the basis of their gender.

**Table 1: Cross tabulation of Locus of Control and Gender ( N= 30 Each)**

Gender	N	Internal LOC	External LOC	df	$\chi^2$	Result
Male	30	19	11	1	1.086 NS	0.297
Female	30	15	15			

\*NS-Not significant at 0.05 level

Table 2 shows the results of chi square test on Locus of control with respect to their course of study. It is observed from the table that, chi square values are not significant, i.e.,  $\chi^2 (1, N=60)=2.642$ ,  $p=0.104$ . It gives an ample evidence to conclude that, percentages of students having an internal locus of control / external locus of control do not differ with respect to their course of study. Since, locus control is being acquired based on the individuals' experiences from childhood, it does not show significant difference with respect to their course of study, whether they are in under graduation or post graduation.

**Table 2: Cross Tabulation of Locus of Control and Course of Study**

Course of Study	N	Internal LOC	External LOC	df	$\chi^2$	Sig
Under Graduation	23	10	13	1	2.642 NS	0.104
Post Graduation	37	24	13			

NS-Not significant at 0.05 level

Table-3 shows the mean and SD of Goal orientation on the basis of gender. Performance approach orientation dimension of goal orientation has shown significant differences between the gender,  $t (59)=2.03$ ,  $p<0.05$ . Female students have shown higher performance approach orientation than male students. The results are in

accordance with the findings of earlier works ( Pajares, Britner & Valiante, 2000; Pajares & Cheong, 2003; Jeyavel & Kadhiraavan, 2009). Girls have been given much freedom for their educational goals. Their high perceived competence might have resulted their high performance approach orientation. It can be inferred that, both are equal in performance avoidance orientation and learning orientation which is in average level.

**Table 3: Mean comparison on the basis of gender on Goal orientation dimensions ( N= 30 Each)**

Goal Orientation	Gender	Mean	SD	't'-value
Performance Approach Orientation	Male	23.57	3.62	2.03*
	Female	25.77	4.68	
Performance Avoidance Orientation	Male	26.77	4.98	0.150 NS
	Female	26.93	3.48	
Learning Orientation	Male	30.7	5.15	0.010 NS
	Female	30.7	6.44	

\*-Significant at 0.05 level

NS-Not significant at 0.05 level

Table 4 denotes the course viz. comparison of students' goal orientation. Under graduation and post graduation students do not differ in their performance approach orientation and performance avoidance orientation viz.  $t(59)=0.905$ ,  $p>0.05$  and  $t(59)=1.287$ ,  $p>0.05$ . When an individual's competence to perform a task is high, they approach the task and when it is low, they avoid it in order to safeguard themselves. Post graduation students have shown higher learning orientation than under graduation students. Students choice of post graduation is quite voluntary and the course content also requires vast knowledge and critical analysis of the topics they study. Better learning orientation will ensure them to manage their courses well than under graduate students.

**Table 4: Mean Comparison of UG (N=23) and PG (N= 37) on Goal Orientation with respect to their course of study**

Goal Orientation	Course of Study	Mean	SD	't'-value
Performance Approach Orientation	UG	25.3	5.17	0.90 5 NS
	PG	24.27	3.67	
Performance Avoidance Orientation	UG	25.96	4.19	1.287 NS
	PG	27.41	4.26	
Learning Orientation	UG	28.28	4.59	2.442*
	PG	32.08	6.07	

\*-Significant at 0.05 level

NS-Not significant



Table 5 shows the co-relational analysis between locus of control and goal orientation. There is no relationship between performance approach orientation and performance avoidance orientation with students' locus of control. But, learning orientation has significant inverse Relationship with student's locus of control ( $r=-0.44$ ,  $p<0.01$ ). This inverse relationship indicates that when scores of locus of control increases, learning orientation scores decreases.

**Table 5: Co-relational Analysis: Locus of Control Vs Goal Orientation**

Goal Orientation	Locus of Control	Sig.
Performance Approach Orientation	-0.05	0.686
Performance Avoidance Orientation	-0.04	0.725
Learning Orientation	- 0.44 **	0.001

\*\* - significant at the 0.01 level

Learning orientation involves learning for the subject master, engaging in deeper level processing, and enjoying the task itself rather than the result of the task. Individuals who have internal locus of control perceives their success as a result of their own effort rather than as a result of luck or fate. It is quite natural to have a significant inverse relationship between learning orientation and locus of control.

### Major Findings

1. Male and Female students do not differ on their locus of control.
2. Undergraduate students and postgraduate students do not differ on their locus of control.
3. Female students have higher performance approach orientation.
4. Postgraduate students have higher learning orientation.
5. Learning orientation has a significant inverse relationship with their locus of control.

### Conclusion

Persons with internal locus of control can take active efforts to gain information to improve the behaviour and use them effectively. They believe the events are results primarily from their own behaviour and take responsibility for their behaviour. Parents and teachers could encourage students to take responsibility for their won actions and consequences. Changing educational scenario has helped female students to prove their selves. Undergraduate students learning orientation could be facilitated with the academic support. Intervention could be planned to enhance learning orientation of students which in turn help students to be more in control internally.

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## **TEACHER EDUCATION AND ITS PRESENT PROBLEMS: A PROSPECTIVE VIEW OF TEACHER EDUCATION OF JAMMU AND KASHMIR**

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### **Abstract**

Teachers are the greatest assets of any education system. Teacher quality is therefore crucial and has been globally accepted to be significantly associated with the quality of education in general and students' learning outcomes in particular. So teacher education is a programme that is related to the development of teacher proficiency and competence that would enable and empower the teacher to meet the requirements of the profession. In Jammu and Kashmir, there is mushrooming growth in the number of admissions in B.Ed and M.Ed courses by the Directorates of Distance Education and private B.Ed colleges that are affiliated with University of Kashmir and University of Jammu. Due to the lack of a single regulating body it resulted in deterioration in the quality of trained teachers coming out of these institutions on account of poor infrastructure, inefficient teaching, improper admission policy and above all the faulty examination and evaluation system. The paper highlighted different problems of teacher education and suggested remedial measures for producing efficient and trained teachers of superior quality.

**Keywords:** Quality, Parameters, Challenges and Perspective

### **Introduction**

Jammu and Kashmir figures among the last four most illiterate and educationally backward state. It is fact that no system of education can rise above the level of its teachers. The State enjoys the special status under article 370 of the Constitution of India and jurisdiction of the NCTE act has not been extended to the state. At present, Jammu & Kashmir has two state universities, two recently established central universities, two colleges of education as well as private colleges of teacher education and 22 DIETs that are importing teacher education (EDJK, 2007). Since from last

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fourteen years in Jammu and Kashmir, mushrooming growth in the number of private B.Ed. colleges affiliated with University of Kashmir and University of Jammu has resulted in deterioration of quality trained teachers coming out from these colleges on account of poor infrastructure, inefficient teaching, improper admission policy and above all the faulty examination and evaluation system (Gul, 2013). On the other hand, B.Ed. programme is also offered by the Directorate of Distance Education in both universities. The University of Kashmir admits 3600 students annually and the University of Jammu admits 500 students. The Directorate of Distance Learning in Kashmir also offers an M.Ed. programme for which 1200 seats are available. Although no formal evaluation of the programmes is available, it is difficult to imagine how a faculty of four to five members can lend adequate support to thousands of students in a professional programme that has course requirements of several specializations and also a practical requirement of school teaching (JRM-TE, 2013). Decline in quality of teacher training education is evident from the fact that a sizeable segment of the trained teachers seriously lack in teaching skills, communication skill, experimental skill, skill of motivation, analytical skill and problem solving skill.

Teacher education is in urgent need of reorganization in Jammu and Kashmir so as to ensure the highest quality and standard. The system of teacher preparation or training in Jammu and Kashmir region has come under sharp criticism at the hand of both experts and public at large. Critics have termed our system of teacher preparation as "obsolete" "bookish" "ill concerned", impractical", "ill planned", "uninspiring" and "mushroom growth". It affected adversely: (a) the quality of faculty and the head, (b) access and use of learning resources (library and ICT), (c) teaching and evaluation methodology, and (d) professional development. It also suffers from 'ad hocism', 'politicization', 'groupism', and half hearted efforts at developing teacher competencies among prospective teacher (Boyer, 1997).

### **Quality of Teacher Education**

Quality has become the watchword of current educational scenario not only in India but also at global level. Teacher quality and the strength of educator's leadership are recognised as the greatest determinants of educational success. Quality teaching has a measurable impact on student outcomes. Our teachers and academic leaders are having a profound impact on our society (Mamta, 2005). Teacher quality affects all stages of the teaching "lifecycle", from attraction into the profession to ongoing development and retention in their own schools. Despite the importance of "quality" as the motivating factor for educational planning, approaches to quality can vary widely. In much of the literature, "quality" is used in a detached way, assuming consensus both on what the term means and on the desirability of the various educational aims and approaches promoted under the banner of quality (Niklas, 2004). Whether explicit or implicit, a vision of educational quality is always embedded within countries policies and programs. One way of looking at quality, prevalent in both the

research literature and reports of program implementation, concerns the relationship between different “inputs” and a measure of student performance, or “output.” The outputs are usually students’ results on achievement tests, assessments, or end-of-cycle examinations. The inputs include a wide variety of factors: infrastructure and resources, quality of teaching environment, textbooks, teacher preparation, teacher salaries, supervision, attitudes and incentives, Educational Institutional climate, curriculum, students’ physical well-being, and family and socioeconomic context. Studies of efficiency provide necessary information for planners, but this approach has relatively little explanatory power about what creates school quality without an accompanying analysis of the dynamics among the myriad school process factors that encourage students to stay in school and gain valuable knowledge and attitudes while there for studying (Mukhopadhyay, 2007).

A more recently developed way of looking at quality focuses on the content, context, and relevance of education. This approach to quality focuses on process within the educational institutions and classroom and relationships between the educators and the surrounding community. Greater attention is given to the ways in which inputs interact at the Institutional level to shape quality of learning, defined as the elements of knowledge and character that a society values in young peoples (Mohanty & Lakhe, 2002).

### **Major Problems of the Present System of Teacher Education in Jammu and Kashmir**

There are many problems and issues plaguing the system of teacher education. Teacher preparation has been a subject of discussion at all levels, from the government, ministries, regulatory bodies, schools, to teachers themselves. Major problems of teacher education are (Hariharan, 2003 and JRM-TE, 2013).

- ❖ Lack of adequate infrastructure and other facilities (JRM-TE, 2013).
- ❖ High pupil-teacher ratio (JRM-TE, 2013).
- ❖ Several types of teacher education institutions thereby lacking in uniformity.
- ❖ Poor standards with respect to resources for private colleges of education (JRM-TE, 2013).
- ❖ Unhealthy financial condition of the private colleges of education (JRM-TE, 2013).
- ❖ Incompetent teacher educators resulting in deficiency of scholars.
- ❖ Negative attitude of managements towards development of both human as well as material resources.
- ❖ Low salaries of teachers’ especially in private colleges.

- ❖ Improper selection of the candidates (student teachers) to be admitted (Goel & Chhaya, 2012).
- ❖ Traditional curriculum and teaching methods of teaching in the teacher education programme.
- ❖ Inadequate duration of the teacher programme.
- ❖ Haphazard and improper organization of teacher education (Goel & Chhaya, 2012).
- ❖ Unplanned and insufficient co-curricular activities.
- ❖ Subjective evaluation pattern.
- ❖ Practice teaching neither adequate nor properly conducted.
- ❖ Feedback mechanisms lacking.
- ❖ Objectives of teacher education not understood (Goel & Chhaya, 2012).
- ❖ Secondary level teacher education is not the concern of higher education.
- ❖ Lack of dedication towards the profession.
- ❖ Lack of occupational perception.

### **Suggestions for Improving the Condition of Teacher Education in Jammu and Kashmir**

There are some suggestions here for improving the condition of teacher education (NCTE, 2009).

- ❖ Admission to the teacher training institutions in a State should be made on the basis of results of a common entrance test given by a State Agency.
- ❖ The teacher-pupil ratio in a teacher training institution should be 1:10, subject to minimum of ten teacher educators. There should be at least one teacher educator in each school subject and at least three in pedagogical subjects. There should be at least two teacher educators in Science methodology; one in Physical Science and one in Biological Science.
- ❖ Every teacher training institution should have a good library with at least 5000 books in all subject areas.
- ❖ There should be a separate laboratory for educational technology where trainees can do practical work for resource material development for teaching different school subjects.
- ❖ Every teacher training institution should have adequate hardware and software in educational technology and trainees should be provided

- practical work in the educational technology under micro and mini-teaching sessions.
- ❖ Every teacher training institution should provide practical work in games and physical education in groups for at least two hours a week for each group.
  - ❖ Every teacher training institution should have facilities for practical work in art, music and other aspects of culture.
  - ❖ Every teacher training institution should have facility for organizing practical work in some locally relevant socially useful productive work.
  - ❖ The four-year integrated programme of teacher education is a better model of teacher education.
  - ❖ The minimum qualifications for a teacher educator in a teacher training college or university department of education in the methodology subject should be Master's degree in the concerned subject together with Master's degree in Philosophy, Psychology or Sociology together with Master's degree in Education and should have M.Phil. / Ph.D. in Education.
  - ❖ The minimum instruction in time in one-year B.Ed. Course should be 36 weeks after the last date of admission. Out of the 36 weeks instruction at the college, not more than 4 weeks should be spent in teaching practice. No candidate should be allowed to appear at the B.Ed. degree examination unless he/she has completed 36 weeks instruction at college.
  - ❖ Privatization of teacher education should be regulated.
  - ❖ Institutes of low standards should be reformed or closed.
  - ❖ Conditions for affiliation should be made strict.
  - ❖ Internship should be of sufficient time (six months) and student teachers must be exposed to the full functioning of the school.
  - ❖ Evaluation in teacher education should be objective, reliable and valid.
  - ❖ Number of teaching days to be increased to 230.

### Conclusion

Confronted with declining standards, primarily due to expansion of higher education system, the question of quality become critical. Teacher education system is not the exception of it. In the name of development of education for access to maximum, self financing teacher education institutions are mushrooming now a days. The quantitative expansion has been accompanied by qualitative deterioration. There is no single body for setting academic standards, regulating and monitoring of teacher education in the J&K state, as a result of which this extremely important responsibility



is fragmented and divided in peculiar ways. To a large extent it falls in the domain of the department of school education, but colleges of teacher education, including private colleges, come under the administrative control of the department of higher education. This regulation too is divided amongst the university's College Development Council, the Directorate of Colleges, Higher Education, the Directorate of School Education, the J&K BOSE, the SIEs and the J&K BOPEE. In J & K State, there are more than 148 colleges of education with more than 4200 intake of teacher trainees, what would be the fate of quality teacher education if not properly monitored? Most of the colleges of education do not fit on the criteria of transparency and accountability. Effort should be made to see that there is balance between manpower demand and supply to maintain the reasonable standard in teacher education. Quality and quantity should not be compromised with each other. In the competitive world, quality has become buzzword. Quality demands sound infrastructure-physical, financial and manpower. Teacher education programme/curriculum should be improved, modified & updated so that it can meet the challenges of the day.

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## **GENDER RESPONSIVE PEDAGOGICAL DISCOURSES: A CHALLENGE TO TEACHER TRAINING**

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### **Abstract**

Gender equity has been the most prevalent form of prejudice operating across cultures in developed and developing countries. When the present context of gender discourses is analysed, the only tool that is education has the inbuilt prospective of bringing about the social change in the context of gender relations and identities. Keeping in mind these, some very mindful interventions have been put ahead by the Government of India to deliberate on gender equality in education at the centre and state level.

The present paper emphasizes that the main challenge in education has been to put the gender sensitive policies into practice in the classroom, school management, learning environment and implementation of the gender responsive curriculum. The paper suggests that some purposeful efforts need to be put in place to move away from paying lip-service to gender issues of equity and equality and begin to act in a gender sensitive way at all levels from the policy makers to the teacher in the classroom.

**Keywords:** Gender, Pedagogy, Teacher, Training.

### **Introduction**

**T**he **National Policy on Education**, which strengthens education progress and development, is measured as a burst through to address gender issues. The national policy chapter entitled Education for Women's Equality states: "The National Education System will play a positive, dominant role in the empowerment and strengthening of women. It will foster the expansion of new values through redesigned curricula, textbooks, the training and orientation of teachers, decision-makers and administrators, and the active involvement of educational institutions. The removal of women's illiteracy and obstacles inhibiting their access to, and retention in, elementary education will receive overriding priority."

What happens in educational circumstances is at all times exclusive because it is reliant on the intercommunication between teacher and students. The condition

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explicitly includes time/space situation. The rationale of using gender cognizant pedagogical models in the classroom is to motivate self-governing dialogues and make powerful the students through this process. In general, classroom dialogue is based on the controlling role the teachers represent, but vigorous gender pedagogy helps to break the silence in the class room and neutralize the custom of listening only to institution. Thus, knowledge and awareness is created in the classroom by a two-way communication between teachers and students. Conversation through “gender dialogues” target at fulfilling, systematically, deeper meaning of the experiences as well as amplified acceptance of shared experiences that extend in the teaching context.

Research suggests that teachers who are trained on gender issues are better to address personality needs in the classroom of the male and female learners as well as promote their achievement in academics. (Aikman, Unterhalter, & Challender, 2005; “Challenges for Teacher Training”, 2005; Mlama et. al, 2005).

FAWE’s 2005 Teacher’s Manual for Gender- Responsive Pedagogy, suggests that the teacher’s interface manner and pedagogy confines unfair non-verbal or verbal communication; promotes equal questioning of both boys and girls; and highlights strategies for selecting gender neutral textbooks and materials. A ‘gender-responsive pedagogy’ (“Challenges for Teacher Training”, 2005, p. 3), takes into deliberation the particular organic needs during puberty of both girls and boys. It allows for a classroom set-up that promotes the equal participation as well as equal access to all instructive resources.

In the international framework, the classroom pedagogy and day to day discourses and dialogues used by teachers is constantly seen as ‘the vital variable for humanizing learning outcomes’ and is significant in any reform to improve quality (UNESCO, 2005, p.152). Over the last two decades, many developing countries have embarked on major curriculum and pedagogical reforms to meet the EFA goal, often with donor involvement. However, even when well-planned, their implementation and execution has not always been as successful as desired, and evidence suggests that a wide gap exists between the expected goals of curriculum reforms and actual progress achieved in classrooms, schools and numbers of teachers (Chisholm and Leyendecker, 2008 ; Dembélé and Lefoka, 2007; World Bank, 2008).

Kane (2009) studied the role of educators and teachers as Change Agents and concluded that Gender issues are existing in society in all areas of life. To curtail these gender issues we require to start changing the mindsets of the younger age group of humanity as they are those who can bring about further change in society, with their innovative ideas, thoughts and practices. To do this we need good educated teachers who have a sound knowledge regarding gender issues. It has been observed that teachers strengthen gender roles also in the diverse prospect that they have for boys and girls in their classes. Teachers may also generate learning environment in which boys are expectant to succeed while girls are allowed to fail. In acute cases.....What’s

more, many teachers may be completely unaware that they treat girls and boys differently. But none of these habits, when they occur, should be surprising. We all grow up in the midst of the pressure of our family and culture, and as teachers, we may see ourselves, truly, in the role of instilling artistic values in the children in the classrooms.

Woolfolk, Winne and Perry (2009) emphasizes, because of lack of training in gender sensitivity, boys learned that they are more valued and feel comfortable taking risks while girls feel that not much is expected of them and are not as confident in speaking out in the class.

According to Jones (2013) in order to be critical practitioners, we have to route the discourses of what is considered private and personal, of how differences are constructed and the power structures that maintain discrimination and oppression. We need to be able to inspect and remark on our personal and professional histories, our past and current practice, and how problems are collectively constructed.

From the above literature review, it is obvious that a teacher plays a very important part in the early rearing of the children and his/her thoughts and attitude can change the thought processes of young students. A teacher must therefore continuously be aware of the fact that his or her proceedings, approach, performance, viewpoint, approach, mode and mind-set will help to shape a child's gender role and socialisation. He / she may make use of manifold strategy and intervention during pedagogical discourses in the day to day conversation to ensure that students have equal opportunities to both create and obtain their goals. Studies have shown gender differences to have a direct relationship to preferential treatment, classroom dynamics and academic success. Teachers have to be serious about the gender issues and ways to tackle them in the classrooms. For the teachers to bring about a change in the social order they should be given pre hand knowledge over the issue. Teachers need not only gender responsive curriculum and textbooks but also gender impartiality education and training in teacher training institutes.

Gender equity has been the most prevalent form of prejudice operating across cultures in developed and developing countries. When the present context of gender discourses is analysed, the only tool that is education has the inbuilt prospective of bringing about the social change in the context of gender relations and identities. Keeping in mind these, some very mindful interventions have been put ahead by the Government of India to deliberate on gender equality in education at the centre and state level. A milestone proposal was undertaken in 1986, with the enactment of the **National Policy on Education (NPE)** and its revised **Programme of Action 1992**. The philosophy of gender equality has also been initiated in the **National Policy on Empowerment of Women 2001**.

The policy lays emphasis on promoting **gender sensitive curriculum** for addressing and rethinking gender discrimination at all levels of education. The new

draft of National Policy also lays emphasizes on the three E's that is "**Encourage, Educate and Employ**", all irrespective of the socio-economic background.

Gender concerns and issues in education have also been reflected and emphasised time to time in **Curriculum Frameworks** developed National Council of Educational Research and Training (NCERT). In this context, the curriculum frameworks (1975, 1988, 2000 and 2005) have made specific expedition towards gender discrimination in education. The policy of considerable inclusion and equity was the motto of the journey. The National Curriculum Framework (NCF 2005) conveys and articulates a new vision of the school curriculum as a comprehensive space that extends ahead of the conservative textbooks into the sphere of teaching-learning processes and pedagogies. No doubt, this vision and image has the potential to enable education to become a vital catalyst in the process of societal alteration, it fails to fit into place enough with a most imperative and crucial link - **the teacher**. So the missing link in the whole process has been the teacher.

Apart from the National Curriculum Frameworks, many constitutional commitments, policy initiatives, programmes and schemes have been conceptualized by Centre and State Governments at different points of time and various educational levels to address gender barriers in education. Very promising initiatives and schemes like Sarva Shiksha Abhiyaan, Kasturba Gandhi Balika Vidhayalya, National Programme for Education of girls at Elementary level (NPEGEL), Mahila Samakhya, Rashtriya Madhyamik Shiksha Abhiyaan (RMSA) were implemented in the Educational sector but the issue of gender disparity and difference still persists in our country.

The table 1 clearly shows the disparity in terms of enrolment of boys and girls. The enrolment scenario of girls at secondary stage of education is mentioned in Table 1.

The difference depicted in the table in numbers (disparity) may not essentially point out gender inequality but leaves the message behind. The author is of the opinion that there are limitations of gender parity indicators and strongly agrees with the view that prescribed equality measures only numerical gaps between female and male outcomes.

Now at the global level, considering **Education for All (EFA) goal 5**, which aimed to eliminate gender disparities and inequalities in primary and secondary education by 2005 and then aspired to achieve and accomplish gender equality by 2015, it is and should be realized that initiatives and policies on the part of Government only are not sufficient and enough to achieve the desired target but that the teachers are a critical force for meeting the goal at all the levels. Educationists, academicians and faculty greatly influence gender socialization and sensitize and mould gender roles of students, thus having a great impact on excellence of education, quality of life and power allocation in the society.

Keeping in view the above discussion, it is evident that the main challenge in education has been to put the gender sensitive policies into practice in the classroom, school management, learning environment and implementation of the gender responsive curriculum. In addition to this, purposeful efforts need to be put in place to move away from paying lip-service to gender issues of equity and equality and begin to act in a gender sensitive way at all levels from the policy makers to the teacher in the classroom. Meaning hereby is to bridge the gap between policies and teachers. Obviously, any changes in the national curriculum, content of the textbooks, teaching and learning methodologies must be linked up with classroom teachers through orientation and with simultaneous changes in teacher training institutions, as it is not only curriculum content but the teaching learning process that will have a positive impact on boys and girls. As far as Indian scenario is concerned, many teachers have not had the opportunity of receiving gender sensitive training in order to effectively deliver the engendered curriculum. The teacher training curricula also need change and modification as many teacher trainers are still insensitive to gender issues in the pre-service training of teachers.

**Table 1: Gross Enrolment Ratios**

Years	All Categories					
	Class VI-VIII (11-13 Years)		Class IX-X (14-15 Years)		Class XI-XII (16-17 Years)	
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls
2006-07	77.59	69.64	58.57	47.44	31.53	26.09
2007-08	81.48	74.36	62.62	53.23	36.26	30.40
2008-09	82.7	76.6	64.8	55.5	37.2	31.6
2009-10	84.53	78.30	66.65	58.45	38.31	33.31
2010-11	87.7	83.1	69.0	60.8	42.2	36.1
Scheduled Castes						
2006-07	83.14	67.33	58.30	44.57	29.18	21.84
2007-08	82.07	78.08	55.81	48.99	30.12	25.31
2008-09	86.8	83.3	66.2	58.7	35.6	30.7
2009-10	90.51	86.59	71.19	63.50	37.42	33.48
2010-11	93.8	90.6	74.0	67.5	40.3	36.1
Scheduled Tribes						
2006-07	80.22	68.22	47.48	35.49	23.39	14.72
2007-08	81.09	70.16	48.84	37.22	24.25	16.20
2008-09	85.7	76.4	51.7	40.7	27.7	19.4
2009-10	87.81	78.81	54.24	44.22	31.36	22.32
2010-11	90.7	87.0	57.1	49.1	32.7	24.8

Source: Statistics of School Education, MHRD, GOI, New Delhi. Various years' reports

The present article poses many questions to the educators as follows:

- Does the present teacher education system in India challenge or reinforce normative gender discourses through curriculum materials and classroom practices?
- To what extent are gender equality issues included in the current curriculum in the colleges of education?
- How teachers and stakeholders understand "gender sensitive pedagogy"? What do they think gender sensitive pedagogy is and what problems do they think it will solve?
- Do teacher training about curricular/extracurricular activities equally attract the participation of both boys and girls?
- Which gender responsive training components need to be included in teacher training programmes?
- How can teacher education best support effective gender responsive pedagogy?

Course content with respect to gender in colleges of education is another indication that gender issues are not a priority in teacher education in India. Another significant apprehension that has also emerged in the framework of gender receptive pedagogy is the segregation of Educational Research and Teacher Training from the significant research done in the universities on this issue.

#### **Recommendations:**

- Teachers and teacher educators should look at their syllabuses with the outlook of incorporating a gender aspect by:
  - Including the preliminary themes on gender; and
  - Exploring gender issues within some of the topics of existing syllabus.
- That the MHRD in collaboration with other agencies should consider a continuity in funding workshops, or seminars to make students and teacher educators gender sensitive in the area of instructional materials, teaching approaches and classroom management.
- Capacity building centres for teachers and administrators should be established in all the regions.
- That the Ministry of education should build up and share out extensively gender sensitising publications to promote gender awareness and sensitivity in the educational system. These resources should contain important course of action that can be used by any educationist who desires to promote gender consciousness and sensitivity.

The author is working towards the development of a module in the form of publication which may be useful in this context.



### Conclusion:

The intend of this piece of writing is to reproduce on how teaching with gender perspectives (gender conscious pedagogy) in education can sustain students to be more positive about gender issues and, as a result, become gender actors outside the institutions in their personal and working lives. Research argues that, by using a gender conscious pedagogy, teachers can motivate the students to make gender-reflections, create better equality in the classroom, and encourage students to become gender-actors in society at large. So this has implications for students as well as all the stakeholders of education. In the present scenario, mainstreaming gender-responsive pedagogy in teacher training institutes is viewed as a unique way to bridge the gender gap in education. This article in addition will help to raise consciousness, spark deliberations among teachers and support sensitive and fruitful learning environments for students of all genders.

Gender responsive teachers recognize and counter to the explicit requirements of girls and boys in the teaching and learning process. They do this by being conscious of the special needs of girls and boys such as sexual maturation issues and by encouraging equal contribution and involvement of boys and girls in class and school activities and ensuring equal access to learning materials. The major obstruction faced by teachers today is an apparent lack of gender skills for education, yet the ability of the teacher to use gender responsive pedagogy effectively and successfully can be strengthened if the teacher is well equipped in gender responsive teaching skills. The recognition of this gap is addressed in the present article. It provokes the stakeholders to explore the various ways of making the teaching and learning processes respond to the specific needs of girls and boys thereby improving the school environment to enable the girls to develop their potentialities and make contribution towards social good through positive socialisation.

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## EDUCATING CHILDREN IN CONFLICT ZONES

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In today's world, a child who is not educated is disadvantaged in terms of income, health and opportunity. In coming years, a society that does not educate its children will be disabled in terms of the economic productivity and social welfare of its people (Anderson, 1992, p.8). The returns to education at a personal level are high. By the same token, lack of education can be a serious social and economic handicap. Quality schooling gives children a better chance for a full, healthy and secure future. Basic skills such as reading, writing and arithmetic facilitate access to good employment in adulthood, as well as to information essential to both adults and children for solving problems and making important decisions. Education also brings the rewards of confidence and self-esteem associated with achievement and encourages the development of analytical and reasoning powers. Education is a major instrument for change and social development which plays an important role in empowering the child economically and socially and assists the marginalized population out of poverty. Education also provides the children with the means to participate fully in their communities (UNESCO, 2000). Accelerated progress in education is critical for the all round development of any nation and the achievement of the wider Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) in areas such as poverty reduction, nutrition, child survival and maternal health (Psacharopoulos and Woodhall, 1985; Lucas, 1988; Barro, 1991; Mankiw, Romer and Weil, 1992). According to the United Nations Children Fund, education is a fundamental human right and a key factor in reducing poverty and child labour as well as promoting development. The world recognized the importance and improvement in access to all in education systems through various international frameworks that can be traced back to 1948 when the Universal Declaration of Human Rights was adopted. In this bill of rights, article 26 has a provision for a right to education for all. With the objective to provide education to the children and prepare them as the future citizens who will be able to contribute to the process of development of their societies and families and help them live a normal life, hundreds and thousands

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of schools all over the world are providing educational opportunities to the children. Yet, the rough estimates suggest that over 100 million children have no access to primary education.

Education is one of the most important services benefiting children. It contributes not only to cognitive development but also to personal development and overall psycho-social and physical welfare. In conflict zones education provides a structure for children's lives, fosters solidarity among peers and facilitates other important interventions in the field of health and security. Among children it instills a sense of purpose and provides skills essential for the transition to a new existence. At the cessation of conflict, it aids social and economic reconstruction and integration. Conflict has an extremely destructive effect on education, disrupting funding, communications and services and destroying school buildings. The provision of education in conflict areas is among the best ways to mitigate the impact of the crisis on children while building hope for the future. Ensuring quality education in conflict areas provides children with a sense of hope and normalcy when their lives have been disrupted, promotes their psycho-social well being and cognitive development, and lessens the risk that they will be recruited into dangerous activities. In addition, ensuring the continuation of education in emergencies helps protect prior investments made in the education sector and ensures a stronger future for individual students as well as the communities and nations within which they live

Conflicts all over the globe have devastated humanity and the various facets associated with it. Suffering education because of conflict is clear and evident from some of the studies (Seitz, 2004 a, b; Tomlinson and Benefield, 2005 a). The Oxfam Education Report shows that 2/3 of African countries affected by conflicts had enrolment rates of less than 50% (Watkins, 2000). Furthermore, the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) states that countries in conflict are likely to spend less on education. Wars and conflict impair the functioning of education systems and often lead to extensive damage to the original education infrastructure (Seitz, 2004). Education systems should be well geared up to prevent, cope with, deal with the after effects of conflict, and generally contribute to the promotion of non-violent solutions to the wide range of inequalities that have emerged out of recent processes of globalization (Stewart, 2003; Colenso, 2005). One of the best studies carried out by UNESCO Institute for Statistics (2010) reveals the quantitative impact of conflict on education. The study examines the impact of armed conflict on the population of twenty-five countries, finding substantial negative effects of exposure to conflict on educational attainment and literacy. The study also contributes to the growing literature in this field by demonstrating the lasting impact of conflict on education for a large and diverse set of countries.

Although it is easy to demand that children have no place in the world's violent conflicts, the reality is very much different. The latency of tasks undertaken by children

in conflict zones is well known—as are the physical, mental and sexual scars that result. While many children participation in conflicts is forced at the barrel of a gun, other involvement is forced by cruel circumstances and lack of alternatives. Furthermore, it is difficult to extract children from these conditions. Exposure to conflict affects children in several ways, ranging from direct killings and injuries, to more subtle, yet persistent and irreversible effects on schooling, health, nutrition, future opportunities and well-being. Children's educational attainment is particularly compromised by exposure to violence. Conflict-affected countries include over 20% of all children of primary school age, but account for around half of all out-of-school children of primary school age (UNESCO, 2011, 2013). The likelihood of young children dropping out of school is also significantly higher in conflict-affected countries than elsewhere in the world; only 65% of children in these countries attend the last primary school grade, in comparison to 86% across low-income countries. Research has highlighted in particular the causal adverse impact of conflict exposure in terms of reducing the number of years children spend in school (Akresh and De Walque, 2008; Chamarbagwala and Moran, 2009; Merrouche, 2006; UNESCO 2010) and restricting grade progression (Akresh and De Walque, 2008; Alderman, Hodinott and Kinsey, 2006; Justino, Leone and Salardi, 2013; Shemyakina, 2011). These effects have been shown in turn to affect considerably future life prospects of affected children, including access to labour market, earnings and health outcomes in adulthood which may aggravate risks associated with the outbreak or renewal of violent conflicts (Justino, Leone and Salardi, 2013).

In the last decade, 2 million children have been killed in situations of armed conflict, 6 million children have been permanently disabled or injured, over 14 million children have been displaced, and over 1 million have been orphaned and separated from their parents. Over 250,000 children are associated with fighting forces and groups. And every year, 8,000 to 10,000 children are killed or maimed by landmines. The nature and methods of armed conflict means that the fighting takes place in civilians' communities, villages, fields and homes, thus sharply increasing children's risk of harm. While many children are killed by weapons, many more die from the catastrophic impact the conflict has on their communities' infrastructure (often already weak to begin with) and families' access to food, health care and their ability to maintain their livelihoods. Some of the most visible impacts of violent conflict include the destruction of infrastructure, as well as the collapse of government provision of goods and services, including schooling, due to lack of financial resources or the diversion of finances to military efforts (Stewart et al., 2001a, 2001b). Reports from several conflict-affected countries show that schools, teachers and students are often targeted by violent attacks (O'Malley, 2007, 2010; UNESCO 2011). Schools are visible symbols of state presence and teachers are often perceived as leaders in their community, making them easy and visible targets of violence by armed groups intended on controlling populations and territories. As a result, the decision is often

made to close down schools in areas likely to be affected by violence (IANS, 2009; Mulkeen, 2007). In addition, heightened perceptions of violence and insecurity may affect the recruitment of teachers to some areas, and disrupt exam systems, the supply of teaching materials and the development and update of curricula (UNESCO 2011).

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## **PARENTAL ENCOURAGEMENT AND EDUCATIONAL ASPIRATIONS: A CORRELATIONAL STUDY IN RELATION TO THEIR ACADEMIC PERFORMANCE AND GENDER**

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### **Abstract**

Parental Encouragement and Educational Aspiration have been heralded as important phenomena within the growing field of societal progress and related factors. The present research study focuses on the relationship between parental encouragement and educational aspiration among secondary school students in relation to their gender and academic achievement. The sample of the study consisted 650 students of government secondary schools of Jammu division. For the present study standardized tool of parental encouragement by R.R. Sharma was used and academic achievement of students was assessed from their previous class school result records. The data were collected from 6 districts of Jammu division by using stratified random sampling technique. The statistical techniques used for data analysis was Pearson's product moment method. The findings of the study revealed significant positive relationship between the variables of parental encouragement and educational aspiration of male and female students having low and high academic achievement. Also significant difference in relationship of parental encouragement and educational aspiration of secondary school male female students having low and high academic achievement. The implication of the study goes mainly to parents.

**Key words:** Parental encouragement, Educational aspiration

### **Introduction**

Parents play a critical role in the development of the adolescent's aspirations that will succeed in college, career and life endeavours. It is the period of adolescents during the high school years that students begin to find their way in life. They discover their interests, aspirations and dreams. When parents take a genuine interest in the discovery process, the bond between parents and children can be greatly strengthened,

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if the student is moving in any positive direction, parents should try to support them. When parents expect and demand that their children be like them, disappointment and anger will often follow. Each child must become his/her own person and find their own path to their dreams. Parents should learn and try to understand their hopes and aspirations.

Researchers have thoroughly studied students' educational aspirations and identified a number of factors that affect variation in these aspirations. Among the strongest predictors of students' educational aspirations are the educational aspirations students' parents have for them (Flint 1992). In fact, students' educational aspirations, their achievement, and their attainment are positively affected by the educational aspirations their parents have for them (De Civita, Pagani, Vitaro, & Tremblay, 2004). Parents who have high educational aspirations for their children are more likely than parents without high educational aspirations to have children who: have high educational aspirations, do well in school, and attain higher education degrees. Educational aspirations are influenced by multiple intrapersonal and systemic factors (Gottfredson, 2002). Some individual factors related to students' aspiration include their level of intrapersonal skills, self-reliance, self-control, self-concept and low mature responsibility (Marjoribans, 2002). Systematic variables related to educational aspirations include students' socio-economic status (SES), the level of family's engagement in their children's education, ethnicity, race, familiar aspiration and level of parental education.

The present study discusses an entitled correlational study of parental encouragement and educational aspiration. It talks about the secondary school students those were the unit of information for the present study and how gender and academic achievement were connected to student's educational aspiration and parental encouragement.

### **Review and related literature**

Educational aspirations are one of the most important factors contributing to an adolescent's educational achievement and play an important role in explaining group differences in socioeconomic attainment (Stanton-Salazar and Dornbusch, 1995). High levels of parental encouragement, mostly referred to parental involvement, measured by knowledge of the child's activities in school and frequent contact with the school, have positive effects on children's academic achievement (Kao, 1995). It was indicated that there is a gap between what parents aspire and expect for their children's educational attainment and the knowledge of what it will take for that dream to become a reality (Jacob, M. J. 2010). The lower parental education group, parent academic involvement was related to aspirations but not to behavior or achievement. Parent academic involvement was positively related to achievement for African Americans but not for European Americans (Hill, N. E. et al 2004). Parental involvement, among other variables, explained some variance in first-generation

students' educational aspirations (Pagliarulo,2004). (Singh and Singh 2008) found that good parent child relationship brings a belief of security in children and adolescents. They can count on their parents to help them out, if they have some problem. Such feeling bring positive attitude towards life and surroundings. Children who have such relations with parents have less risk of internalized problems such as feelings of confusion,depression and loneliness.Significant relationships were existed in parenting styles, educational encouragement and academic achievement among special educational students. Educational encouragement from mother, father, sibling and friends, ethnicity and gender were found to be significant predictors for academic achievement(Khan et.al.2014).

There are so many researchers are also conducted researches in this field as above mentioned review of literature. The researcher after studying these researches noticed that no doubt various researches have been conducted on Parental Encouragement and Educational aspiration but less emphasis have been laid on correlational study between these two variables. This encouraged the investigator to take up correlational study of Parental Encouragement and Educational aspiration of students in relation to gender and Academic Achievement with the intentions that the findings of the study will go in a long way to analyse that Parents or caregivers can build up positive relations with students.

### **Significance of the study**

Parental encouragement is one of the aspects of parent treatment patterns. In the encouragement the parents help the child in such a way that he may not feel disheartened at a particular point of difficulty. Parental involvement and encouragement have influences on aspirations and education of the students.Through this study schools can arrange for counselling of parents whose children are low educational aspiration. The general parent community through this study can correct themselves right from the grassroots level i.e. parenting with a positive and healthy approach can guide their children in more polished atmosphere.The study has implication for parents. Parents in particular have been seen as the most significant others in shaping aspirations because they provide the opportunities, encouragement and support for their children's learning.

### **Objectives of the study**

1. To study relationship between parental encouragement and educational aspiration among secondary school male students.
2. To study relationship between parental encouragement and educational aspiration among secondary school female students.
3. To study relationship between parental encouragement and educational aspiration among secondary school students having low academic achievement.



4. To study relationship between parental encouragement and educational aspiration among secondary school students having high academic achievement.
5. To study difference in relationship between male and female secondary school students with respect to their parental encouragement and educational aspiration.
6. To study difference in relationship between low and high achievers of secondary school students with respect to their parental encouragement and educational aspiration.

### **Hypotheses of the study**

On the basis of objectives of the study following hypotheses were drawn

1. There will be no significant relationship between parental encouragement and educational aspiration among secondary school male students.
2. There will be no significant relationship between parental encouragement and educational aspiration among secondary school female students.
3. There will no significant relationship between parental encouragement and educational aspiration among secondary school students having low academic achievement.
4. There will be no significant relationship between parental encouragement and educational aspiration among secondary school students having high academic achievement.
5. There will be no significant difference in relationship between male and female secondary school students with respect to their parental encouragement and educational aspiration.
6. There will be no significant difference in relationship between low and high achievers of secondary school students with respect to their parental encouragement and educational aspiration.

### **Population and Sample**

The population of the present investigation was 10<sup>th</sup> class students studying in Government secondary schools of Jammu Division. There are total 10 districts of Jammu division. Out of 10 districts 6 were selected randomly namely Jammu, Kathua, Samba, Reasi, Ramban and Udhampur and all the 10<sup>th</sup> class students studying in these districts was the target population of present study. The sample of the present study was 650 students of 10<sup>th</sup> class which were selected by proportionate stratified random sampling technique. To obtain proportionate stratified sampling investigator took boys and girls from all the six districts by equally proportionate randomization.

### **Tools used**

In the present study, the investigator used the following tools:-

1. Level of Educational Aspiration test by YasminGhani Khan.
2. Parental Encouragement Scale by R. R. Sharma.
3. Academic achievement-In the present investigation academic achievement constitutes the aggregate marks obtained by the students in their previous class.

### Results and Discussion

**Table-1. Value of coefficient of correlation between Parental Encouragement and Educational Aspiration among secondary school students**

Variables	Group	<i>N</i>	<i>r</i>
Parental Encouragement and Educational Aspiration	Male	329	0.39**
	Female	320	0.57**
	Low Achievers	172	0.4**
	High Achievers	165	0.56**

\*Significant at 0.05 level

\*\*Significant at 0.01 level

Table 1 revealed that the value of co-efficient of correlation computed between parental encouragement and educational aspiration using Pearson's Produce Moment Method for co-efficient of correlation male students of secondary school is to .39 which was positive and significant at 0.01. This means that there is significant positive relationship between the variables of parental encouragement and educational aspiration of male students studying in secondary schools. Hence the hypothesis there will be no significant relationship between Parental encouragement and educational aspiration among secondary school students was not retained.

Table 1 also revealed that the value of co-efficient of correlation computed between parental encouragement and educational aspiration using Pearson's Produce Moment Method for co-efficient of correlation of female students of secondary school is to .57 which was positive and significant at 0.01. This means that there is significant positive relationship between the variables of parental encouragement and educational aspiration of male students studying in secondary schools. Hence the hypothesis there will be no significant relationship between Parental encouragement and educational aspiration among secondary school female students was not retained.

Table 1 revealed that the value of co-efficient of correlation computed between parental encouragement and educational aspiration using Pearson's Produce Moment Method for co-efficient of correlation of students of secondary schools having low

academic achievement is to 0.4 which was positive and significant at 0.01. This means that there is significant positive relationship between the variables of parental encouragement and educational aspiration of students studying in secondary schools having low academic achievement. Hence the hypothesis there will be no significant relationship between Parental encouragement and educational aspiration among secondary school students was not retained.

Table 1 revealed that the value of co-efficient of correlation computed between parental encouragement and educational aspiration using Pearson's Product Moment Method for co-efficient of correlation of students of secondary school having high academic achievement is to .56 which was positive and significant at 0.01. This means that there is significant positive relationship between the variables of parental encouragement and educational aspiration of students studying in secondary schools having high academic achievement. Hence the hypothesis there will be no significant relationship between Parental encouragement and educational aspiration among secondary school students having high academic achievement was not retained.

It can thus be said that the variables parental encouragement and educational aspiration are directly related to each other. That is with the increase in the parental encouragement i.e. educational aspiration increase. This finding are similar to the results drawn by Parental involvement, among other variables, explained some variance in first-generation students' educational aspirations (Pagliarulo, 2004) and (Singh and Singh 2008) found that good parent child relationship brings a belief of security in children and adolescents. They can count on their parents to help them out, if they have some problem. Such feeling bring positive attitude towards life and surroundings.

**Table 2. Showing Critical Ratio of Relationship of Parental Encouragement and Educational Aspiration of Male and Female students of secondary schools**

S. No.	Variables	R	Fisher's $z$	$\sigma_{Dz}$	C.R.
01.	Male	0.39	0.41	0.077	2.33*
02.	Female	0.57	0.65		

\*Significant at 0.05 level

\*\*Significant at 0.01 level

Table 2 clearly reflects that the critical ratio of relationship of parental encouragement and educational aspiration of male and female of secondary school is significant at 0.05 level of significance. As calculated value of C.R. (i.e. 2.33) is greater than 1.96 which is table value at 0.05 level. Therefore it can be said that male and female of secondary school differ significantly in their relationship of parental encouragement and educational aspiration. So the hypothesis which states that there

will be no significant difference in relationship of parental encouragement and educational aspiration of male and female secondary school students was not accepted.

**Table 3: Showing Critical Ratio of Relationship of Parental Encouragement and Educational Aspiration of secondary school students having low and high academic achievement**

S. No.	Variables	R	Fisher's $z$	$\sigma_{Dz}$	C.R.
01.	Low Achievers	0.4	0.42	0.11	2.18*
02.	High Achievers	0.56	0.66		

\*Significant at 0.05 level

\*\*Significant at 0.01 level

Table 3 clearly reflects that the critical ratio of relationship of parental encouragement and educational aspiration of secondary school students having low and high academic achievement is significant at 0.05 level of significance. As calculated value of C.R. (i.e. 2.18) is greater than 1.96 which is table value at 0.05 level. Therefore it can be said that secondary school students having low and high academic achievement differ significantly in their relationship of parental encouragement and educational aspiration. So the hypothesis which states that there will be no significant difference in relationship of parental encouragement and educational aspiration of secondary school students having low and high academic achievement was not accepted.

### Conclusions

The findings of the study revealed significant positive relationship between the variables of parental encouragement and educational aspiration of male and female students having low and high academic achievement. Also significant difference in relationship of parental encouragement and educational aspiration of secondary school male female students having low and high academic achievement. It can thus be said that the variables parental encouragement and educational aspiration are directly related to each other. Thus parental encouragement is very necessary for the educational aspiration of the students.

No, doubt, there is a great loving among the students to receive education from the every corner of the society, therefore the need is that the aspirations of the youth should be properly channelized by our educational institutions as well as by other agencies. This quality of the youth should be nurtured carefully and duly. Otherwise the students will use this passion negatively in any direction. Awareness should be provided to parents and families through awareness camps, seminars or workshops to provide encouragement to their children for better results in education.

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## **A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF KASHMIRI AND DOGRI ADOLESCENT GIRLS ON EMORIONAL INTELLIGENCE**

*Saima Gazanfar\**

### **Abstract**

The study was conducted with an objective to study and compare the Kashmiri and Dogri adolescent girls on Emotional Intelligence. A sample of 100 Kashmiri and 100 Dogri adolescent girls falling in the age group of 15-16 years studying in class 10<sup>th</sup> in government secondary schools in Srinagar Jammu district respectively were drawn on random basis. Anukool Hyde & Sanjyot Pethe's Emotional Intelligence Scale was used to collect the data. The data were analyzed using Mean, S.D, and t-test. The results revealed that there is no significant difference between Kashmiri and Dogri Adolescent girls on Emotional Intelligence.

**Keywords:** Emotional Intelligence, Kashmiri Adolescent girls, Dogri Adolescent girls

### **Introduction**

Emotional Intelligence is the ability to recognize your own emotions and understand what they are telling you and how these emotions affect those you interact with. It is also how you perceive others. Usually people with emotional intelligence know how to handle their own relationships better than other. They realize that emotions change the outcome of things for better or worse.

Cooper and Sawaf (1997) define Emotional intelligence as the ability to sense, understand and effectively apply the power and acumen of emotions as a source of human energy, information, connection and influence. Meyer and Salovey (1993) define Emotional Intelligence as the ability to monitor one's and others feeling and emotions to discriminate among them, and to use this information to guide one's thinking and action. Emotional Intelligence involves the ability to perceive accurately, appraise, and express emotions; the ability to access and/or generate feelings when they facilitate thoughts, the ability to understand emotions and emotional knowledge and intellectual growth.

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The mosaic of ethnic group in Jammu and Kashmir State is complex and the race structure cannot be explained without understanding the pre-historic movements of people. The history of peopling of Jammu and Kashmir state is a record of constant impulses of immigration from the North-West, West, South and East direction. In the process of peopling of the region, the Dards in the North-West, the Ladakhis in the East, the Gujjars and Rajputs in the South and Paharis in the South-East have closely influenced the existing ethnicity of the people.

The various ethnic groups of the Jammu and Kashmir State though intermingled have their areas of high concentration. For example, Kashmiris are mainly concentrated in the Valley bottom; Dards occupy the valley of Gurez; Hanjis are confined to water bodies of Kashmir; Gujjars and Bakarwals are living and oscillating in the Kandi areas; Dogras occupy the outskirts of the Punjab plain, while Chibhalis and Paharis live between Chenab and Jhelum rivers. Moreover, there are numerous small ethnic groups like Rhotas, Gaddis and Sikhs which have significant concentration in isolated pockets of the State.

Kashmiris are well spread in various parts of the State but their major concentration lies in the Valley of Kashmir, Kishtwar, Bhadarwah, Doda and Ramban tehsils of Jammu Division.

On the outskirts of the Siwaliks facing the plain of Punjab is the habitat of Dogras a distinctive ethnic group of Jammu Division. There is controversy among the social anthropologists about their origin. The major concentration of Dogras however, occurs between the two holy lakes i. e. Saroinsar and Mansar. Lake Saroinsar is at a distance of 38 kms to the east and Mansar 64 kms to the west of Jammu city.

#### **Statement of Problem**

The research problem undertaken for the study has been stated as "*Emotional Intelligence Kashmiri and Dogri Adolescent Girls*".

#### **Objective of the Study**

The following objectives were framed for the present study:

To compare and study Kashmiri and Dogri Adolescent Girls on various dimensions of Emotional Intelligence.

#### **Hypothesis**

The following hypotheses were formulated for the present study:

There is significant difference between Kashmiri and Dogri Adolescent Girls on composite score of Emotional Intelligence.

### Operational Definitions of Terms and Variables

The following are the operational definition of terms and variables for the present study:

**Emotional Intelligence:** Emotional Intelligence is operationally defined as the scores which the subjects obtain on “Anukool Hyde & Sanjyot Pethe’s” Emotional Intelligence Scale (2001).

### Sample

The present study was conducted on a sample of 100 adolescents Kashmiri Girls and 100 Adolescent Dogri Girls falling in the age group of 15-16 years studying in class 10<sup>th</sup> in Government secondary schools of Srinagar and Jammu district respectively. The sample was drawn on random basis.

### Procedure

In order to achieve the objectives of the present study, the investigator visited 10 high and higher secondary schools (5 Jammu and 5 Srinagar) and collected the data through random sampling technique. Anukools & Hyde Emotional Intelligence scale consisting of 10 dimensions viz. Self-Awareness, Empathy, Self Motivation, Emotional Stability, Managing-Relations, Integrity, Self-Development, Value Orientation, Commitment and Altruistic Behaviour were administered to measure the Emotional Intelligence of Kashmiri and Dogri Adolescent Girls.

The data collected was subjected to the following statistical treatment.

- Percentage statistics.
- Mean
- S.D
- T-test

The statistical analysis of data has been carried out along the following lines:-

- A. Descriptive analysis
- B. Comparative study

**Table 1: Showing the Distribution of Sample Subjects on various levels of Emotional Intelligence among Kashmiri Adolescent Girls.**

Range of scores	Category	Percentage
154 & above	High Emotional Intelligence	0%
124-153	Above Average Emotional Intelligence	24%
94-123	Average Emotional Intelligence	65%
64-93	Below Emotional Intelligence	11%
34-63	Poor Emotional Intelligence	0%



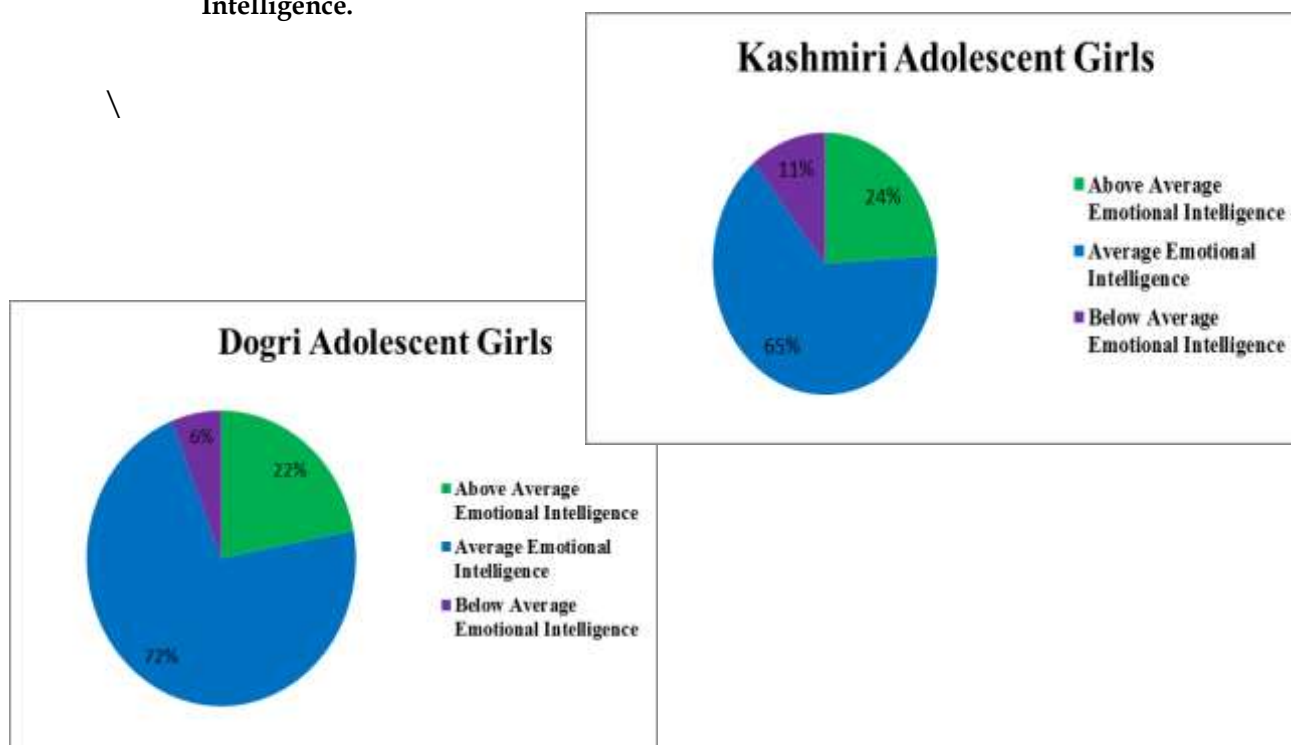
The perusal of above table shows that no Kashmiri Adolescent Girl falls in category of High Emotional Intelligence, 24% fall in Above Average Emotional Intelligence, 65% in Average Emotional Intelligence, 11% in Below Average Emotional Intelligence, no Kashmiri Adolescent Girl falls in the category of Poor Emotional Intelligence.

**Table 2: Showing the Distribution of Sample Subjects on various levels of Emotional Intelligence among Dogri Adolescent Girls.**

Range of scores	Category	Percentage
154 & above	High Emotional Intelligence	0%
124-153	Above Average Emotional Intelligence	22%
94-123	Average Emotional Intelligence	72%
64-93	Below Emotional Intelligence	06%
34-63	Poor Emotional Intelligence	0%

The above table indicates that no Dogri Adolescent Girl falls in category of High Emotional Intelligence, 22% in Above Average Emotional Intelligence, 72% in Average Emotional Intelligence, 06% in Below Average Emotional Intelligence, no Dogri Adolescent Girl falls in the category of Poor Emotional Intelligence.

**Fig.1: Comparison of Kashmiri and Dogri Sample subjects on various levels of Emotional Intelligence.**



## B COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS

The foregoing tables reveal the Comparative analysis on Emotional Intelligence among Kashmiri and Dogri Adolescent girls.

**Table 3: Comparison of Kashmiri and Dogri Adolescents Girls on Self Awareness Dimension of Emotional Intelligence.**

Group	N	Mean	S.D	t-value	Level of significance
Kashmiri Girls	100	12.86	2.50	3.45	Sig. at 0.01 level
Dogri Girls	100	13.97	2.03		

The above table shows that the Kashmiri and Dogri Adolescent Girls differ significantly, on Self Awareness dimension of Emotional Intelligence. The obtained t-value is (3.45) which is greater than the tabulated t-value at 0.01 level of significance. Since the calculated mean favors Dogri girls, thus it becomes clear that the Dogri Girls in comparison to Kashmiri Girls are more aware of themselves. They have a clear perception of their personality, including strengths, weakness, thoughts, beliefs, motivation and emotions. They believe in themselves. They have clear priorities and are able to built rapport and make and maintain personal friendship with their classmates.

**Table 4: Comparison of Kashmiri and Dogri Adolescent Girls on Empathy Dimension of Emotional Intelligence.**

Group	N	Mean	S.D	t-value	Level of significance
Kashmiri Girls	100	15.35	2.56	5.02	Sig. at 0.01 level
Dogri Girls	100	13.59	2.40		

The perusal of above table reveals the significance of mean difference between Kashmiri Adolescent Girls and Dogri Adolescent Girls on Empathy Dimension of Emotional Intelligence. Since the calculated t-value (5.02) exceeds the t -tabulated /critical value at 0.01 levels. The mean difference favours Kashmiri Adolescent Girls. The result makes it clear that Kashmiri Girls pay more attention to the worries and concerns of others and can listen to someone without urge to say something. They try to see the others point of view. They are able to stay focused even under pressure and are able to handle multiple demands.

**Table 5: Comparison of Kashmiri and Dogri Adolescents Girls on Self Motivation Dimension of Emotional Intelligence.**

Group	N	Mean	S.D	t-value	Level of significance
Kashmiri Girls	100	21.24	3.40	0.49	Not Significant.
Dogri Girls	100	20.98	4.03		

The perusal of above table reveals the significance of mean difference between Kashmiri Adolescent Girls and Dogri Adolescent Girls on Self Motivation dimension of Emotional Intelligence. The above table reveals that there is no significant difference between Kashmiri and Dogri Adolescent Girls, which indicate that the both the groups exhibited similar type of Self Motivation.

**Table 6: Comparison of Kashmiri and Dogri Adolescent Girls on Emotional Stability Dimension of Emotional Intelligence.**

Group	N	Mean	S.D	t-value	Level of significance
Kashmiri Girls	100	13.00	2.80	2.66	Sig. at 0.01 level
Dogri Girls	100	14.15	3.30		

The above table shows that there is significant difference between the two groups, on Emotional Stability Dimension of Emotional Intelligence. Since the calculated t- value (2.66) exceeds the tabulated t-value at 0.01 level of significance. Since the calculated mean favours Dogri Adolescent Girls, thus it becomes clear that Dogri Girls do not mix unnecessary emotions with issues at hand, are able to stay composite in both good and bad situations, are comfortable and open to novel ideas and information and are persistent in pursuing goals despite of obstacles and setbacks.

**Table 7: Comparison of Kashmiri and Dogri Adolescent Girls on Managing Relations Dimension of Emotional Intelligence.**

Group	N	Mean	S.D	t-value	Level of significance
Kashmiri Girls	100	13.80	2.71	1.41	Not sig.
Dogri Girls	100	14.37	3.00		

A glance at the above table shows that there is no significance mean difference between Kashmiri and Dogri Adolescent Girls on Managing Relations Dimension of Emotional Intelligence. The results indicate that the both groups showed similar level of Managing Relations. Both the groups can encourage others to work even when things are not favorable and can see brighter side of their situation.

**Table 8: Comparison of Kashmiri and Dogri Adolescent Girls on Integrity Dimension of Emotional Intelligence.**

Group	N	Mean	S.D	t-value	Level of significance
Kashmiri Girls	100	10.00	2.31	3.03	Sig. at 0.01 level
Dogri Girls	100	8.99	2.40		

The above table shows the significance of mean difference between Kashmiri and Dogri Adolescent Girls on Integrity Dimension of Emotional Intelligence. The calculated t-value exceeds the tabulated t-value at 0.01 level of significance. The calculated mean favours the Kashmiri Adolescent Girls. Thus it becomes clear that Kashmiri Adolescent Girls stand up for their beliefs, are found more goal oriented and are more aware of their weakness as compared to Dogri Girls.

**Table 9: Comparison of Kashmiri and Dogri Adolescent Girls on Self Development Dimension of Emotional Intelligence.**

Group	N	Mean	S.D	t-value	Level of significance
Kashmiri Girls	100	7.16	1.45	0.47	Not Significant.
Dogri Girls	100	7.05	1.83		

The perusal of the above table shows the significance of mean difference between Kashmiri and Dogri Adolescent Girls on Self Development dimension of Emotional Intelligence scale. The above table reveals that there is no significant mean difference between the Kashmiri and Dogri Adolescent Girls which indicate that both the groups displayed almost similar type of Self Development.

**Table 10: Comparison of Kashmiri and Dogri Adolescent Girls on Value Orientation Dimension of Emotional Intelligence.**

Group	N	Mean	S.D	t-value	Level of significance
Kashmiri Girls	100	7.10	1.60	4.45	Sig. at 0.01 level
Dogri Girls	100	6.06	1.70		

The details of above table shows the mean difference between Kashmiri and Dogri Adolescent Girls are statistically significant at 0.01 levels, because calculated t-value (4.45) exceeds the tabulated t-value at 0.01 level of significance. From the above table it is clear that the mean difference favours Kashmiri Adolescent Girls. This signifies that Kashmiri Adolescent Girls are able to confront unethical action of other's and are able to maintain the standard of honesty and integrity.

**Table 11: Comparison of Kashmiri and Dogri Adolescent Girls on Commitment Dimension of Emotional Intelligence.**

Group	N	Mean	S.D	t-value	Level of significance
Kashmiri Girls	100	6.05	1.98	5.40	Sig. at 0.01 level
Dogri Girls	100	7.48	1.76		

The perusal of above table shows the mean difference between Kashmiri and Dogri Adolescent Girls are statistically significant at 0.01 levels, because calculated t-value (5.40) exceeds the tabulated t-value at 0.01 level of significance. From above table it becomes clear that the mean difference favours Dogri Adolescent Girls. The results of the above table depicts that the Dogri Adolescent Girls are able to meet Commitments and keep promises and are more organized and careful in their work as compared to Kashmiri Adolescents Girls.

**Table 12: Comparison of Kashmiri and Dogri Adolescent Girls on Altruistic Behaviour Dimension of Emotional Intelligence.**

Group	N	Mean	S.D	t-value	Level of significance
Kashmiri Girls	100	7.00	1.72	4.73	Sig. at 0.01 level
Dogri Girls	100	5.89	1.60		

The above table shows the mean difference between Kashmiri and Dogri Adolescent Girls are statistically significant at 0.01 levels, because calculated t-value (4.73) exceeds the tabulated t-value at 0.01 level of significance. From above table it becomes clear that the mean difference favours Kashmiri Adolescent Girls. Kashmiri Adolescent Girls are able to encourage people to take initiative and can handle conflicts around them. They are more concerned for the welfare of others and show self sacrifice for the benefit of others.

**Table 13: Comparison of Kashmiri and Dogri Adolescent Girls on Composite Score of Emotional Intelligence.**

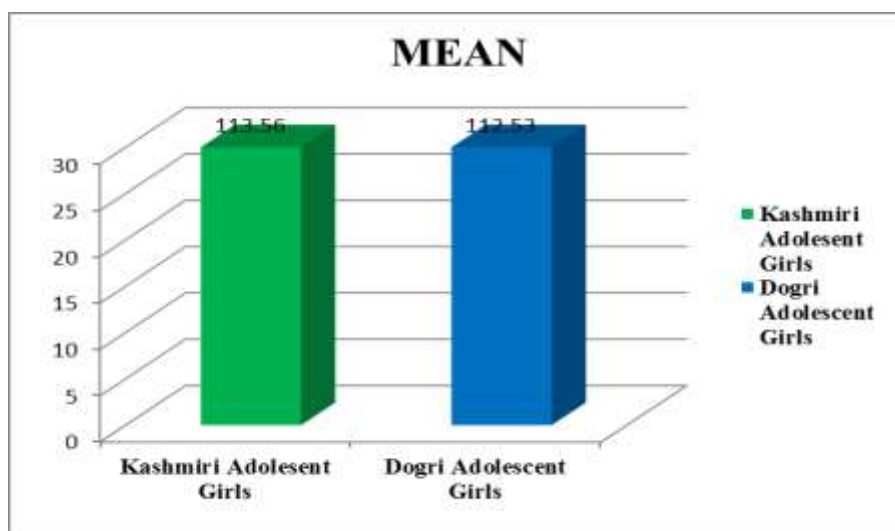
Group	N	Mean	S.D	t-value	Level of significance
Kashmiri Girls	100	113.56	11.93	0.62	Not Significant
Dogri Girls	100	112.53	11.40		

The perusal of the above table shows that there is no significant mean difference between Kashmiri and Dogri Adolescent Girls on Composite score of Emotional Intelligence. Which indicate that both the groups displayed similar type of Emotional Intelligence.

In view of the above mentioned results the hypothesis which reads as, “There is significant mean difference between Kashmiri and Dogri Adolescent Girls on Composite score of Emotional Intelligence” stands partially rejected.

The data analyzed reveals that there is no significant difference between Kashmiri Adolescent Girls and Dogri Adolescent Girls on Self Motivation, Managing Relation and Self Development dimensions of Emotional Intelligence and on Composite Score of Emotional Intelligence. The results reveal that Kashmiri Adolescent Girls possess High Degree of Empathy, Integrity, Value Orientation and Altruistic behavior. Kashmiri Adolescent Girls pay attention to the worries and concerns of others. They listen to someone without the urge to say something. They try to see the other person’s point of view and are able to focus even under pressure. They are able to handle multiple demands. They stand up for their belief and are more aware of their weaknesses. They pursue goals beyond what is required and expected of them. They are able to maintain the standard of honesty and are able to confront unethical actions of others. They are able to encourage people to take initiatives. In comparison, Dogri Adolescent Girls possess High Degree of Self Awareness, Emotional Stability and have more commitment than Kashmiri Adolescent Girls. Dogri Adolescent Girls continue to do what they believe in even under severe criticism. They have their priorities clear and believe in themselves. They build and maintain personal friendships with work associates. They do not mix unnecessary emotions with issues at hand and are able to stay composed in both good and bad situation. They are more comfortable and open to novel ideas and new information. They are able to meet commitments and keep promises and are more organized and careful in their work.

**Fig 2: Comparison of Kashmiri and Dogri Adolescent Girls on Composite Score of Emotional Intelligence.**



## Discussion of the Results

The discussion of the results based on the analysis and interpretation of the data is presented in the forgoing pages. The results are discussed as under:

1. Comparison of Kashmiri Adolescent Girls and Dogri Adolescent Girls on Composite score of Emotional Intelligence.

### Comparison of Kashmiri and Dogri Adolescent Girls on Emotional Intelligence.

Both Kashmiri and Dogri Adolescent Girls were compared on ten dimensions of Emotional Intelligence scale viz. Self-Awareness, Empathy, Self Motivation, Emotional Stability, Managing-Relations, Integrity, Self-Development, Value Orientation, Commitment and Altruistic Behaviour. It was found that Dogri Adolescent Girls displayed more Self Awareness, Emotional stability and Commitment, than Kashmiri Adolescent Girls. It was found that Kashmiri Adolescent Girls showed better Empathy, Integrity, Value orientation and Altruistic Behaviour in comparison to Dogri Adolescent Girls. It was also found that both Kashmir and Dogri Adolescent Girls possess similar type of Self Motivation, Managing Relations and Self Development. No significant difference was found on over all Emotional Intelligence. Since very few studies have been conducted on Emotional Intelligence so far. Thus the results are not inline with the investigations carried out by Khan & Ishfaq (2013), Nisar Ahmad Bhat (2010) and Singh (2010). These investigators have revealed that there is significant difference of Emotional Intelligence among Adolescents with reference to Socio-Economic status, Gender (Male/Female), Type of school (Private/Government) and Locality (Rural/Urban).

## Conclusions

On the basis of the data analysis the following conclusions have been draw out from the present study:

1. The study revealed that no Kashmiri Adolescent Girl falls in category of High Emotional Intelligence, 24% fall in Above Average Emotional Intelligence, 65% in Average Emotional Intelligence, 11% in Below Average Emotional Intelligence, no Kashmiri Adolescent Girl falls in the category of Poor Emotional Intelligence, while as no Dogri Adolescent Girl falls in category of High Emotional Intelligence, 22% in Above Average Emotional Intelligence, 72% in Average Emotional Intelligence, 06% in Below Average Emotional Intelligence, no Dogri Adolescent Girl falls in the category of Poor Emotional Intelligence.
2. It was also found that Dogri Adolescent Girls displayed more self Awareness than Kashmiri Adolescent Girls. Dogri Girls have a clear perception of their personality including strengths, weakness, thoughts, beliefs, motivation and emotions.



3. It was found that Kashmiri Adolescent Girls showed better Empathy dimension of Emotional Intelligence in comparison to Dogri Adolescent Girls. Kashmiri Adolescent Girls are able to stay focused even under pressure and try to understand other's point of view.
4. It was found that both Kashmir Adolescent Girls and Dogri Adolescent Girls possess similar type of Self Motivation dimension of Emotional Intelligence. Both the groups are able to make intelligent decision using a healthy balance of emotions and reasons.
5. It has also been found that Dogri Adolescent Girls showed more Emotional Stability dimension of Emotional Intelligence than Kashmiri Adolescent Girls. Dogri Adolescent Girls do not mix unnecessary emotions with issues at hand they are persistent in pursuing goals despite of obstacles and setbacks.
6. It was found that both Kashmiri and Dogri Adolescent Girls are good at Managing Relations dimension of Emotional Intelligence. Both are perceived as friendly and outgoing.
7. It was found that Kashmiri Adolescent Girls displayed more Integrity as compared to Dogri Adolescent Girls. Kashmiri Adolescent Girls stand for their beliefs and know their weakness and pursue goals beyond what is required and expected of them.
8. It was found that both Kashmiri and Dogri Adolescent Girls showed similar type of Self Development dimension of Emotional Intelligence. Both are able to identify and separate emotions.
9. It was found that Kashmiri Adolescent Girls showed more Value Orientation dimension of Emotional Intelligence than Dogri Adolescent Girls. Kashmiri Adolescent Girls are able to confront unethical action of others, and able to maintain the standards of honesty and integrity.
10. It was found that Dogri Adolescent Girls are able to keep commitments than Kashmiri Adolescent girls. Dogri Adolescent Girls are more committed and able to keep promises. They are organized and careful about their work than Kashmiri Adolescent Girls.
11. It was found that Kashmiri Adolescent Girls displayed better Altruistic Behavior dimension of Emotional Intelligence than Dogri Adolescent Girls. They are more concerned for the welfare of others and show self sacrifice for the benefit of others, are able to encourage people to take initiative and can handle conflicts around them.



12. It was found that both Kashmiri Adolescent Girls and Dogri Adolescent Girls showed similar type of Emotional Intelligence.

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## **CAREER ORIENTATION AMONG SENIOR SECONDARY GIRL STUDENTS IN RELATION TO THE LOCATION OF SCHOOL AND STREAM**

*Aman\**

### **Abstract**

The present study was intended to investigate the Career Orientation among Senior Secondary Girl Students in relation to the Location of School and Stream. In the present scenario girls seem to be more career oriented and are enrolling themselves in almost all types of courses may be academic or professional. With the immense increase in privatization and vast developments, the options for career have also increased but the aspirants have to pay heavily to get admitted in such private institutes. Therefore, the main thing which demands attention is that whether the girls from rural areas also aware about these options or it is confined only to the children of well to do or so called urbanized families. Hence, in the present study an attempt has been made to find out whether the girls belonging to rural background are also as much career oriented as those from urban background. One more factor which has been given preference in the present investigation is the 'stream', that means whether the course which a particular student is studying, influences their awareness about their future career options or not. Thus, it seems that the outcomes of the present investigation will be very helpful for students, teachers, educationists and policy planners.

**Keywords:** Career Orientation, Location of school and Stream.

### **Introduction**

Women constitute half of the country's population and it is abundantly clear that there can be no development unless their needs and interests are fully taken into account. The Sanskrit Phrase: - "*Yatra Narayasto Pujayante Ramante Tatre Devata*" implies that, worship of women is equal to worship of God. However, the women in general lost their high status because of certain social and historical factors. Women were economically, socially, politically or in religious rituals completely dependant on man. There was no-life for her outside the home. The above image of women therefore,

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is not a mirror image of Indian women-hood, but only an opportunity of it. However, as has already been observed, the changing socio-economic and political scenario has also changed the value system of Indian society compelling women to work as productive member in economically important areas outside the four walls of house. For the accomplishment of this purpose, education has plays a vital role, No society can progress unless the women are educated, *“Educate a boy and you educate an individual. Educate a girl and you educate whole family”*.

Women are the inspiring force and genius of the home. They can build a new nation and can mould rather new era in history of mankind.

### **Women and Career Orientation**

Last century has witness Indian Women in a new persona. She is now adopting a career of her own and sharing equally with man the responsibility for the development of society in all aspects. An earning woman is an asset for the family and her income provide the desired independence and confidence.

The term ‘career’ has several meanings which vary with the user. Popular usage treats it as a synonym for ‘occupation’ a misuse of the terms. In the scientific study of work and of people it has been given a more special meaning in keeping with its origin as a word, and denotes the sequence of positions occupied by a person during the course of a life time. Vocational psychologists tend to use ‘career’ briefly for ‘occupational career’ (Super 1957). Three major types of definitions of career are found. The first emphasizes notable achievement in any occupation, the second any pattern of occupational change and the third a succession of related occupations that are hierarch and arranged and through which a worker raise in an ordered sequence. The last definition most closely corresponds to the historic case of the world.

Why have women in India started taking up careers and since when? Some of us think that it has been due to the impact of Western Education. But the Western Education was initiated in the early 19th century in India and Indian women in general started taking up career much later. Hence we have seen that women are compelled to come out of their home mainly due to economic difficulties of out times.

Social roles of middle aged women have drastically changed from the 1940s to the 1980s (Lott, 1987, sales, 1978). In young and middle adulthood during the 1940s and 1950s, women were pre-occupied with home, family concerns and community activities, the 1960s and 1970s were transitional decades during which the number of women in the work force increased. in the 1980s, the number of women workers was just double that of 1970s and over 42% of the work force was represented by women (V.S. Department of labour,1983).Therefore, career issues of women become important considerations for study.

Women's career orientation defined in terms of intention to work more or less continuously throughout one's life even when there is no financial need and there are young children at home and preferring or choosing to enter a traditionally male career. So marriage should not be considered a hindrance in the career of woman. An earning woman is an asset for the family and her income provides her the desired independence and confidence. A woman need not waste her talent, education and experience while sitting idle in the four walls of her house, when developing India needs her the most. While studies done in the 1960s suggested that the majority of young women did not plan work outside the home (Matthews and Tiedeman, 1964) student in the early 1970s strongly suggested that the majority of young women planned to combine marriage and career. (Rand and Miller, 1972; Watley and Kaplan, 1971). Title and Denker, (1977), in their extensive review stated that home career conflict continues to be an important factor to influence career choice for women; however its exact effect remains unclear. Home career conflict has also been found to be related to lower career motivation in women. Green and Davins, (1982), studied the factors associated with marriage and career plans in unmarried women. It was revealed that female role is evolving the combination of family and career. Despite the higher career aspirations, majority of women remained somewhat traditional and were unwilling to commit themselves to an uninterrupted full time career pattern. Sinha, (1985), studied the attitude of girl students in Bhagalpur towards family life, marriage and career and found that: Education among women had initiated conducive elements of attitudinal change, and their attitudes had changed, though moderately, towards family life. They held favorable attitude to new system, and thus supported change in pattern of family, marriage and career. Courtney, (1989), studied the proposition of woman are acculturated into certain career. Three questions were asked:

- ❖ Do career values fall into achievement and affiliate orientations which relate to special career?
- ❖ Do selected demographic variables influence the career values and career choice of women between the ages of 26 and 60, who are in business, education, nursing and low and
- ❖ Do demographic variable predict career values?

The finding indicated that: Eight of the twenty career values had either achievement or affiliate orientation which differentiated the four careers. Career values appeared to be limited function of characteristics such as education at decision-making time and socio-economic level as indexed by the mother's education and occupations and a demographic variable appeared to predict career choice to a greater extent than did career values. Oberoi, (1990), Investigated career orientation among college and university female students of Himachal Pradesh in relation to parental education and maternal employment. He found a significant development pattern of career orientation among the female students of Himachal Pradesh from college to university

level. The parental education of the female students is facilitative in the career orientation especially in case of those having working mothers. The female university students having low parental education and non-working mothers, exhibit low level of family orientation but higher levels of career orientation than their college counterparts, on the basis of analysis she summed it up, it may be broadly inferred that the development of career orientation among family orientation, being dependent on the level of parental education and working status of mothers of the subjects. Charu, (1991) found career orientation and occupational aspiration among university female students to be related with parental education, residential background and age. The professional course students reported higher levels of career orientation than that pursuing post graduation in humanities and sciences. Dhar (1991) while validating career orientation scale for university women students, reported that: the women students opting for both career and home have shown higher level of career orientation in comparison to their counterparts opting either for career or family. However, no differential pattern emerged in the family orientation pattern of the women students opting for both career and home life, opting only for career or opting for family life after the completion of education. The women student with low family status exhibited significantly higher level of career orientation than those having average and above average family status. The family orientation of the women students, on the other hand in terms of the family status was found to be non-differential. Sharma (1991), studied certain correlation of career orientation among university women students of Himachal Pradesh and found that: low parental education, both paternal and maternal seems to be facilitative for higher levels of career orientation among university women students of Himachal Pradesh. But highest level of maternal education seems to be facilitative in higher career-orientation among university women students. Low status occupational pursued by the parents of university women students of Himachal Pradesh is facilitative of career-orientation especially in case of paternal occupation. There is no significance difference in the career orientation of university women students of Himachal Pradesh belonging to rural and urban residential background or joint and nuclear type of family. Ritu Awasthi (1998), while studying the career orientation among the university women students of Himachal Pradesh found that: the women students coming from rural and urban areas do not differ significantly with regard to their career orientation. The university women students pursuing professional courses do not differ significantly from those pursuing non-professional courses in their career orientation. General group of women students significantly more family oriented than the scheduled caste students. The career orientation among university women students do not differ significantly for three social groups i.e. SC, ST, and general population group. Pelos and Sophia, (2001), studied the career orientation of female entrepreneurs, a study of using schema's career anchor theory. The finding indicated that female entrepreneurs scored high on the security because commitment to a particular life style) and variety (desire for a tasks and challenges



orientation but scored low on the security at desire for association with a particular organization) and identity (interest in career status or prestige) orientation. Finally 21 of 80 woman reported holding business related degrees indicating that educational background had little relationship to the career orientation of women in entrepreneurship. Renu Bala, (2008), studied the career orientation among girl students of senior secondary school in relation to study family type, parental education, parental employment and stream. She found that: the girls belonging to low occupational status have highest level of career orientation and the girl students belonging to high level of occupational status have lowest level of career orientation. The girl's students from science stream have highest level of career orientation and the girl students from commerce group have lowest level of career orientation. The family type does not affect the career orientation among senior secondary school students. Fr Racho Ibrahim et al. (2014) worked on the topic, "The Status of Career Awareness among Selected Kenyan Public Secondary School Students" and pointed out that- (i) there was a positive and significant relationship between career awareness and career decision-making. (ii) Girl-child is not given much priority in terms of education in Marsabit. This is because of cultural and traditional practices including early marriages in the communities in that region. (iii) Gender difference did not play a role in career decision-making among students in secondary school in Marsabit. However, the girls were disadvantaged because of high rate of dropout among them.

Education is the key factor which intervenes in all types of development; though it itself gets affected by social and economic development. Education has brought women from the subordinate and subjugated position to an equal level with men. Increasing trend of female enrollment in the agricultural, horticulture and animal husbandry, MBA, architecture, law and medicine courses has been pointed out. On the basis of these trends the broad conclusions arrived at is that there is significant change in the women's higher education with more and more women students enrolling themselves in the non-traditional courses and jobs. Examples of women who take up non-traditional jobs are Kamla Bai is Rajasthan's first solar engineer, Shabnam is Indian's first and only women Qazi, Meenakshi Vijay Kummar is first Indian women to become a fire officer, Swavtri Kabirdas is a hand pump mechanic. The success stories of these women have redefined the role woman play in the development of society. The increased participation of woman in the economically productive work, particularly outside the four walls of the house has made them self dependent.

Woman with career being the cream of society can be better part of the half. They are unavoidable phenomenon of our modern age. On their shoulders depends the future of India.

### **Significance of the Study**

Assessment of career achievement is necessarily a functional component of educational attainment among adolescents, especially the female students. Since career



development taking cues from the developmental tasks inculcates certain values in the female adolescent and adult students to look at 'career' or 'home' 'in a complex manner , as a result of socialization process and one's own reaction and self evaluation.

The present study is in continuation with the earlier efforts of the researchers to find out the patterns of career orientation among women students pursuing higher studies. The rapid expansions of educational institutions in rural and urban areas and increasing literacy rate among women have provided them with increased opportunities for self-expression. Further industrialization, economic development, socioeconomic tension, urbanization and changes in value system have put a severe strain on traditional roles of women and force them to look for never identities. However, techno-economic changes do not affect the traditional structure absolutely.

One of the key issues faced by adolescents, both male and female is that of identity formation. As children grow older, sex differences become even more pervasive. It is claimed that passivity and dependency show a high degree of continuity from childhood into adulthood in women but not for men.

The increased participation of women in the economically productive work, particularly outside four walls of the house has made them self-dependent. Education has brought them from the subordinate and subjugated position to an equal level with men. As regards the economic aspect; since independence, the number of women joining I.A.S., enter the Engineering colleges, polytechnics etc. is ever-increasing, besides owing their regular professions like teaching medicine, social work and electrical establishment According to Slay and Mc Donald 1981, b Females benefited from their career through personal fulfillment, financial gain and increased career opportunities just as their male counterparts.

According to researchers, it has been found that well off but unemployed women who do not join any type of service, are depressed or obsessed with homes to the point of losing their own self, worth and identity. On the other hand, working women were motivated for work due to basic needs of their families. Working women are required to play a dual role one as wives, mothers and housewives and other as employees. With this background in view, an endeavour shall be made to study the career and family values of the senior secondary girl students who are in the process of setting in life either as housewife or a careerist and to determine what goals have been important to them during the academic years because late adolescence is one of the stages of life during which important vocational and ideological decisions are enjoined. An investigation of these factors might further our understanding of women's vocational development in later life in relation to their family type variables i.e. family type, parental education, parental employment and stream which it is supposed to contribute positively to career advancement among educated adolescent females.

### Objectives of the Study

1. To study the career orientation of senior secondary girl students studying in rural and urban schools.
2. To study the career orientation among senior secondary girl students studying in rural and urban schools from:-
  - ❖ Science stream.
  - ❖ Arts stream.
  - ❖ Commerce stream
3. To study the career orientation among senior secondary girl students from:-
  - ❖ Science and Arts stream.
  - ❖ Arts and commerce stream.
  - ❖ Science and commerce stream.

### Hypotheses

1. There is no significant difference in the career orientation of senior secondary girl students studying in rural and urban school.
2. There is no significant difference in the career orientation of senior secondary girl students studying in rural and urban school from :-
  - ❖ Science stream.
  - ❖ Commerce stream.
  - ❖ Arts stream.
3. There is no significant difference in the career orientation among senior secondary girl students from:-
  - ❖ Science and Arts stream.
  - ❖ Arts and Commerce stream.
  - ❖ Science and commerce stream.

### Delimitations of the Study

The present study was delimited in its scope in the following manner:

1. The study was confined to Senior Secondary Schools of Tehsil Dharamshala, Nagrota Bagwan and Kangra of District Kangra (Himachal Pradesh).
2. The study was restricted to only senior secondary girl students studying in plus one and plus two standard perusing regular course of study.

## Methodology

Survey method under Descriptive method of research was used to conduct the present study.

## Population

In the present investigation, the senior secondary girl students of plus one and plus two standard of Govt. schools of above mentioned Tehsils of Distt. Kangra constituted the population of the study.

## Sampling

To accomplish the objectives of the study, Urban and Rural Senior Secondary Schools located in Tehsils Dhramshala, Kangra, and Nagrota Bagwan, of Distt. Kangra were listed, out of which 4 Urban and 6 rural schools were randomly selected. Out of these schools, 120 senior secondary girl students from urban and 180 students from rural schools were randomly selected under Probability Sampling Technique.

## Tool Used for Data Collection

'Career Orientation Scale for Girl Students' prepared and standardized by Oberio (1990) was used in the investigation of the present study.

## Statistical Techniques Used

The statistical technique of central tendency (mean), dispersion (Standard Deviation) was computed for testing the significance of senior secondary girl students in relation to their location of the school and stream. Also t-test was applied to find out significant mean difference among different groups.

## Analysis and Interpretation of Data

### Career Orientation among Senior Secondary Girl Students from Rural and Urban Schools

Location of schools	No. of students (N)	Mean M)	S. D	t-value
Rural	180	115.82	9.0	5.54**
Urban	120	122.14	14.54	

**Career orientation among senior secondary rural and urban girl students from different streams**

Streams	Location of schools	No. of students (N)	Mean (M)	Std. Deviation	t-value
Science	Rural	60	116.97	8.80	0.47
	Urban	40	117.78	8.03	
Arts	Rural	60	115.93	16.6	0.01
	Urban	40	115.03	9.6	
Commerce	Rural	60	115.48	16.97	0.29
	Urban	40	116.32	8.03	

**Inter-Stream Career Orientation among Senior Secondary Girl Students**

Streams	No. of students (N)	Mean (M)	Std. Deviation	t-value
Science	100	117.29	8.52	0.89
Arts	100	115.91	12.93	
Arts	100	115.91	12.93	1.30
Commerce	100	113.58	12.50	
Science	100	117.29	8.52	2.45*
Commerce	100	113.58	12.50	

**Note:** \* means t-value significant at 0.05 level and \*\* means t-value significant at 0.01 level.

**Findings and Conclusions**

From the analysis and interpretation the present investigation following findings and conclusions may be drawn:

1. The senior secondary girl students from urban schools are significantly more career oriented than those from rural schools.
2. The senior secondary girl students of **science** stream from urban schools do not differ significantly than those from rural schools in their career orientation.
3. The senior secondary girl students of **arts** stream from urban schools do not differ significantly from the girls from rural schools in their career orientation.

4. The senior secondary girl students of **commerce** stream from urban and rural schools do not differ significantly from each other in their career orientation.
5. The senior secondary girl students from **science** and **arts** streams do not differ significantly from each other in their career orientation.
6. The senior secondary girl students from **arts** stream do not differ significantly from the girl students of **commerce** stream in their career orientation.
7. The senior secondary girl students from **science** stream are significantly more career oriented than girl students from **commerce** stream.

From the above findings we can conclude that the senior secondary girl students from urban schools are significantly more career oriented than the girls from rural schools. When career orientation of such girl students from rural and urban schools from mentioned streams was analyzed; they did not differ significantly from each other. Also, when career orientation was studied stream-wise; only the girls from science and commerce streams differed significantly and those from science stream were more career oriented than those from commerce stream.

### **Educational Implications**

From the findings and conclusions of the present study, following can be implied:

1. From the findings and conclusions of the present study the girl students studying in rural and urban schools almost have same career orientation. But in most of the cases, career orientations of girl students from urban schools were found minutely greater though not significantly than the girls from rural schools. It is therefore suggested to the administrators, policy maker and concerned authorities that they should ensure the appointments of a career counselor in every co-educational and girl schools. The authorities can also make efforts to train the concerned teachers in this regard.
2. In the present era girls are excelling and proving themselves in every field they are joining. If those belonging to rural background will not be aware about the different programmers related to their career orientation, they will not be able to proceed shoulder to shoulder with their male counterparts. It is therefore suggested to the principals and concerned teacher also that from time to time they may organize career orientation camps in their school, specially for girl students to make them fully aware about the new avenues related to their career advancement.

3. The parents can also play a vital role in this regard. They should make themselves aware about the various programs being run by the Govt. for the career orientation of their wards. They may take the help of the teachers, the newspaper, TV program and internet etc.

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## **IMPACT OF HEALTH ON ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT OF TRIBAL SCHOOL CHILDREN: A STUDY OF ADILABAD DISTRICT – TELANGANA STATE**

*Srinivas Akula\**

*“A sound mind in a sound body”  
Aristotle*

### **Abstract**

The main objective of the paper is to understand the association between health status and academic achievement of tribal school children of Adilabad district in Telangana state. The enrolment rate is very high in the tribal primary schools, but between third class to sixth class the children who has not been attending classes regularly, dropout rate is also high and academic achievement is very low, when comparative their counter part of the non-tribal school children. The main cause of the above effects is the ill-health of the tribal school children. Academic achievement of the tribal school children is generally influenced by many factors. But, health is one of the major factors of it.

### **Introduction**

In any community at any given time, their socio-economic, cultural and health aspects influence the education and learning process of children. As far as tribal community is concerned, the tribal children's health and education are poorer than their counter parts in plain area. Ill-health is one of the main reasons for the poor education. The expectations at the time of independence, while getting the power transferred from the colonials to the native leaders in India, were that the serious issues, especially regarding to the tribal education and health and more so among their children - would at least be mitigated, if not completely eradicated, through innovative planning and initiatives. However, in course of time, even till today, the problems which the tribal population has been facing, the issues did not cease, but instead multiplied their intensity.

Tribal people's health problems are now in public domain. Every citizen knows the pathetic status of tribal health. Every informed citizen has a preliminary understanding and half-based opinions regarding reasons for apologetic state of health

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among tribal communities. Reasons or causes that are freely floated in public domain range from superstitions health notions prevalent among tribal communities and also pollution of environment due to industrialization. Some could see industrialization as the cause for health problems others see the ignorance of tribals for their fate; still others attribute this to lack of health care facilities in the tribal habitations, each opinion represents an element of truth, of reality, giving complete picture of the reality.

In post independence India fresh initiatives were taken for tribal development by replacing the earlier policy of indifference. The Government of India advocated a policy, which could combine the welfare and socio-economic elevation of the tribes. With the adoption of the constitution, the promotion of education of tribes has become a special responsibility of the Governments. The framers of our Constitution have given certain special facilities and securities to the tribes. These facilities and securities provide some protective discrimination to the tribes against the non-tribes. The creation of scheduled areas for tribe's performance in admissions to educational institutions and public services and the provision of incentives for education are some of mechanisms visualized to fulfill the constitutional directions.

The World Health Organization (WHO-2004) defines malnutrition as *"the cellular imbalance between supply of nutrients and energy and the body's demand for them to ensure growth, maintenance, and specific functions"*. The health, nutrition and educational status of tribal school children is very low and because of these children were not getting minimum and that of not nutritious food for the reasons may be the wide spread extreme poverty, illiteracy, malnutrition, absence of safety drinking water, poor sanitary conditions and lack of health care system and ineffective national health and nutritional services, etc, are the contributing factors for dismal health in tribal communities of Adilabad district in Telangana in general, but particularly in this area like Adilabad district, the *Haimendorf (1982)* said that *"major contributing factor is interference of non-tribals into tribal areas which is destructing their ethnic identity"*. In the same way our first Prime Minister of India, **Jawaharlal Nehru** propounded a great statement that *"Greatest problem faced in development of tribals is how best to bring the blessings and advantages of modern science and technology without destroying the rare and precious values of tribal life, not interfering with their ways of life, but helping them to live it"*. This is affecting not only the tribal natural life, tomorrow it affects to every community life.

In the name of development, the government and other corporate companies have taken initiation for establishment of industries like open caste coal mines, cement factories, paper mills, power projects and water dams, the so-called developmental models as resulted the deforestation, created drought in relation to forest food products and disturbing their natural food chain system, contamination of water and by industrial pollution the Natural environment has polluted. By all these factors have been affecting their life and displacing their habitation to a new places thus again they

are enter into new pattern of life which is make them far away from minimum facilities of health and education. The lack of minimum facilities of health and educational, the tribal's health pushed into very wretched condition and children have been attending school regularly irregular, though, there was a high enrollment up to fifth standard (V class), as well as discontinuity and the percentage of drop out is also very high.

The concentrations of tribals (4.17 lakhs) are found in Adilabad district of Telangana. Tribes have one of the largest (67.4%) congregations of tribal population. Poverty, illiteracy, malnutrition, poor sanitary conditions and scarcity of safe drinking water have contributed to the poor health status of these people all-over the country. The available information on health status of tribes is grossly inadequate, though studies have reported anemia, fever, cough and cold, diarrhoea, stomach pain, breathing problem, skin allergies and mouth problems, etc. (District Resource Centre Adilabad - 2009)

#### **Objectives of the study**

- ✚ To study the Health and Nutritional Status of Children of Tribal Primary School,
- ✚ To assess the Academic achievement of Children of Tribal Primary School,
- ✚ To understand the Association between Health Status and Academic Achievement of Children of Tribal Primary School.

#### **Variables**

- ✚ Nutrition
- ✚ Mobility
- ✚ Education

**Sub-Variable:** Fever, Cold and Fever, Cough and Cold, Stomach Pain, Worms in stools, Diarrhoea, Body Pains, Eye problem, Ear Problem and Breathing Problem

#### **Method and Material**

- ✚ Quasi clinical test for assessment of health and morbidity status,  
The determination of morbidity status was conducted by Medical Practitioners those who were working in the tribal area primary health centers (PHC).
- ✚ Academic test for assessment of academic achievement.  
To assess the academic achievement of the tribal school children, the adopted a question paper which is prepared by SCERTE Telangana.

#### **Limitations of the study**

The district of Adilabad has seventeen sub-tribal groups (17) and predominantly Adivasi district in Telangana. The sample and sample size is 300 tribal school children those who are studying IV and V classes and covered eight mandals for forty (40) villages were surveyed.

### Health status of tribal primary school children

The concept of health denotes different meanings in different social systems, health seeking behavior cannot be studied in isolation from the social networking of a community as it is deeply interwoven into every event of social, economical and biological aspect of the population. The World Health Organization (WHO) defined health as 'a state of complete physical, mental and social well-being and not merely the absence of disease, which refers to only the positive attributes of health'.



Health and education are the prerequisite for human development and is an essential component for the well being of the mankind. The health problems of any community are influenced by interplay of various factors including social, economic, culture, political and educational ones in general, but particularly in the tribal area the so-called development models are distracting the natural life of the tribal people and their health and education in Adilabad district of Telangana.

A high level of morbidity is common reality in India's tribal communities. In order to understand the tribal school children's morbidity status in Adilabad district of Telangana. This study has adopted a quasi clinical test tool and respondents were tested by medical practitioners of P H C Adilabad.

**Table I: Morbidity Status of Tribal Primary School Children**

S.No.	Morbidity	Gond	Kolam	Pradhan
01	Fever	66.7%,	77.3%,	53%
02	Cold and Fever	43.7%	35,7%	20.4%
03	Cough and Cold	51.8%	50.5%	24.1%
04	Body Pains	43.5%	39.3%	17.3%
05	Diarrhoea	94.5%,	93.6%,	54.4%
06	Warms in stool	20.9%	21.6%	3.8%
07	Stomach pain	29%	43.5%	27.5%
08	Ear Problem	5%	6.5%	2%
09	Eye Problem	30.8%	33.2%	36.1%
10	Breathing Problem	37%	31.1%	31.9%

- 1) **Fever status** of three tribal children during last three months. Though, the Fever affected to all tribal children. 33% of Pradhan children are affected by Fever once in during last three months. Whereas 77.3% of Kolam, and 66.7%

of Gond school children are affected by fever two to three times in the duration of three months.

- 2) **Cold and Fever status** of among the three tribal group school children this problem were affected to all three tribal group children. Nearly 80% of tribal school are suffering from Cold and Fever thrice in three months, among them 53.7% of Gond, 65.7% of Kolam and 20.4% of Pradhan children were affected by Cold and



Fever twice in a three months.

- 3) **Cough and Cold;** status of three tribal children during last three months. Though, the Cough and Cold affected to all tribal children. The morbidity of cough and cold was continuous affect to tribal children among them severely affected to 69.8% of Gond, 70.5% of Kolam and 35.1% of Pradhan tribal school children.



- 4) **Body Pains;** of the three tribal school children, 43.5% of Gond, 39.3% of Kolam and 17.3% of Pradhan children are suffering from Body pains once in three months,

- 5) **Diarrhoea;** status of three tribal children during last three months, among these 54.4% of Pradhan children were affected by Diarrhoea in during last three months, whereas 94.5%, of Gond and 93.6%, of Kolam children were affected by Diarrhoea, twice during last three months.



- 6) **Warms in stools;** status of three tribal children during last three months. Among them, 20.9% of Gond and 21.6% Of Kolam children were affected by Warms in stools, but how many times the warms would appear in the stool was difficult to find out, but when the children had been suffering from stomach pain it might be one of the causes of warms. Among the Pradhan tribal school children this has very low that was only 3.8%.

- 7) **Stomach Pain;** status of these tribal groups in the last three months, among them 39% of Gond, 43.5% of Kolam and 7.5% of Pradhan, who were affected very severely twice in a three months, but it is a common problem among the tribal school children due to consumption of contamination of water.

- 8) **Ear Problem;** among these three tribal groups was very low comparatively other morbidity problems.
- 9) **Eye problem;** in the tribal children have affected as 30.8% of Gond, 33.2% of Kolam and 36.1% of Pradhan children.
- 10) **Breathing Problem;** among them 37% of Gond, 31.1% of Kolam and 31.9% of Pradhan children were suffering from breathing problem last three months.

The above information concludes that the prevalence of illness is a common problem among the tribal primary school children in Adilabad district. The study has observed the ten kinds of morbidities among the tribal primary school children out of 300 children; every child has been suffering from any one kind of disease. The table and discussions are revealing that cough and cold, diarrhoea, stomach pain and eye problems are highly affected ill-health problems and these are the preventable diseases. The prevalence of communicable diseases among the tribal children affected twice to thrice in the three months, due to malnutrition and non-availability of health services in this area.

#### **Academic achievement of the tribal primary school children**

The assessment of the academic achievement of the tribal primary school children, the study has adopted a standardized question papers which are prepared for tribal school children by the SCERT of Telangana. On the basis of the range of marks scored it is categorized into five (5) levels i.e., i) 50% and above ii) 40% to 50%, iii) 30% to 40%, iv) 30% and below and v) absentees.

#### **Academic Achievement of the tribal primary school children**

<b>Tribe</b>	<b>50 &amp; above</b>	<b>40 to 50%</b>	<b>30 to40%</b>	<b>30% &amp; below</b>	<b>Absentees</b>	<b>Total</b>
Gond	None	13	45	36	16	110
	None	11.8%	40.9%	32.7%	14.5%	100%
	None	32.1%	40.5%	31.8%	44.4%	37%
Kolam	None	4	39	49	19	111
	None	3.6%	35.1%	44.1%	17.1%	100%
	None	10%	35.1%	43.3%	52.7%	37%
Pradan	None	23	27	28	1	79
	None	29.1%	34.1%	35.4%	1.2%	100%
	None	57.5%	24.3%	24.7%	2.7%	26.3%
Total	None	40	111	113	36	300
	None	13.3%	37%	37.7%	12%	100%
	None	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%



The above table reveals the academic achievement of 300 tribal primary school children. Out of total sample, 13.3% (40) children achieved 40% to 50% of marks in examinations, 37% children acquired 30% to 40% of marks, 37.7% children attained 30% and below and 12% of children didn't turn up to the school and they are irregulars.

Among the children who achieved marks from 40% to 50%, 32.1% belong to Gond community, 10% are Kolam community and 57.5% are from Pradhan community. The children who scored marks from 30% to 40% of marks, out of these 40.5% are from Gond community, 35.1% are Kolam community and 24.7% belong to Pradhan community. Among the children who attained 30% and below marks, 31.8% are Gonds, 43.3% belong to Kolam community and 24.7% are Pradhans. The children who are not attend to school and examinations, among them 44.4% are Gonds, 52.7% are from Kolam community and only 2.7% belong to Pradhan community.

The above table also presents community wise academic achievement of the tribal school children. Out of **110 Gond** children, 11.8% Gond children achieved 40% to 50%. 40.9% children attained 30% to 40%, 32.7% children gained below 30% and 14.5% Gond children have not attended regularly school and examinations. Out of **111 Kolam** children, 3.6% children attained from 40% to 50%, 40.5% children achieved from 30% to 40%. 31.8% children gained below 30% and 17.1% of children have not attended school and examinations. Among 79 Pradhan children, 29.1% children achieved 40% to 50%, 34.1% children gained 30% to 40%, 35.4% children attained 30% and below and only 2.7% children have not attended to school and examinations.

Further, it can, also be read from the table that amongst 300 children, no child could achieve 50% mark and could get more than 50% of total marks and absenteeism is as high as 12%. A glance at variation in academic achievement of different tribes, informs in that, children belonging to Pradhan tribe outscored the children of other two tribes.



The above pictures are showing regarding the school accommodation, the school building construction has started three years back, but till it is under construction, so the tribal school children were studying in the one residential house for three years from first class to fifth class.

### Statistical Hypothesis

Health and nutrition status is important contributors to academic achievement of child. "Several studies have found affects of hunger and poor nutrition on cognitive ability. One such study found that among fourth grade students, those who had the least protein intake in their diets had the lowest achievement scores. A laboratory study that involved health, well-nourished school-aged children found a negative effect of morning fasting on cognitive performance. A test of the speed and accuracy of response on problem-solving tasks given to children who did or did not take breakfast found that skipping breakfast had an adverse influence on their performance on the tests". (Mishra-2005).

#### Health status and Academic Achievement of Tribal Primary School Children

Health	Academic Achievement				Total
	50% & above	40% to 50%	30% to 40%	30% & irregular	
Normal	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
Mild	0 (0%)	113 (37.6%)	109 (36.3%)	34 (11.3%)	256 (85.3%)
Moderate	0 (0%)	6 (2%)	14 (4.6%)	24 (8%)	44 (14.6%)
Severe	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
Total	0 (0%)	119 (39.6%)	123 (41%)	58 (19.3%)	300 (100%)

The above table reveals the relationship between health status and academic achievement of 300 tribal school children. Out of 300 children, 85.3 % ( 256) children are under mild category with regard to health status. Among them, 37.6% children are under 40% to 50% category in previous academic year, 36.3% of children are under 30% to 40% category and 11.3% children are under below 30% category.

Out of 300 children, 14.6% (44) children are found under moderate category. Among them 2% children have achieved 40% to 50% of marks in the previous academic year, and 4.6% have achieved 30% to 40% and only 8% children have achieved below 30%.

### Chi-Square Test Results

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	77.186 <sup>a</sup>	9	.000
No of Valid Cases	300		

From the above table it is clear that the computed value of chi-square 77.186, with degree of freedom 9 is quite larger than the table or critical value 11.341 at 0.01 level of significance. Hence the null hypothesis is rejected. Therefore it is plausible to conclude that there exist an association between health background and academic achievement of tribal school children.

### Findings and Suggestions

Several studies show the fact that the health and educational status of tribal children is in pathetic condition. All the statistical indicators compiled by the Government officials and other civil society organizations very clearly brought out the fact that education and health care systems that have been initiated after independence failed to yield expected results. Interventions of developmental models and non-tribal population into tribal area disturbed the natural food habits and traditional health care system. The following are the some of the important reasons for the health and educational problems of the tribes:

There are many critical issues and problems in the field of tribal education in general and particularly in relation to health status are as follows:

#### Findings

- Absentees - most of the tribal school children are attending to school regularly irregular due to the problem of morbidity, most of the tribal school children were suffering from any one kind of the health problems, so that they are not attending to the school regularly.
- Hygienic - the hygienic condition is very poor in tribal areas and every beginning of the seasons the tribal habitations were affected by different inflectional diseases.
- Consumption of the contamination water - most of the tribal people are consuming the contaminated water which led to infected diseases.
- Unaware of the parents - the tribal children's parents do not have aware of health and education importance, when the child is suffering from any kind of disease they will go for traditional treatment up to severe stage of disease.
- Prevention of disease - most of the tribal communities is affected by preventive diseases which are the communicative diseases, but the lack of



health care system that preventive and communicative diseases are prevailing to entire the community.

- Primary Health Center – most of the tribal communities have availability of primary health centers, but, whereas the accessibility of doctor and availability of medicine are not there.
- Availability and accessibility of school – the tribal villages are not having proper availability and accessibility of the school facility, so it is very difficult to attend the school in a neighboring village.
- Teacher – most of the tribal schools are running by the Vidya Volunteers, if any school was provided by the regular teacher they are not attending to the school regularly.
- Poverty – the economical status of the tribal communities are very poor that they do not have the interest to send to the school their children.
- Lack of proper motivation towards health and education among the tribal people – the health care personnel, tribal welfare department and school education departments are not taking any initiations tribals' health and education care.

### Suggestions

- Provide health facilities – Primary health centers should provide to every village in the tribal areas.
- Availability and accessibility of doctor and medicine – the establishment of the primary health centers are not enough, the accessibility of doctor and medicine is necessary to them.
- Mobile health care system – most of the tribal habitations are habituated at deep forest and hill track areas, so the mobile health care system is require for them.
- Every tribal village should provide a medical servant with a medical kit for first aid and minimum medicines which are prevent the primary health problems of the tribal people.
- Provide safety drinking water – the consumption of the contamination water is the main cause of different diseases so, to provide minimum safety drinking water for all tribal communities.
- Awareness comps – to organize the awareness camps in the tribal areas regarding the importance of health and education.
- Educational-Curriculum and Language – school curriculum should be include the tribal culture and traditions and their historical events. Language is one of the hindrances for the tribal children to learn so, the text books should provide in their own dialect.
- Identify the cluster village to establish qualitative vocational school for the tribal children which is relevant to their natural resources, livelihoods and

occupations. These vocational courses that enhance their skill in economic activities through value addition in agriculture.

- School System and infrastructure – every tribal school should possess with minimum facilities of drinking water, first aid kit and mid-day meal programme.
- Low income of the tribal family – all tribal families are earning their income by agriculture only, so the government should provide requirement for the agriculture which are the increase the agriculture products like water, electricity, pesticides, transportation and market system.

The study reveals that most of the tribal children are suffering from malnutrition because of non-availability of food grains, low consumption of food items and consumption of contaminated water and unhygienic condition surrounded by their house and school are the causes for high ill-health status of the tribal school children.

These preliminary findings indicate that there is a need to improve utilization of primary health care services, to facilitate food grains to their near distance of village, and finally to develop awareness among the tribal parents and children about the importance of health and utilization of the food items.

### **Conclusion**

The acquisition of health knowledge starts with the socialization of the child. Initially it depends on the members of the family, specially the parents which again depends on their educational background. Most of the parents of tribal children are illiterates, so there is no scope for knowledge and awareness regarding the health and prevention of disease.

Health and education are intrinsically linked to each other. They are mutual co-relation. In this consequences health is a precondition for education and learning. That is why ancient wisdom says, “Sound mind in a sound body” keeping this connection in view, the present study looked into affect of health status on academic achievement of tribal school children.

The present study tells us that there is a close association between health status and academic achievement of tribal primary school children. The fundamental finding of the study is that, out of 300 children, no child achieved more than 50% of marks in examinations of IV and V classes, which is most important period to learn language skills and mathematics problems. Basic education is the prerequisite for building a just and equitable society. It is also an established fact that basic education improves the level of human well being especially with regard to life expectancy. Studies have shown that universal basic education is an important factor in economic growth. Present study shows that academic achievement of tribal school children is below average and very poor. The reasons are poor health and very low level of nutritional

status of the tribal school children and meager infrastructural facilities in tribal schools, no effective classroom interactions.

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## **TEACHING IN QUALITY PARADIGM OF EDUCATION: DEFINING TEACHERS' ROLE**

*Kiran\**

### **Abstract**

Teacher performance is considered to be the most crucial input in the field of education for its quality execution. Whatever policies may be laid down, ultimately these have to be interpreted and implemented by teachers. It can be said that ensuring quality in professional development of teachers becomes far more important in the present educational context, not only to be ahead of others but also for our survival. However, the non-clarity over what is expected from a teacher when it comes to the performance leads to the state of indecisiveness over the domain of teacher preparation. The divorce between teaching context and teacher preparation causes a serious dent to the quality of teacher preparation and consequently to the quality of education. With this backdrop, the present paper makes an attempt to answer the two fundamental questions associated with the assurance of quality in teaching and thereby in education i.e. 'what constitutes teaching' and 'what comes under the domain of teacher performance'. The paper reviews and refers all the prominent works for concretizing the domain of teacher performance and to define teacher's role clearly.

### **Introduction**

Education and human development move hand in hand. In fact, education is the most basic constituent of human growth, and growth and development of a society. It is a powerful tool, which initiates, controls, manages, and sustains the process of social change in a society and establishes the values of equality and social justice. Education is the major determinant of quality of life (*Delors Commission Report, 1996*). It enables a person to lead a quality life by providing relevant experiences. Thus, ensuring quality in education keeps high values for any society with reference to its inclusive growth and development.

The quality of education in India has been seen in relation to the quality of teacher education, as acknowledged by the Education Commission, 1964-66 - "*The destiny of India is being shaped in her classrooms. The shape undoubtedly depends on the*

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*master designer and the architect – the teacher*". It is the teacher who plan for, initiate, implement and evaluate the educational discourses in real settings by connecting ends and means of education. The effective interpretation, implementation and success of any educational plan and policy rely heavily on teachers being the important functionary in the process of education (NPE, 1986). Therefore, teacher's performance is considered as one of the most crucial inputs in the field of education (Hanushek, 1992; Sanders & Rivers, 1996), and thus the quality in teacher education acquires utmost importance (NPE, 1986; Draft Curriculum for Teacher Education by NCERT, 2005).

According to Lamprecht (2000, p. 43), quality, whatever its definition is relative to the experience, culture and habits. Cultural expectations affect one's rating for quality of anything. According to Shewhart (1980, p. 6) quality, is not actually a set of specification, rather it is the interaction between the product, the user, his/her expectations and the promise for services in case of failure of the product or its maintenance. Thus, the notion of 'Quality' is found changing according to the roles of people defining it. However, the notion of quality is found to be commonly referring to 'performance to the standards'. Crosby (1999), in this context, holds that 'Quality' has two aspects - objective and subjective. The objective aspect of quality confers to those things in any product which can be measured or quantified. The subjective aspect of the quality is about what we think feel or sense as a result of objective aspect of quality. Although, it is the objective aspect of quality which can be measured and controlled, it is the subjective aspect of quality that influences the choice of the clientele.

### **Quality in Teacher Education**

The demand for high quality teachers cannot be met without high-quality teacher education. Empirical evidences suggest that inadequate preparation to teach has an impact on student achievement outcomes, teaching effectiveness, teacher attrition rates and school collegiality. Thus, quality assurance in teacher education has received growing interest. However, there is a little consensus too on what constitutes quality in teacher education and consequently teaching (Bright and Harmeyer, 2002). In this section, an attempt has been made to observe how the notion of 'quality' in research literature on teacher education is looked upon.

Barber and Mourshed (2007) hold that the 'quality of an education system cannot exceed the quality of its teachers'. The quality of teacher education is among the most important factors shaping the learning and growth of students (Cochran-Smith, 2003; Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2005; Goodwin & Oyler, 2008). Cochran-Smith (2003) has stated that in today's 'outcomes' climate, it is pertinent to know about what teachers and teacher candidates should know and be able to do. In response to this, teacher education programmes need to continually provide evidence that their programmes and procedures are 'accountable', 'effective', and/or 'value-added' (Cochran-Smith, 2003) to be relevant to meet current and future needs. In other words, effectiveness and

relevance are considered as the true indicators of quality in teacher education, which, in-turn get reflected through or are measured in terms of the *teacher quality*.

The conceptual model of teacher quality definition adapted from the working paper by Ingersoll (*U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, 1996*) can be considered as a comprehensive model defining teacher quality as it incorporates all the elements of teacher quality components. In this model, teacher quality is defined as a measure of teacher qualifications, teaching practices, and teacher preparation. Teacher qualifications include such components as content knowledge, pedagogical knowledge, teaching credentials, and verbal abilities. *Shulman (1987)* identified seven areas of professional knowledge for quality teaching, which are (a) academic subject knowledge, (b) knowledge of teaching strategies, (c) knowledge of curriculum materials and programs, (d) subject-specific knowledge for teaching special students, (e) knowledge of students' characteristics and cultural background, (f) knowledge of the teaching environment, and (g) knowledge of the goals and purposes of teaching. *Slavin (2003)* emphasized that quality teachers must know their subject matter and how to motivate children. They must also know how to use class time effectively, and how to respond to individual differences. Quality teachers know their subject and possess the verbal ability to transfer their knowledge to their students (*Sadker & Sadker, 2003*). State certification and licensure is a major component of the quality assurance for the teaching profession.

Teaching practices is a measure of what teachers do in their classroom. Research has shown that quality teachers are effective classroom managers (*Ornstein & Levine, 2003; Slavin, 2003*). Quality teachers are intentional teachers who are constantly upgrading and examining their own teaching practices, through reading and attending professional conferences to learn new ideas (*Sabers, Selby, & Nolan, 1995; Schmuck, 1997*). *Rosenshine (1986)* stated that teachers should use direct instruction to improve the academic success of children in their classrooms.

Quality teachers are those who use a wide variety of instructional methods, experiences, assignments, and materials to ensure that children are achieving a variety of cognitive objectives (*Eby, 1994*). *Reynolds (1995)* found that good teachers possess the ability to carry out all the tasks involved in effective instruction. Quality teachers are critical thinkers (*Anderson et al., 1995; Floden & Klinzing, 1990*), who understand the developmental levels and needs of their children (*Schmuck, 1997*), who continually experiment with strategies to solve problems of instruction (*Duck, 2000*), and who are prepared to use differentiated instruction that recognized individual differences (*Tomlinson, 2000*). Teacher preparation is a measure of the quality of the teacher education institution. Basic to the hot debate on teacher quality is the question of how teachers are prepared.

Educational Testing Service (2004) in its series on teachers' quality highlighted the importance of content knowledge and pedagogical skills both for quality teaching.

It is suggested in the Series that competent, skilled teachers should possess the following four types of knowledge and skills:

1. Thorough knowledge of the content of each subject taught, appropriate to the levels of their students (*Goldhaber, 1997; Rowan, Chiang, & Miller, 1997*).
2. Both generic and content-specific knowledge in areas such as child development, classroom management, motivating children to learn, interpreting and using assessment data, individualizing instruction, aligning content to the state's standards, developing appropriate instructional materials, and working with children with disabilities or from other cultures (*Monk, 1994; Darling-Hammond & Youngs, 2002*).
3. Actual hands-on ability and skill to use the above types of knowledge to engage students (*Wenglinsky, 2000*)

Thus, it can be concluded that content knowledge and pedagogical skills are the major reflections of the teacher quality and are also be the important criteria for determining the quality in teacher education. *The notion of quality in teacher education can be looked as the depth of changes in knowledge, understanding and skills of teacher through the process of teacher preparation.* Therefore, the subsequent section attempts to consolidate the understanding of the teaching skills and competence as indicator of quality in teacher education.

### **Requisite Skills and Competencies for Effective Teachers: Concretizing the Role Expectations**

The idea of effective teacher varies considerably. *Holt (1964)* looks at teachers' knowledge, enthusiasm and responsibility towards creating a warm class climate as enhancing factors of students' learning. According to *Gibbs (2002)* "Teachers need to be able to survive the demands, threats and challenges within the diverse circumstances of teaching." He stated that an effective teacher needs the capacity to be persistent, flexible, and innovative on new teaching approaches and be prepared in the case of failure. *Stronge et al. (2004)* considers a teacher effective on the basis of his/her potential to psychologically influence the students and students' achievement. *Killen (2006)* holds that the effective teacher is the one who has clear objectives and own goals of teaching.

*Gurney (2007)* suggested that to be an effective teacher there should be an interaction among different factors. One of them is the teacher's knowledge, enthusiasm and responsibility for learning. An effective teachers should also provide the students with activities and assessment that encourages them to learn (and learn through experience), as well as having an engaged feedback.

#### **Content Knowledge**

The most obvious requirement to be an effective teacher is the content knowledge of the subject. *Reynolds and Muijs (1999)* considered good content



knowledge responses to spontaneous and demanding students questioning. The *McBer Report (2000)* highlighted that students expect a teacher to have good content knowledge to be considered effective. *Ferguson & Womack (1993)* stated that "effective communication of content knowledge is a hallmark of good teachers". Possessing good content knowledge is just one of many vital factors and qualities, which an effective teacher needs to have in order to enhance learning and achievement.

### ***Good Planning***

Effective planning makes the content and the session interesting and involving. It facilitates clear explanations, and also the effective utilization of the resources available and suitable to students needs. Effective planning also helps in determination and utilization of the suitable teaching methods and techniques, in being flexible, and in encouraging students' interest and participation. *Craig and Dickenson (2003)* pointed out that good planning ensures that lessons include periods where students are allowed to have discussion in open or close groups or in pairs. Good planning organizes the material which allows doing more and better during a session. *Gurney (2007)* also pointed out that the teacher should allow the students to give the teacher their feedback in order to improve their own knowledge, methodology and learning environment if needed. *Cruickshenk & Haefele (2001)* stated that "effective teachers are able to qualitatively do more with the same amount of time." Effective planning also implies effective classroom management and organization to achieve desired learning outcomes.

### ***Classroom Management and Organization***

Effective teachers manage and organize the classroom as per students' needs and preferences to create an optimistic and warm learning environment for all the students, and to enhance learning. The importance of maintaining a positive and productive learning environment is noticeable when students are following routines and taking ownership of their learning (*Covino & Iwanicki, 1996*). *Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2000)* holds that classroom management is based on respect, fairness, and trust, wherein a positive climate is cultivated and maintained. Thus, an effective teacher should also have qualities of fairness and trust as her professional characteristics.

Effective teachers organize the classroom to promote learning and interaction, and have to create an optimal learning environment where students feel comfortable and relax in terms of decoration, accessibility and mobility. According to *Stronge et al. (2004)* part of the classroom organization is the furniture arrangement, the accessibility of material, and the decoration. *Kohn (1996)* stated that the furniture arrangement facilitate interaction. Thus, effective classroom management focuses on influencing students' learning behaviour, and motivation to learn. A productive and positive classroom is the result of the teacher's considering students' academic as well as social and personal needs (*Stronge, 2011*). It has important implications for how a teacher is required to behave in the classroom.



### ***Classroom Behaviour***

*Craig and Dickenson (2003)* stated that almost all classroom behaviour is learned and that students must clearly understand what is expected of them. The responsibility lies with the teachers to explain how and why they want them to work in that way, and to give positive feedback when students respond in the desirable manner. *McBer Report (2000)* stated that the students, themselves, want a teacher to keep discipline in the classroom. *Kyriacou, (1998)* maintained that students' misbehaviour can be minimised by skillful teaching. *Wong and Wong (2005)* differentiated between manage and discipline. According to them, effective teachers manage their classrooms with procedures and routines. Ineffective teachers discipline their classrooms with threats and punishments. They also underlined that management is concerned with procedures on how students have to work in the classroom.

*Craig and Dickenson (2003)* pointed out that it is unreasonable to expect total silence for extended periods. They acknowledged that an effective teacher is able to differentiate between constructive and destructive *silence* in the classroom and understands that some students may prefer to sit quietly and have low active participation in the classroom activities.

### ***Communication Skills for Effective Instructional Delivery***

Instructional delivery includes the myriad teacher responsibilities that provide the connection between the curriculum and the student. The different aspects of instructional delivery leading to increased student learning can be enlisted as instructional differentiation, focus on learning, instructional clarity, instructional complexity, expectation for student learning, use of technology, and the use of questioning (*Stronge et al, 2011*). Different studies have examined the role of communication for performing effectively along the different aspects of instructional delivery (*Stronge, 2007; Langer, 2001; Wenglinsky, 2004; Sternberg, 2003*).

Effective teachers are always effective communicators. They communicate clearly about course objectives, content and testing, make sure to provide a rationale for learning and adapt instruction to student's level of knowledge. Effective teacher can present, through different verbal and non-verbal communications, complex concepts and notions in a way that can be easily absorbed by the students, and (*Prozesky, 2000*). Teachers' confidence plays an important role in effectiveness. Confidence to teach subject matter influences the teaching outcomes (*Bandura, 1997*).

### ***Motivation for Learning***

Motivating students can make them more receptive and can result in effective learning by changing their attitudes towards learning. Effective teachers makes the students increase their academic self-concept, their interest in the subject and the desire to learn more, and therefore have high levels of achievement in their class (*NWREL, 2001*). It also been stated that students see the effective teacher as a motivational and a

leader when the teacher encourages them to be responsible for their own learning (Covino & Iwanicki, 1996). High standards, challenging task use of a variety of strategies (such as cooperative learning), and relevant reinforcement and feedback by a teacher during the process of learning can enhance students' learning (Fisher, 2003).

### ***Personal Qualities***

Affective skills and competencies mark a differentiation among more effective and less effective teachers (Emmer et al, 1980).

Teachers who convey that they *care* about their students have high levels of students' achievement than teachers perceived by students as uncaring (Collinson, Killeavy, & Stephenson, 1999; Darling-Hammond, 2000; Hanushek, 1971; Wolk, 2002). According to Gurney (2007), learning has been considered as an emotional exercise which will allow the students to get engaged emotionally. Besides, Eisner (2002) suggests that "teaching is a caring exercise," which takes an important role in effective learning process. According to Stronge et al., (2004) students perceive effectiveness when teachers show kindness, gentleness and encouragement. Effective teachers demonstrate genuine concern and empathy toward students through understanding the students' concerns and questions (Stronge et al., 2004). Therefore, there is a more effective achievement when the teacher demonstrates that he/she cares about the students and knows them individually. *Respect, fairness* and *equity* are identified as the prerequisite of effective teaching in the eyes of students. Kyriacou, (1998) stated mutual respect as an essential feature of the classroom to establish the right climate for effective teaching and learning. Fairness is so appreciated by the students, and effective teachers respond individually to misbehaviour, rather than to the whole class (Stronge et al. 2004). He added that students expect to treat them equitably in any situation, either in case of misbehaviour, assessment results, religion, ethnic background, age, etc. and to avoid favouritism (Peart & Campbell, 1999). Therefore, effective teacher continually demonstrate respect to their students, fairness and equity regarding individual situations, age, background, ethnicity, religion, and economical status etc.

Effective teachers are *enthusiastic and passionate* about teaching and the subject. Wolk (2001) stated that when the teacher is passionate about learning can create an "infectious classroom environment" Besides, Gurney (2007) pointed out that when the teachers show enthusiasm, and there is interaction in the classroom, the work of learning process is turned into a pleasure. In addition, teachers who are enthusiastic about their subjects and learning, motivate students, and therefore increase achievement (Stronge et al., 2004).

Effective teachers do not only have a *teacher-student relationship* in the classroom, but also demonstrate interest in students' lives beyond the classroom, using a wide variety of strategies to interact with them outside the class, and the educational

institution. This also encourages students to perform their best in the classroom (Kohn, 1996). According to Stronge et al., (2004) the social interactions between the teacher and students encourage students leaning and achievement. Besides, this helps introvert or low self-esteem learners to be better integrated in the group. Volk (2002) stated that a strong relationships with the students helps to decrease discipline problems. Knowing the students and having a teaching-student relationship with them creates a warm classroom and learning environment.

Being an effective teacher requires the exhibition of effective teaching practice in terms of instructional delivery and student assessment which is based on the creation of positive learning environment for its desirable results. It is nothing but the exhibition of professionalism in all her actions. It also implies and necessitates the preparation and development of teachers professionally.

### Conclusion

In the present time, ensuring quality in teacher education to develop effective teachers is of utmost importance to ensure quality in education. However, it would be relevant here to ask 'what constitutes the quality in teacher education' or to rephrase the question 'who is an effective teacher.' The answer to this question is grounded well in the praxis of professionalism in teaching, which lays emphasis on preparing teachers who possess a set of requisite knowledge, understanding, attitude, skills, and competencies as a guarantee for their success in a given educational scenario. Professionalism with reference to teaching and teacher education also emphasizes on building teachers' capabilities to adapt and adopt their frame of references in terms of requisite competencies and skills for their practice as per the needs and demands of the dynamic educational scenario. Therefore, it can be concluded that the quality in professional development of teachers directly implies the extent to which different mechanism and processes of professional development (at all the levels on the continuum of teaching profession) leads to development of requisite competencies, skills, and dynamism in teachers as effective frame for their actual practice.

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## ACCEPTING EARLY CHILDHOOD CARE AND EDUCATION AS A CHALLENGE IN JAMMU & KASHMIR

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### Abstract

Good quality pre-schooling makes a distinction for our students at large, and students are balanced to profit than ever before. To really lay the groundwork for higher education and profession readiness, the education in pre-school years receive must be reliable with and coupled to early elementary schooling with more focus on developmental needs, and efforts to prepare the future citizen for potential success as vigorous, fruitful, affianced citizen. Recent research suggest that the better way to tackle disparity, poverty and misdemeanour is early childhood education which includes sensitization of parents and community as a whole. Pre-school education helps to develop a firm base for lifelong learning and can play an important role in the development of child. Making sure all children start on an equal footing can also alleviate social discrimination. It is thus vital to endorse continued financial support to maintain the expansion and excellence of pre-school education programmes. This present paper highlights all concerned issues of ECCE and recommendations are also given.

**Key words:** Access; Sensitization; Dissemination, Responsibility; Finance; Quality; Training; Research;

### Introduction

The child is the precious natural resource of the world. In the early years of the 20<sup>th</sup> century John Dewy stressed the need to educate children for life. With the continuing expansion of the knowledge explosion and the rapid technological advancement we have recognized the importance and scope of proper development of our children. Many children from poor socio-economic and educational background have great promise that is seldom discovered and developed. This constitutes a great waste of human resource around the world. Many creative children live and die without making the significant contribution of which they would have been capable of. We are all well acquainted that the greatest waste of all today is human ability left

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hidden and under-developed. Therefore, if some of our creative minds are crippled and hidden beneath masks of failure, the world's people cannot afford to allow this waste to continue. The education of the young children can change this myth. The preschool years represent a time of growth and development, when skills are acquired which later provide the foundation for all subsequent learning. This is the time when parents and teachers could have greatest impact upon a child and can mould the potential effects of environmental conditions to a child's advantage. There are certain things that we can do at domestic, national or international levels to develop children's potential and help them to grow more.

The paucity of data on early childhood education poses challenges to any study on the status of its services, recent policies, strategies and innovative projects or initiatives. There is a need for:

- (a) Accurate and detailed information base, and
- (b) Research projects that assess the impact of national policies on children's development and learning.

In Jammu & Kashmir State, children of higher income, double earned and better educated parents are more likely to have the advantage of participating in early childhood programmes than children from low socio-economic backgrounds given the fact that most of the programmes are still run by the private profit making sector. The lack of public structures in early childhood education, regional disparities, and the differences in cost and quality between public and private sectors create inequality. This uneven access is worrisome because learning gaps are developing among children in the preschool years. These disparities are likely to show as children enter formal schooling. There is general assumption that achieving universal access to affordable and high quality ECCE services depends mainly on public funding and government investment in early learning. However, now that many governments are resorting to outsourcing and privatization, the challenge is how we can achieve this goal. One possible way to improve access is through some kind of finance mechanism- direct funds, subsidies, tax exemptions, or contributions. Social organizations- NGOs, religious organizations or communities- can play a leading role in financing ECCE services in cash or kind, such as donation of materials, buildings, or equipment. Funding may also be secured through a micro-credit system that trains women and offers them loans to open day care centers particularly in rural areas. The diverse sponsorship for ECCE services requires coordination, non-duplication, and central administration. It is evident that the role of NGOs is expanding, especially in caring for weaker and disadvantaged children. The government is not the only party responsible for public welfare. Society's well-being and social development depends on the collaboration between civil society and government. Therefore, NGOs have a responsibility to promote public-private partnerships (PPP) to support actions for children. In order to improve quality, there is a need for qualified professionals. In

Indian teacher education system, there is no specialized training programme or training ECCE workers, as such the reality that represents itself is the low status, salary and working conditions of teachers. The likelihood that the pervasiveness of these conditions prevails poses a challenge to the high turn-over and retention among workers in this field. There is a need for a unified vision of early childhood education in light of its international definition. The primary age group that is included is 2-5 years, where the emphasis is on literacy and numeracy rather than on the child's holistic development. The challenge is reconciling this with the transition from KGs to early primary grades. Parents need to be more involved in understanding the value of that period and see it for what it is, a time to value and cherish and not make the child ready for school. Furthermore, the media can be instrumental in supporting the advocacy for early childhood.

Nobel laureate *Professor Jim Heckman* in his paper '*Building the Wealth of Nations*' highlighted that there is no other investment which both combines high economic returns and social justice, in terms of leveling life's playing field for those born disadvantaged and, from an educational viewpoint, maximizing their chances of learning at school.

Thus the problems of ECCE can be categorized into six stylized facts:

1. ECCE continues to be relatively neglected in terms of sector (health, education) and development frameworks - including no resolution of which sectorial ministry should be in-charge. According to UNICEF, in only 30 developing countries had ECCE plans.
2. Even when ECCE is included in these frameworks, the policy framework is still relatively weak, and especially with regard to the 2-5 age group.
3. Financing for ECCE is insufficient, and mainly comes from fees paid by those who can afford. There is still little public financing.
4. Those who benefit the least from ECCE programmes are those who could benefit the most for example, a rich child is 25 times more likely than a poor one to participate in an ECCE programme. Everywhere, the under-3s are less likely to participate, as the UNESCO's regional reports clearly indicate.
5. The quality of ECCE is very variable and generally not good for the few poor who are able to participate.
6. Monitoring is inadequate, though there are important developments, such as the inclusion of several indicators in the latest round of UNICEF's Multiple Indicator Cluster Surveys (MICS).

UNESCO has founded *Strong Foundations* which recommended four areas for better achievement in ECCE in developing countries, and especially for the poor:



**1. Make ECCE an agenda**

This area would be covered though the following initiatives in the state:

- Secure essential high level political endorsement
- Establish and revise state and national policy framework for children aged 0-8
- Set specific targets, goals and funding level.

**2. Increase funds and target interventions**

This area would be covered though the following initiatives in the state:

- Include ECCE in key policy documents like poverty reduction strategy papers and sector plans, welfare plans and commission reports.
- Target ECCE for the weaker disadvantaged and unreached
- Donors to give ECCE more attention, following UNICEF's lead
- Participation of NGO's, Welfare bodies, Wakf Boards, Shrine Boards, Non Profit Organizations and Religious Organizations including Ashrams and Madrasas

**3. Up-gradation of workforce**

This area would be covered though the following initiatives in the state:

- Quality Assessment
- Training
- Remuneration
- Identifying Quality Standard Criteria

**4. Improvement in monitoring**

This area would be covered though the following initiatives in the state:

- Especially for the 2-5 age group
- Focus on the key determinants: participation, supervision, achievements and targets.

We are in the second decade of the 21<sup>st</sup> century and in the area of ECCE still progress has been insufficient; why is this and what should we do? First, the dissemination of ECCE has been weak. Second, even when the broad case has been made, we have not sufficiently addressed the following key issues that stand in the way of broader adoption of ECCE programmes:

### **Sensitization/Dissemination**

Generally, sensitization and dissemination has been weak and, despite the strong scientific and technological case, does not address what appeals to administrators, academicians and common masses in general. It has focused too much on rights and not enough on the area of contributions of ECCE to the holistic development of the child and over all progress of the society, to equity and to saving future expenditure by encouraging learning at school and avoiding future issues of social cohesion. It has not addressed directly the grave reservations that our society has about the relative roles of the state and of the family, especially for very young children up to the age of the 5. It is now an obligation to all the concerned at the official and non-official level to sensitize people about the importance of this period and disseminate the requisite information to every corner of the state.

A new advocacy coalition is needed, combining local, national and international agencies (especially UNESCO, UNICEF, WHO, and the World Bank).

### **Responsibility**

There is a continuing lack of clear accountability for early childhood care and education programmes. Every state of the country is confused with shouldering the responsibility of ECCE resting with ministries of health, education and sometimes also social welfare and women. It is not important which ministry or agency is in charge; what is important is that a ministry or agency is clearly in charge and that the others recognize this. We must focus on who is in-charge at the decentralized service delivery level, by ensuring that public policy focus on all service provisions, and by ensuring attention to the 0-5 age group.

### **Access**

The central issue that still needs to address if ECCE is to become more widespread is the access. At present those who would benefit relatively the most from ECCE programmes (the poor and disadvantaged) are those who are least likely to participate, mainly because most of provision is by the private sector and requires huge amount of fee that they cannot afford. In far flung rural areas the facility is not available at all. No provision is made for the weaker and disadvantaged section of the society to make ECCE accessible.

### **Finance**

According to UNESCO's report, spending on ECCE is equivalent to only 0.2% of the education budget in India. Action is needed on both the local and the national fronts. Nationally, more public investment is definitely required. But it must also be more targeted on the poor, to address the access issue and to ensure that spending is focused on those who will benefit the most. Ideology should also play an important

role and financial support should be available to private as well as public providers, so long as the private providers enroll the poor.

Internationally, it is perhaps time to consider a global fund for ECCE. Targeted funds can have their complications in terms of the international aid architecture. There is no doubt that such funds have generated resources that would not otherwise have been available and, also very importantly, raise not only funds but also the profile of the issue.

### **Quality**

It is very clear from looking towards the present status of ECCE in the state that much more is needed in terms of guidelines, regulation and enforcement. But fundamentally the quality issue, like the access issue is a conscience issue – the key determinant of the quality of ECCE, as all the evidence shows, is the quality of the interaction between the children and the adult caregiver. This in turn depends on the training and competence of that caregiver which will be enhanced if he or she is better trained and better paid. Govt. should shoulder this responsibility to establish pre-primary education institutions with proper and attractive facilities. Those Institutions of ECCE run by the private sector should be regularly supervised by the Govt. And regular inspections should be conducted for the same.

### **Training**

In teacher education programme of the state very little coverage is given to the training of teachers of ECCE. Specific training programmes should be conducted for ECCE teachers and care givers to improve the quality of ECCE in the state. For this purpose DIET's (District Institute of Education and Training), SIE (State Institute of Education) and other concerned departments and agencies have a very crucial and vital role to play.

### **Research**

The major areas of research in early childhood care and education are growth and development, conditions of early childhood care and education institutions, curiosity, creativity, teaching learning strategies, effect of early childhood care and education, learning habits, dropouts, curriculum etc., since progress in any field depends upon new knowledge revealed by well-designed researches. The efforts to evaluate researches in the area of early childhood care and education constitute an important contribution. Important areas of the early childhood care and education that have not gained proper attention of the researchers by and large proper developmental, care and educational criterions.

Thus, the education of preschool children in the state of Jammu and Kashmir must have the following considerations related to activities and programmes beyond the infrastructure and other allied facilities:

1. Early childhood care and education programme should be flexible and liberated from teaching because it is not the stage of reading, writing and counting. It is the stage of playing.
2. Preschool teachers need the knowledge of child development.
3. Children learn through play. Give as many experiences to children for play as possible.
4. Children are very curious from their birth. This curiosity motivates the child to ask questions. Generally, parents/ teachers and care givers do not like to answer these questions and threaten them not to ask such questions. Encourage them by answering their questions honestly.
5. Effective programmes should be developed for children with special needs.
6. Every child is primarily an individual and should be treated as such. Don't compare children. Individual differences should be taken care of in terms of their, resistances, spans, needs, aspirations, preferences and orientations.
7. Child learns better through experience. A child's effort should be rewarded.
8. A child is a leader by birth. His leadership abilities should be motivated.
9. Disabled children are not less creative. They should be given equal opportunities for their development.
10. A child's early development has an enormous and decisive influence on his later life. Therefore, early childhood experience should be in a very conducive environment.

### **Conclusion**

Looking through the history of Jammu & Kashmir Early Childhood Care and Education has never been the prime concern area to be focused on. Never was the case for investing in early childhood programmes stronger. The evidence is overwhelming. For this to happen, however, two key actions are needed: increased overall commitment and resolving the implementation issues. The first requires much better advocacy by broad-based coalitions, domestic, national and international. The second also requires that advocacy but also an examination of innovative techniques to be implemented in this area. A focus on these two aspects can also lead to resolving the other issues of ECCE like, sensitization, responsibility, access for the poor and disadvantaged, quality improvement in the existing system linked to the infrastructure enhancement, training and remuneration of ECCE care givers. The area also needs quantitative and qualitative research and its implementation at the grass root level. A broad based collaboration is also needed for the success of the programme in which the role of NGOs, Wakf Boards, Shrine Boards, Darul-Ulooms, Madrasas Ashrams, and

other Religious Organizations is stressed. Public Private Partnership is also needed for the implementation and success of ECCE in the state.

Key policy elements domestically are to focus across sectors, to focus on the private as well as the public providers and to increase and target public spending. Internationally, there is need to build a broader coalition, to consider a dedicated fund for ECCE and to use innovative financing techniques.

Thus, keeping in view the holistic development of the child and the ways and means of its achievement, Early Childhood Care and Education is the scientific thing to do, it is the economic thing to do and it is the right thing to do. Let us renew our efforts in the specific ways for accepting this area as a challenge..!

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## **SCHOLASTIC EXCELLENCE OF NALANDA AND NALANDA CONTEMPORARY (415 A.D. – 1200 A.D.) AL-QARAWIYYIN: A COMPARATIVE EVALUATION**

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### **Abstract**

This paper tries to make a comparative study between the two ancient pioneer Universities, Nalanda University in India and Al-Qarawiyyin University in Morocco. India was a great seat of learning in ancient period where people from the various parts of the world used to come to India to acquire knowledge. Nalanda, Taxila, Mithila, Vikramasila, Baranasi, Valabhi etc. were the popular names where systematic ways of higher education prevailed. Al-Qarawiyyin is also a popular higher learning institute in Morocco which is the symbol of Islamic tradition, culture and education. It is not too old as Nalanda but it was started its journey when Nalanda reached its highest pride. Though no record was found whether there was any connection regarding the educational transactions between these two Universities existed or not but this study helps to recognize the pattern, structure and other factors which were responsible for the development of higher education in that period. This paper highlights the academic brilliance of Nalanda system of education in the perspective of Nalanda-contemporary (415 A.D. – 1200 A.D.) global higher education with special reference to Al-Qarawiyyin. The method employed for the present study is historical and analytical in nature.

**Key words:** Scholastic excellence, Global higher education

### **Introduction**

**N**alanda and Al-Qarawiyyin are the famous names as higher learning institutions in the ancient world. Pupils from the various parts of the world were attracted and came to these higher learning institutions to satisfy their urge of knowledge. When Al-Qarawiyyin started its journey, Nalanda had already reached in its highest pride. In the history of human civilization, it is found that the formal education was started

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through religious institutions. Nalanda and Al-Qarawiyyin were also started primarily as religious centres; Nalanda as a centre of Buddhist religion and culture whereas Al-Qarawiyyin was the leading spiritual and religious centre of the Muslim world.

This paper is an attempt to make a comparative evaluation of both the systems of education of Nalanda and Al-Qarawiyyin, the two significant ancient centres of higher education in order to focus the scholastic excellence of Nalanda system of higher education. The method employed for the present study is historical and analytical in nature.

### **Objectives of the Study**

- i) To trace the system of education prevailed in Nalanda;
- ii) To analyze the structure of education prevailed in Al-Qarawiyyin;
- iii) To evaluate the scholastic brilliance of both the systems of education prevailed in Nalanda and Al-Qarawiyyin and to make a comparative estimation.

### **Nalanda: A Centre of Learning**

#### ***Background History***

Nalanda has a very long history and great contribution in world education. It was situated in latitude 25°30' and 25°83' North and longitude 85°16' and 85°27' East. The scattered ruins of Nalanda are situated near the village Bargaon, 11 km north of modern Rajgir and 85 km south-east of Patna in Bihar.

In between the period 427 A.D. & 1197 A.D. – Nalanda achieved glorious and incredible position with high status and pride in the world educational scenario though a big confusion is there regarding the time period of foundation of the University. According to the Tibetan historian *Taranatha*, Nalanda was the birth place of the venerable *Sariputra*. *Ashoka* was the first ruler who built a great Buddha temple which probably became the precursor of the later Nalanda *Vihara*. But Nalanda appeared as a learning centre near by the half of the 5<sup>th</sup> century A.D. According to Prof. Samaddar (Samaddar, “the Glories of Magadha”, P - 135, 2<sup>nd</sup> edition) – the foundation of Nalanda took place in the reign of *Sakraditya* (Kumara Gupta I, *Mohendraditya* – 415 A.D. – 455 A.D.) round 427 A.D. In his language Professor samaddar said, “We reach the year 427 as the initial year of *Sakraditya*'s reign. This date comes very near the earliest known date of *Kumara Gupta I* that is 415-16, of the Bilsad inscription, the foundation of Nalanda took place round 427 A.D.”. It is to be noted that Nalanda became flourished when a stream of scholastic pilgrimage began to flow towards the place. The final decline of the University was taken place by a barbarous adventurer, Muhammad Bakhtiyar Khalji, in approximately 1200 A.D.

### *Scholastic Brilliance*

Though Nalanda was emerged as a centre of Buddhist tradition and education, still gradually it covered a wide range of subjects including all branches of Buddhism, other Indian philosophical systems, *Chikitsavidya* or Medicine, Astronomy, Geography, Mathematics, *Hetavidya* or logic, *Sabdavidya* or Grammar and other arts and science subjects of the day. The wonderful event is that when the present highly economic developed countries asleep into the depth of darkness mainly in the area of literacy and civilization, the then India was mostly advanced in the field of education through the ancient educational institutions like, Taxila, Nalanda, Vikramasila *Mahavihara* etc. So, Nalanda should not be considered as only an educational institution but it should be treated as the witness of the educational history of the human civilization. Thousands of years passed over, dynasties passed, political ups and downs had been occurred – Nalanda and its pride may be de-memorised but its significance is still very much important and without it the history of Indian education system cannot be possible to analyse.

Nalanda *Mahavihara* being a seat of higher studies had a system of specialization. I-tsing wrote, “In the Nalanda monastery, the number of priests is immense and exceeds three thousand; it is difficult to assemble so many together in one place. There are eight halls and three hundred apartments in this monastery. The worship can only take place separately, as most convenient to each number. Thus it is customary to send out, everyday, one preceptor to go round from place to place chanting hymns being preceded by monastic lay servants and children carrying with them incense and flowers. He goes from one hall to another and in each time he chants the service, every time three or five slokas in a high tone and the sound is heard all round. At twilight he finishes this duty. This preceptor generally is presented by the Monstary with some special gift (Puga). In addition, there are some who, sitting alone, facing the shrine (Gandhakuti), praise the Buddha in their hearts. There are others, who going to the temple, (in a small party) kneel side by side with their bodies upright and putting their hands on the ground, touch it with their heads and thus perform the three fold salutation”.

The subjects taught at Nalanda cover almost every aspect of education which could be classified broadly into religious and secular groups laying more emphasis on the former. The subjects can be given as follows-

- Buddhist – Tripitika, Jatakamala poems, Abhidharmakosa of vasubandhu, Yogasastra, Nyayanusara sastra, Tantras, Buddha-charita-kavya etc.
- Brahmanical – *Vedas*, *Samkhya*, other old and modern learning of Brahmanical works.

- Secular – *Heturvedya, Sabdavidya, Chikitsavidya* and Miscellaneous works, *Vyakarana*, Sanskrit language, Sculpture, Paintings, Metallurgy, *Sarpavidya* etc.

According to Hiuen-Tsang students of Nalanda were regulated strictly according to proper time schedule. The teachers made the gift of the sacred law to the students which excelled all other gifts as it aimed at extinction of craving and suffering. They unfolded the meaningful knots in the texts. According to I-Tsing – “Monks generally assemble at a place in the vihara where they take seats. Then a lecturer ascends the simhasana and recites a short sutra. After the lecture, the assembled monks say “sadhhu-sadhu”. Then the lecturer comes down and the monks bow down to the simhasana respectively”. The type of teaching was mainly professional in nature.

In the course of studies the *yogi* learnt preaching, discussions, heard lectures, memorized them and grasped the *Abhidhamma, Vinaya, Gatha* etc. The aim was to become a man of letters (*Vidya-purusha*). Students were under the strict discipline. For offences the brethren has a gradation of penalties. According to Hiuen-Tsang there were nearly 10,000 students but I-Tsing’s time the number of the students supported at the monastery exceeded 3000 [other view 5000 and in his (I-Tsing) memoirs, as 3500]. So, there was a confusion regarding the number of students studied at Nalanda. But it is no doubt that huge number of students from the various parts of the world studied there. The admission of a student possessed a complex procedure. The entrance examination was very strict so that its standard might be in keeping with that of its studies. *Dwar-pandita* asked various questions, which were connected with difficult problems. Most of the students were failure in giving answers. Only about twenty to thirty percent students could be able to success. Nalanda Mahavihara possessed a very large and rich library which comprised three monumental edifices, called Ratna Sagara, Ratna Dadhi and Ratna Ranjaka, of which Ratna Sagara that was a nine-storeyed building, was specialized in the collection of rare and sacred works.

Nalanda was noted for its specialization in the last stages of a University education. At that time Nalanda was particularly a research institute for advanced students. The stamp of its approval was necessary for any opinion to gain currency in the country. The highest academic degree of distinction of the times was a fellowship of Nalanda. Nalanda also had a department of secondary education for regular internal students for whom the above tests of admission did not apply. It admitted youngsters, the *Brahmacharis* and *Manavakas*. The University provided for all alumni free of cost there four requisite of clothes, food, bedding and medicine. The students could give themselves whole heartedly to their studies and self culture.

#### ***Eminent Teachers and Scholars***

Nalanda was too much enriched with its high degree of teachers. Actually so much fame of Nalanda as a centre of learning was mainly due to the fame of its

teachers. Among them Asanga, Vasubandhu, Dinnaga, Sthiramati, Gunamati, Chandragomin, Chandrakirti, Dharmapala, Dharmakirti, Silabhadra, Pravakara Mitra, Rahulabhadra, Nagarjuna II, Aryadeva, Santideva, Santarakshita, Kamalasila and many of others.

According to Hiuen-Tsang, the ranking of monks led to the institutions of academic titles indicative of the different degrees of status, standing and grade to which they belonged. The highest title was *Kulapati*. Next title of distinction was *Pandita*, *Maha-pandita* etc. The rooms of the monks were distributed according to their ranks. Better rooms were allotted for highest ranks and gradually to the lowest.

The great university demise was result of waning enthusiasm for Buddhism in India, declining financial support from successive Indian monarchs and corruption among university officials and a huge straw may be called as final straw was the burning of the building by Muslim invader Bakhtiyar Khalji.

### **Al-Qarawiyyin: A Centre of Learning**

#### ***Background History***

Al-Qarawiyyin is a University located in Fez, Morocco. Al-Qarawiyyin situated in latitude 34°02'13" North and longitude 4°59'59" West. It was founded by Fatima al-Fihri in 859 A.D. with an associated school or madrasa. In contrast according to UNESCO and a number of other sources, Al-Qarawiyyin is considered to have been a University since its founding that it is the oldest existing University in the world. According to the Guinness Book of World Record- the Al-Qarawiyyin institution is the oldest continuously operating academic degree-granting University in the world. However, the matter is still in a debate regarding its oldest stand. The mosque of Al-Qarawiyyin now is largest in Africa with a capacity of 22000 worshippers. The design of the mosque is austere, the columns and arches are plain white, and the floors are covered in mats. The present form of the mosque has come in- forth through a long historical evolution of more than thousand years. In the beginning, the mosque was about 30 meters long. Umayyad Caliph of Cordoba, Abd-ar-Rahman III, first expanded the mosque in 956 A. D. The most extensive re-construction was taken place under the patronage of the Almoravid ruler Sultan Ali Ibn Yusuf in 1135 A. D. and the structure in this period was expanded to more than 3000 square meters. In the 16<sup>th</sup> century, the mosque was restored by the Saadis with the addition of two patios to the northern and southern ends of the court-yard.

#### ***Structure and System of Education***

Al-Qarawiyyin Madrasa took a vital role which may be called as leading role in developing culture and academic prosperity in the Islamic world in the middle ages. Mohammad al- Idrisi, a famous cartographer said that European exploration in the Renaissance have lived in Fez, Morocco for some time. The Al-Qarawiyyin Madrasa and its glorious pattern of education has produced a number of numerous scholars

who have a significant role in the intellectual and academic realms of the Muslim world.

The pattern of education was mainly concentrated on the Islam and its associated matters with a heavy emphasis on classical Arabic grammar and Maliki law, though some of the non-Islamic subjects were also taught like English, French, Medicine, Mathematics and even History, Geography and Music. The quality of education was so high that the students from all-over the Muslim world were attracted. There were a large number of applicants who tried to take admission in the University but the University had to introduce a selection system that the student must have the knowledge of whole Quran, knowledge of Arabic language and of general sciences and belong to the Muslim community. The method of teaching was traditional in nature. Mainly lecture method was followed there. Generally, 13 to 30 age groups of students were studied there. The high school level Diplomas and University level Bachelor's degrees were awarded for the students.

#### *Eminent Teachers and Scholars*

Al-Qarawiyyin Madrasa has produced a number of eminent scholars who have influenced significantly in the intellectual and cultural history of the Muslim world as well as Jewish world. The famous theorist of the Maliki school of Islamic jurisprudence, Abu Imran al-Fasi, the famous writer Leo Africanus, Ibn Maimun, Al-Idrissi, Ibn al-Arabi, Ibn Khaldun and many others were all connected with Al-Qarawiyyin as students or scholars or lecturers. There were some of the famous Christian scholars also like Belgian Nicolas Cleynaerts and Dutchman Golius who enriched the educational system of Al-Qarawiyyin.

#### *Al-Qarawiyyin at Present*

In 1963 the Madrasa of Al-Qarawiyyin was finally declared and transformed into a University under the ministry of education of Morocco government. The old mosque school was shut down. Four renowned departments were founded in and outside of the city. Department of Islamic law in Fez, department of Arabic studies in Marrakech, department of theology in Tetouan and a general department in Agadir. The old building is now reformed as the office of Dean of the University. Modern curriculum and international standard of text-books has been introduced. Well trained teachers of various subjects who are specialized in their respective field are now engaged for teaching; not only the students of the Muslim community, but also the students of various culture and religion who possess sufficient quality can also take admission in the University.

#### **Comparative Evaluation**

From the above discussion a comparison between the two systems of education of Nalanda and Al-Qarawiyyin has been drawn.

- **Nature of Institution**  
Nalanda and Al-Qarawiyyin both were fully institutional with definite location and fully furnished buildings. Other facilities of higher educational system like students' hostel, library, specialized teacher etc. were present there.
- **Religious Factors**  
Nalanda was initially emerged as a centre of Buddhist tradition and education but gradually covered a wide range of secular subjects like Logic, Medicine and Grammar etc.  
On the other hand, Al-Qarawiyyin was fully a centre of education following Islamic tradition, culture and education with a greater emphasis on Classical Arabic Grammar, Linguistics and Maliki law. Though in the later period especially after 1963 A.D. many secular subjects like Medicine, Astronomy, Foreign languages (English, French) History, Geography etc. have been included.
- **Method of Instruction**  
In Al-Qarawiyyin mainly lecture method that is traditional method of teaching was followed. Students were seated in a semi-circle (Halqa) around a sheikh (teacher). The sheikh used to prompt the students to read sections of a particular text and ask them questions on particular points of grammar, law and also explain the difficult portions.  
Whereas in Nalanda Lecture method was the leading method but other methods like discussion, education by work experience etc. were used side by side. It can be said that the activity of the students, that is the child-centric education was taken place in the institution. Seminar was considered as one of the important criteria of Nalanda education system. Hence, it was more up-to-date.
- **Admission Procedure**  
A large number of students devoted their efforts to take admission in Al-Qarawiyyin but all of them did not get the scope to take admission. The administration of the Al-Qarawiyyin University had to introduce a selection procedure following that the candidate had sufficient knowledge of whole Quran, Arabic language, General Sciences and must belong to the Muslim community.  
In Nalanda only those students were admitted who had the necessary background to follow higher studies. Students came from the various parts of the world like Mongolia, China, Korea, Tibet etc. According to Hiuen-Tsang that only 20% of those who came seeking for admission came out successful at the entrance test and the remaining had to go back in disappointment. Those who examined the candidates seeking admission were experts in religious controversies and were always



ready with difficult problems to try the competence of aspirants for admission. The probable age of admission was not less than 20. Four experts popularly known as Dwar-Pandita asked them various questions. If the answers were satisfied then the students should be given permission for admission. So, student's quality was only the condition of eligibility for admission.

- **Medium of Instruction**

In Nalanda, 'Pali' was the main medium of instruction but the knowledge of Sanskrit language was also very essential.

In Al-Qarawiyyin 'Arabic' was only the medium.

- **National and Global Appeals**

Nalanda had international appeal; it was an organized learning centre. It drew students from all over the world like China, Korea, Mongolia, Tibet, Japan and Turkey etc.

Al-Qarawiyyin always maintained a prestigious and colourful position in respect of Islamic culture and tradition. The Muslim students of all over Morocco gathered for seeking admission in Al-Qarawiyyin as it was the symbol of high pride and prestige. In the later period, a large number of students from South-Africa, outside of Morocco, and even from East-Asia of the Muslim community came here for study so, in the initial stage, Al-Qarawiyyin had no international appeal but gradually it was developed in the later period but it is never comparable with Nalanda as Nalanda occupied a unique stand in the-then international level of education.

### Concluding Remarks

Nalanda and Al-Qarawiyyin- both had a significant role in the history of education. Actually, Nalanda was the symbol and the starting point of modern concept of higher education. Nalanda system of education is still very much relevant and it has a great impact on the modern concept of University level education. Nalanda had been dilapidated by the devouring time but Al-Qarawiyyin still exists. Al-Qarawiyyin at present is the oldest existing and continually operating educational institution in the world according to UNESCO and Guinness World Record.

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## POSITIVE EMOTIONS AND WELL-BEING

*Mohsina Nabi\**  
*Touseef Rizvi\*\**

The concept of emotion was an early topic within psychology. Yet emotional phenomena were not studied because the proponents of behaviorism considered them as irrelevant and misleading phenomena. It was only in 1984 with the formation of the International Society for Research on Emotions (ISRE), the first multi-disciplinary professional association for scholars specializing in this area, that emotions science emerged as an organized subspecialty. Since then research on emotions has expanded. Yet even decades after emotions became an accepted topic of scientific inquiry, psychologists focused only on negative emotions, namely fear, anger, sadness, and the like. Likewise, Applied Psychology and Psychiatry focused on human weakness rather than strengths. But the emergence of Positive Psychology movement has seen a redirection towards the scientific exploration of human strengths and virtues. It offers a balanced perspective of studying psychological assets and deficits.

Folk wisdom has promoted the idea that positive emotions are good for health: "A good laugh makes you healthy" (Swedish proverb) "Mirth and merriment . . . bars a thousand harms and lengthens life" (Shakespeare). Research has revealed that while humans are hard-wired to feel negative emotions more strongly, they are also hard-wired to experience positive emotions more frequently. However, people seem to give little importance to their positive emotions, when they seem to be important for their physical and psychological health.

Like all emotions, positive emotions are brief, multi-system responses to some change in the way people interpret or appraise their current circumstances. They are also short lived experiences that produce changes in physiology, thoughts, and behaviours. Positive emotions are more than the absence of negative emotions. For example, feeling happy or excited is more than not feeling sad or bored. While negative emotions often lead to withdrawal and behaviour restriction, experiencing positive emotions are believed to lead to an individual engaging with their environment in an

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adaptive manner. Evidence suggests that people who experience frequent positive emotions tend to be successful and proficient across many spheres of life. Positive emotions lead people to think, feel, and act in ways that promote both resource building and involvement with approach goals.

The theory which is an exploration of the evolved function of positive emotions is known as the Broaden-and-Build theory. It was developed by Barbara Fredrickson starting around 1998 and is commonly associated with Positive Psychology. Fredrickson's (2001) theory is based on two separate but related components referred to as *broaden* and *build*. The fundamental assumption of the *broaden hypothesis* is that positive emotions widen attention and focus. Fredrickson proposes that negative emotions (e.g., fear, anger, sadness) are experienced in situations perceived as threatening. Therefore, attention is restricted or narrowed and individuals engage in specific-action tendencies such as escaping, repelling, or attacking. In contrast, positive emotions widen focus and lead to broad, creative, and flexible thinking. Fredrickson has argued that whereas negative emotions heighten people's autonomic activity and narrow their attention to support specific action tendencies (e.g., attack, escape), positive emotions suppress autonomic arousal because they extend people's attention, thinking, and behavioral repertoires (e.g., play, explore).

The second component i.e., the *build hypothesis* assumes that broadened attention leads to increased engagement with the environment. This increased engagement with the environment leads to building of *psychological resources*, such as self-efficacy and coping skills; *cognitive resources*, such as reasoning skills and domain-specific knowledge; *physical resources*, such as effective immune functioning and proper stress regulation; and *relational resources*, such as intimate relationships and wide social networks. People with these resources are more likely to effectively meet life's challenges and take advantage of its opportunities, becoming successful, healthy, and happy. Thus, the personal resources accumulated, often unintentionally, through frequent experiences of positive emotions are suggested to be keys to later increases in well-being.

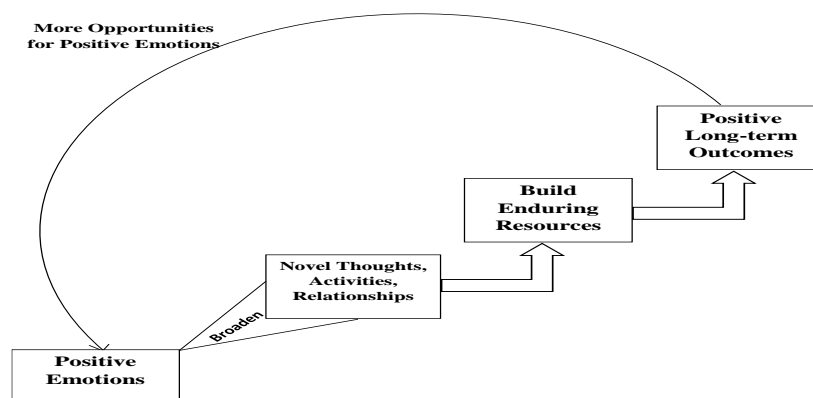
Positive emotions have a beneficial impact on health. For example, Pressman and Cohen (2005) suggest that experiencing positive emotions may encourage individuals to value life and their health and therefore engage in proactive behaviours such as exercising and eating well. Furthermore, positive emotions may link with the release of hormones and neurotransmitters that have a protective and beneficial impact on health. Similarly, there have been several studies that have associated positive emotions with increased immune functioning (Pressman & Cohen, 2005). Positive emotions may also have protective physiological consequences via the activation of the parasympathetic nervous system and the reduction of the stress response.

Consistently research has shown that people who experience and express positive emotions more frequently than others are more resilient (Fredrickson, Tugade,

Waugh & Larkin, 2003), resourceful (Lyubomirsky, King, & Diener, 2005), socially connected (Mausset al., 2012) and more likely to function at optimal levels (Fredrickson & Losada, 2005). Positive emotions temporarily broaden people's ways of thinking, which in turn can improve their ways of coping with a current stress. Over time and with repeated experiences of positive emotions, a style of such broad-minded coping might become habitual. And habitual good coping is a durable personal resource, a facet of trait resilience, that functions as a reserve that can be drawn on later to help people bounce back from a wide range of future adversities. The personal resources accumulated through positive emotions are durable—they survive the momentary emotional states that led to their acquisition. By consequence, then, the often incidental effect of experiencing a positive emotion is an increase in one's personal resources. So, through experiences of positive emotions, people may literally transform themselves, becoming more creative, knowledgeable, socially integrated, healthy, and resilient individuals. These various resources function as reserves that can be drawn on throughout life to improve coping. Indeed, a study of elderly nuns found that those who expressed the most positive emotions in early adulthood lived up to 10 years longer than those who expressed the least positive emotions (Danner, Snowdon, & Friesen, 2001).

Lyubomirsky, King and Diener (2005) concluded that living a life high on positive emotions leaves individuals better equipped physically, psychologically, and socially to flourish and cope with the challenges of life. For example, the experience of interest may lead to exploration and investigation, resulting in increased knowledge and understanding (Fredrickson & Joiner, 2002). Therefore, positive emotions may help generate resources, maintain a sense of vital energy (i.e., more positive emotions), and create even more resources. Cohn and Fredrickson (2009) referred to this positive sequence as the "upward spiral" of positive emotions. (Figure).

**Figure: A schematic representation of the broaden-and-build theory.**



Source: From Cohn, M. A. & Fredrickson, B. L. (2009). Positive emotions. In S. J. Lopez & C. R. Snyder (Eds.), *Oxford handbook of positive psychology* (pp. 13-24).

Some theorists believe that it is the ratio of positive to negative emotions that is important for well-being. Fredrickson and Losada (2005) reviewed literature on flourishing individuals, business teams, and marriages and proposed that a ratio of positive to negative emotions of above 2.9 leads to flourishing (i.e., high well-being, resilience, functioning, and growth).

Thus, the effects of positive emotions are assumed to accumulate over time. Benefits of positive emotions emerge slowly, but they endure, and help individuals thrive in both good times and bad.

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## **PERSONALITY OF PUPIL TEACHERS WITH RESPECT TO THEIR PLACE OF RESIDENCE, GENDER AND STREAM**

*Vijay Kumar\**

### **Abstract**

The study is conducted to find the influences of Place of Residence, Gender and Stream on the Personality of Pupil Teachers. The objective includes study of the personality of pupil teachers with respect to their place of residence, gender and stream. It is conducted on 200 pupil-teachers from colleges in Jalandhar district through random selection. Eysenck Personality Questionnaire-Revised by S.B.G Eysenck has been used to collect data related to the study. t- test has been used to find the significance of difference between means of Personality scores. Findings of the study are a) Place of residence and stream of subjects does not make any significant influence on the personality of the pupil-teachers; b) Personality of males are found to be more psychotic than female pupil-teachers.

**Keyword:** - Personality; Place of Residence; Gender; Stream; Pupil Teachers

### **Introduction**

The twenty first century is characterized by the emergence of culturalism due to industrialization, urbanization, globalization and disintegration in the family system. Since education is viewed an instrument to develop the cognitive qualities, tolerance and understanding of people, it should prepare the younger generation to understand and face the realities of globalization. In this context, the schools and teachers have more responsibilities in moulding the character of students.

Professionalism demands teacher to be innovative in their attitudes, flexible in their approach, always refreshing himself or herself with the day-to-day developments in their subject area. At the same time they should be capable of recognizing the value of human potentials, understanding the diverse needs of the learners and provide enriched environment for their growth. In essence, the dream of a learning society becomes real only when the teachers are well equipped with moral, professional, emotional, social, intellectual, practical and good communication skills. In this

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situation, social intelligence is an imperative construct in the field of psychology and education.

Although the relationship between personality and intelligence variables have been conceptualized and investigated as a linear one, there is a possibility of non-linear relationship between IQ and certain personality qualities. Also the magnitude (or direction) of the relationship may change across time and there may be a shift in the nature of relationship across time, context and cultural groups. Furthermore, the extent of relationship between intelligence and certain personality traits may vary with certain background variables such as social background or gender.

### **Personality**

Every individual is said to have personality of his own, which is unique and distinct from every other personality. In a popular sense, by personality we mean that an individual has some striking qualities or traits in which he differs from others that is in appearance, in aggressiveness or pleasant manners etc. The unique quality of his behavior constitutes shape to his personality that is feelings; values; reactions; prejudices; attitudes; perceptions are the basis of one's behavior. Thus personality includes physique, habits, temperaments, sentiments, will and intelligence etc.

Personality pervades every aspect of human life and influences every behavior. It is one of this ground that Woodworth calls personality as the quality of one's behavior. The personality of an individual is much more complex and goes deeper. Personality is meant as the individual's characteristics and reaction to social situations and his adaptation to his social features of his environment. Hence, personality is not only what we do in relation to others, but something more than that. Ordinary the personality is taken as the external appearance of the individual. In philosophy the meaning of personality has been interpreted in the sense of self. But in psychology neither is the personality the external appearance nor it is the self, but it includes both and much more.

Personality is sum total of characteristics that differentiates people or the stability in a person's behavior across different situations. Personality is the entire mental organization of human being at the stage of his development. It embraces every phase of human character, intellect, temperament, skill, morality, and every attitude that has build the course of one's life. Jung (1923) developed the concept of collective unconsciousness; which proposed that we inherit certain personality characteristics from our ancestors and the human race as a whole. He categorized and explains individual in different terms of function and attitudes. The four basic mental functions (processes), each representing a characteristic way of approaching experience, are considered to be the essence of Jung's personality theory. Each of the four functions sensing, intuition, thinking and feeling- involve an individual's orientation towards self and the environment through the use of perception and judgment. Jung believes

that in order to make individuals function well, they must have a way to perceive a stimulus (i.e. perception through sensing or intuition) and to make an adequate response to that perception (i.e. making a decision or judgment through thinking or feeling).

Eysenck et al (1971) said that personality is the more or less stable and enduring organization of a person's character, temperament, intellect and physique that determines his unique adjustment to his environment.

Thus the personality is the organization of the internal and the external activities. It includes external appearance, abilities, aptitude and capacities etc. It is not a collection of traits, but a particular organization of them. A complete definition of personality would include many factors: intellectual abilities, motives acquired in the process of growing up, emotional reactivity, attitudes, beliefs and moral values.

Cameron et al (1968) investigated the personality differences between typical urban Negroes and Whites. He found (1) similar scores for Negroes and Whites for the ego strength, extroversion, lie, masculinity-femininity, and liking-others-scale; (2) Negroes tested less hostile, less neurotic, more religious, and claimed to feel better liked by people-in-general than whites.

Main (1971) found that (1) science teachers were found to be generally more reserved, calm and mature, and appeared more serious and taciturn; (2) in the group dependent versus self-sufficient factor, science teachers placed more toward the self-sufficient, resourceful polarity than the other teachers; and (3) female science teachers appeared to be more outgoing and warm-hearted, while male science teachers were more tough-minded, self-reliant, and realistic.

Meredith and Bradley (1976) examined student personality patterns and concluded that they give considerable indication as to whether a student is likely to specialize in an art-related or a science-related academic field. Findings were that student science groups and student art groups showed a similar thing-person orientation, in contrast to adult science and art groups.

McGrath and Zimet (1977) studied sex differences in specialty choices, specialty beliefs, and personality characteristics of female and male medical students. They found that there is a significant difference between men and women and indicated that female medical students' choices and personality characteristics have changed to less traditional and stereotypic positions.

Baker (1982) found that males preferred to make decisions based on logical analysis and females based on personal values; science majors had higher mathematics scores than nonscience majors mostly due to the scores of physical science majors; no difference existed in the mathematics scores of biological and nonscience majors; science majors had the scientific personality and a positive attitude toward science;



nonscience majors had the nonscientific personality and a negative attitude; males, and female physical science majors had masculine characteristics; all female nonscience majors had feminine characteristics; and female biological majors were predominantly feminine.

McCreary and Gershen (1982) studied two dental classes for personality change in the freshman year and after graduation. Significant test/retest increases were found on orderliness and conformity scales and decreases on the activity/energy scale. Sex differences occurred on activity/energy, emotional stability, and masculinity/femininity scales. In one class, females decreased in empathy.

Hantz and Wright (1985) found that that the students possessed a more fragmented attitude about social responsibility than did the professionals. Several differences appeared between men and women students where no such differences appeared among professionals. Women students tended to endorse more strongly the traditional values of doing one's best, keeping promises to friends, the need to associate oneself with others, and the worth of volunteering. The male students seemed to have acquired these aspects of personality, but to a much lesser degree.

Khatoon (1988) studied that rural students tended to be assertive and self-sufficient whereas urban students were obedient and grouped dependent. He also studied that male students were more phlegmatic, adventurous, tough minded and placid in comparison to female student who were excitable, shy, tender minded and apprehensive by nature.

Dadu (1992) studied that rural male and urban male students did not differ in their personality traits and values.

Meit, Borges, Cubic and Seibel (2007) found that distinct personality differences existed between male and female medical students. Results suggest that female medical students are more warm and outgoing (Warmth); more dutiful (Rule-Consciousness); more sensitive (Sensitivity); more self-doubting and worried (Apprehension); more organized and self-disciplined (Perfectionism); and more tense and driven (Tension) than their male counterparts. On the other hand, male medical students appear to be more adaptive and mature (Emotional Stability); more forceful and assertive (Dominance); more suspicious and skeptical (Vigilance); more imaginative and idea-oriented (Abstractedness); more private and discreet (Privateness); and more solitary and individualistic (Self-Reliance) as compared to female medical students.

Caspi et al (2006) studied that despite of frequent attendance to both educational environments, the classroom since to enhance students' active participation whereas Web-based instructional environment-WBIE appears to inhabit it. Participants in class were more extroverted, open to new experiences and emotionally stable, relative to non-participant. Such differences were not found

between WBIE participants and non-participants. Students who actively participated only in WBIE were more introverted and more neurotic than students who participated in both environments, students who did not participate in either instructional environment, or students who participated exclusively in class. These results point to psychological impact of the two instructional environments and suggest viewing in social participation as a result of educational context while individual differences play secondary role.

### *Significance of the Study*

The advancement in science and technology needs an individual to develop skills and competence to cope with the external demands by coping with the external demands, zeal, persistence, motivation and regulation of emotions and behaviour. It has been suggested that once we know and understand our personality characteristics, it will be possible to be aware of other. Pupil teachers lay the foundation stone for the social, emotional and intellectual potentialities. Hence it is imperative to assess the personality characteristics of pupil teachers.

The present study is justified to crystallize and confirm that good personality required for proper functioning as pupil teacher.

### *Objective*

The study is designed to study the personality of pupil teachers with respect to their place of residence, gender and stream.

### *Hypothesis*

It has been hypothesized that there is no significant difference in the various dimensions of personality of pupil teachers with respect to their place of residence; gender; and stream of subjects.

### **Methodology**

#### *Sample*

For the present study, 4 colleges of education affiliated to G.N.D.U. Amritsar have been selected out of 7 according to convenience in the Jalandhar district. Out of these colleges, 50 pupil-teachers from each college have been selected randomly to collect the information regarding personality. The total sample for the study comprised of 200 pupil-teachers.

#### *Design of the Study*

Personality of the pupil-teachers is studied in relation to residential area, gender and stream. Personality has been studied as dependent variables and gender, place of residence and stream have been studied as independent variables.

### ***Procedure***

In order to conduct the present study 4 colleges of education out of 7 were selected according to convenience from Jalandhar district. 50 students from each college were selected randomly. For ensuring the co-operation of pupil teacher, good rapport was established with them before administration of tests. The pupil teachers were asked to respond as truthfully as possible to the questionnaire. After the collection of information regarding personality of pupil teachers, scoring was done and data was subjected to statistical analysis.

### ***Tools***

Eysenck Personality Questionnaire-Revised by S.B.G Eysenck has been used to collect information from pupil teachers.

### ***Statistical Techniques Employed***

The following statistical techniques were used to analyze the obtained data:

- 1 Descriptive statistics has been used to understand the nature of the data.
- 2 t- Test has been employed to study the significance of difference between means of Personality scores due to gender, place of residence and stream of subjects.

### ***Results and Discussion***

The means, S.D's and 't' ratios of the sub groups of various dimensions of personality with respect to place of residence are calculated and presented below in the table 1.

From table 1, it has been observed that t-values for various dimension scores of personality due to place of residence and stream of subjects of pupil-teachers are not found to be significant even at the 0.05 level of confidence. However, it has been observed that t-value for Psychoticism dimension of personality is found to be significant at 0.05 level of confidence among male and female-pupil teachers. Thus the hypothesis namely, there is no significant difference in various dimensions of the personality of pupil-teachers with respect to their place of residence; gender; and stream of subjects is not rejected except for Psychoticism dimension of personality with respect to gender. It suggests that the place of residence (Dadu, 1992) and stream of subjects (Meredith and Bradley, 1976) does not make any significant influence on the personality of the pupil-teachers. Also, it is reflected from the mean scores that male pupil-teachers are more psychotic than female-pupil teachers. It suggests that gender make a significant impact on the personality of pupil-teachers. The findings are in tune with Mc Creary and Gershen (1982); & Mcgrath and Zimet (1977).

**Table 1: t-Ratios between the Differences in the Means of various dimensions of Personality in Urban and Rural Pupil-teachers.**

Personality Dimensions	Category	N	Mean	S.D.	D	t
Psychoticism	Urban	118	5.669	2.849	.096	.224
	Rural	82	5.573	3.083		
	Male	64	6.359	2.858	1.073	2.466*
	Female	136	5.286	2.926		
	Science	77	5.532	2.746	.159	.383
	Arts	123	5.691	3.065		
Neuroticism	Urban	118	11.084	4.112	.45	.789
	Rural	82	10.634	3.876		
	Male	64	10.375	3.998	.772	.192
	Female	136	11.147	4.012		
	Science	77	10.571	3.338	.534	1.08
	Arts	123	11.105	4.384		
Extraversion	Urban	118	13.635	3.875	.438	.893
	Rural	82	14.073	3.074		
	Male	64	14.14	3.351	.48	.919
	Female	136	13.661	3.666		
	Science	77	13.831	3.707	.027	.051
	Arts	123	13.804	3.491		

\* Significant at 0.05 level of confidence

\*\* Significant at 0.01 level of confidence

### Conclusion

From the above findings it can be concluded that the place of residence and stream of subjects does not make any influence on the personality of the pupil-teachers. It suggest that residing in different areas are not instrumental in personality development. Similarly, stuying different subjects also do not contribute to personality development. Further, it is reflected that gender influences the personality development and male pupil-teachers are found more psychotic than female-pupil teachers. Thus, it can be said that personality development at this age of life is not changed due to area or stream but gender influences at this age also.

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## **AWARENESS OF REGULAR PRIMARY SCHOOL TEACHERS TOWARDS INCLUSIVE EDUCATION WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO SPECIAL NEEDS CHILDREN**

*Poornima Rajendran\**  
*D. Elavarasi\*\**

### **Abstract**

The present paper is a research study based on the awareness of eighty regular primary school teachers working in Kuppam Mandal of Chittoor District, Andhra Pradesh State, India towards inclusive education with special reference to special needs children. A Questionnaire has been developed by the investigator to identify the awareness level which comprises of forty statements divided under four headings i.e. concept of inclusive education, organisational structure and classroom management, identification and assessment and, teaching and training methodologies. The results revealed that the primary school teachers exhibited moderate level of awareness in all the four aspects of inclusive education and the variables like age, locality of school, orientation programme attended and medium of teaching has significantly influenced their awareness level. The implications like organising in-service training programmes on inclusive education concepts and the role of mass media has been discussed based on the results.

**Key Words :** Inclusive education, primary school teachers, special needs children.

### **Background of the Study**

The term inclusive education is a buzzing word in the international arena, even though the concept itself is having confusion (Dyson, 2004, p. 615) and taking different forms depending on contextual concerns (Dyson, 2004, p. 615; Norwich, 2008, p. 18; Slee, 2004). The notion 'inclusive education' has got spectrum of usage and understanding in both the developed and in developing countries. As cited by Miles and Singal (2010), the concept of inclusive education is described as practices within special schools in England (Spurgeon, 2007) and in some UK contexts, inclusive education is no longer associated with disability or special needs, but rather with

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school attendance or behaviour (Ainscow et al., 2006). Ainscow et al. (2006, p. 15) have developed a typology of six ways of thinking about inclusion. These are: Inclusion as a concern with disabled students and others categorised as 'having special educational needs'; Inclusion as a response to disciplinary exclusion; Inclusion in relation to all groups seen as being vulnerable to exclusion; Inclusion as developing the school for all; Inclusion as 'Education for All' and; Inclusion as a principled approach to education and society.

In developing countries, particularly with reference to Indian context, the term inclusive education remains to be a concept argued only at the document level. The concept is merely discussed and practiced only with reference to special needs children. Inclusion in education is a process of enabling all children, including previously excluded groups, to learn and participate effectively within mainstream school system. Placing excluded children within a mainstream setting does not itself achieve inclusion. The difference between integration and inclusion is : in case of integration, extra support was provided to help the students with special needs to participate in the mainstream program without content or delivery of that program being changed in any significant way. Inclusive education, on the other hand, requires significant changes to be made in the mainstream program in terms of organization, content, delivery in order to accommodate a much wider range of ability and disability than ever before. Much of the recent literature on inclusion talks of totally 'restructuring schools' to make them more responsive to the diversity of learning needs and characteristics in their students. Inclusion also means identifying any barriers within and around the school that hinder learning and participation and reducing or removing these barriers.

The practice of inclusive education has hardly emerged at schools recently where Indian Parliament passed the Right of Children to Free and Compulsory Education (Amendment) Bill, 2012 thereby providing for an integrated education process which would allow differently-abled children in the age group 6- 14 the right of admission to any school. Teachers, schools and systems should change for better accommodation of the diversity of needs that pupils have and that they are included in all aspects of school life. In the present study, inclusive education refers to schools, centers of learning and educational systems that ensure participation and education for all the special needs children. This way of thinking about inclusion is parallel with the first typology (of 6 typology) developed by Ainscow et al. (2006).

### **Roles and Responsibilities of Teachers in Implementation of Inclusive Education**

In inclusive education the roles and responsibilities of the teachers will drastically change that of the regular school teachers. The term inclusion refers to the provision of supportive services, taking up of more responsibilities to accommodate varied types of learners. It means the teacher has to play not only the traditional role of teacher in a traditional way but incorporating changes in the nature of instruction, its



process and product. In other sense, every aspect of his/her activity should be looked upon new direction keeping in mind the stakeholders diverse needs. It is also emphasized that outside the school environment should be restructured in such a way the parents and the peer group should be trained and provided better supportive barrier free environment for special needs children. The teachers role in the success of inclusive education is not only confined to the instructional manager but also acts as a facilitator by : providing organized structure and better classroom management, identifying the abilities and disabilities of the child earlier, enlisting support from the resource teachers to convert the disabilities into abilities and exploit the extra talents of the child for the benefit of the rest of the class and organising activities for each child keeping in mind the limitations. In-general, any teacher should possess the awareness in the following aspects of inclusive education to facilitate inclusive education practice across the schools.

***Concept of Inclusive Education :***

Any teacher should possess knowledge about inclusive education. This knowledge will promote better awareness on the concept of inclusive education and develop positive attitude towards special needs children and towards equity and equality of excluded children. Positive attitude towards inclusive education will make the teachers to be competent enough to teach special needs children. Drudy and Kinsella (2009), Avramidis and Kalyva (2007), Forlin (2005), Meijer (2003), Norwich (1994), Sharma, Forlin, Loreman and Earle (2006) and many other researchers regard that successful inclusion is dependent on the positive attitudes of school personnel, particularly teachers and school leaders, towards including students with special education needs (SEN) and those with any other additional learning needs. However, this positive attitude shall be possible only when these teachers are having adequate knowledge in dealing with special needs children.

Vermeulen, Denessen and Knoors (2012) interviewed mainstream teachers about including deaf or hard of hearing students in mainstream schools and found that they showed less willingness to be considerate. Similar results were seen in a study by Mushoriwa (2011) where the majority of teachers have negative attitudes towards the inclusion of blind children in regular classes. This negative attitude of regular teachers may be because of inadequate knowledge and lack of awareness about the special needs children and the concept of inclusive education. Also, better awareness and positive attitude evolve an inner urge to plan educational programme to meet the learning requirements of special needs children.

***Organisational Structure and Classroom Management :*** Awareness related to organisational structure and classroom management is considered to be the most important role of any teacher. First and foremost, any teacher should organize and coordinate the educational programme of the special needs children. In addition, the teachers should gather data for planning and designing instructional programmes



according to the students needs and serve as case managers for developing, implementing and evaluating individualized educational programmes (IEP). Also, they should involve themselves in preparing budget for designing, implementing and evaluating IEP.

Teachers should also be involved in planning and designing effective learning environments and experiences supported by technology like - designing developmentally appropriate learning opportunities that apply technology enhanced instructional strategies to support the diverse needs students. In addition, they should plan for the management of technology resources in the context of the learning activities. They should play a major role in decision making process as they are directly involved with the children. Apart from these responsibilities, they should co-operate with the research personnel in research and extension activities. The teachers should be able to provide least restrictive environment by arranging the classroom accordingly. Appropriate technological devices, aids and supportive materials are to be presented to compensate the disabilities. Teacher has to be competent enough to provide such facilities based on the specific requirements of the special needs children. Another challenge in practicing inclusive education is the lack of resources. In order to manage inadequate resources, the teachers should be aware of the availability of community resources that they shall utilize for the teaching of the special needs learners.

#### ***Identification and Assessment:***

Planning role starts from identification and assessment. To teach special needs children, the foremost important competency is to identify and assess the level of disabilities in children. A teacher should know various assessment procedures to identify the disabilities. Assessment of young children is difficult. It is also difficult for teachers to distinguish between developmental delays in special needs children. Knowledge on identification and assessment procedures involved in testing general intelligence, adaptive behaviour, functional vision assessment, low vision assessment, language assessment, hearing tests, classroom observation techniques etc., should be known to the teachers to initially assess the special needs children. Observation and evaluation of intra individual strengths and weaknesses help the teachers to identify special needs children. Further, any teacher should possess the ability to administer formal and informal tests to assess the children with disabilities. Pitfalls in the educational programmes can be avoided if identification and assessment task is carried out properly. In Botswana, Mangope, Kuyini and Major (2012) found that "the assessment of learners with special needs presents the teachers with opportunities to provide better classroom support and yet teachers face a huge challenge in getting such assessment information for a substantial number of their students".

Also, the competency in identification and assessment of the special needs children will facilitate the teachers to 1) identify children's skills, abilities, and needs, 2) make lesson and activity plans and set goals, 3) create new classroom arrangements, 4)

select materials, 5) make decisions about how to implement learning activities, 6) report to parents and families about children's developmental status and achievement, 7) monitor and improve the teaching-learning process, 8) meet the individual needs of children and 9) group for instruction. This is possible only if a teacher possesses better knowledge in the above said aspects.

#### ***Teaching and Training Methodologies :***

The significant task of any teachers is teaching and training the students, when it comes to teaching and training the special needs children, teachers faces several challenges. Forlin (2008) reported that one of the greatest barriers to inclusion is that many teachers feel that they are not trained to deal with inclusion, diversity, behaviour and special needs education. Similar results has been reported by Chopra (2009), Futernick (2007) and, Kopetz and Nellie (2009). Also, in Botswana, Mangope et al. (2012) found that the biggest challenges for teachers practicing inclusive education are the lack of resources (47%), followed by a lack of knowledge and skills (41%). Further, Rouse (2009) observed that the teachers are not sufficiently well prepared and supported to work in inclusive ways for the successful practice of inclusive education.

Hornby (2010) laid emphasis on developing the right type of attitudes, adequate knowledge and skills among teachers to work effectively with the parents of learners with special educational needs in inclusive schools. The framework that he recommended includes two aspects, one focusing on meeting parent's needs, the other on utilizing parents potential contributions.

The teachers should possess knowledge on the following aspects to teach special needs children and contribute significantly to the success of inclusive education.

- a) Planning individualised educational programme
- b) Peer tutoring and co-operative learning
- c) Adapting and modifying the curriculum
- d) Behaviour modification techniques
- e) Remedial teaching strategies
- f) Multi-sensory approaches in teaching
- g) Involving parents in teaching and training the special needs children
- h) Guidance and counselling services
- i) Improvisation of teaching aids to the special needs children
- j) Collaboration with para professionals

## **Rationale for the Study**

### **Need for Awareness among Teachers towards Inclusive Education**

"Implementation of inclusive education demands high levels of teaching competency apart from organisational changes. A full range of varied competencies are essential to manage broad range of professional roles and responsibilities to make the inclusion a successful venture" (Poornima, 2012). As early intervention of special needs children is essential for restoring them to lead a normal life, primary school teachers shall play a vital role in understanding them and rehabilitating them at an early stage. Awareness of primary school teachers towards special needs children and their educational issues pave for the development of attitudes and knowledge towards inclusive education, skills related to teaching and training, intra and interpersonal relationships and research, which may further help both the schools and the teacher training institutions to train in-service and pre-service primary teachers appropriately for better inclusive practices in the classroom.

Meeting the diverse needs of children in ordinary schools is more than a process of opening school doors to admit children previously placed in special schools. The challenge of achieving full educational as well as social integration of children with disabilities within the society is achieved if the teachers possess better knowledge about disabilities, abilities, culture and life styles of pupils attitude towards children with disabilities and competencies to handle such children. As early years of a child is very crucial for giving intervention, the primary school teachers play a vital role and so they should be aware of the problems faced by the special needs children in order to identify them at early years and give rehabilitation as discussed earlier. Also, the teacher should possess some specific competencies in assessment and planning individualized educational programme apart from guidance and counseling.

The success of inclusive education programmes for children with diverse needs require careful planning and organization of physical as well as academic environment. The supportive system includes the involvement of the whole school in meeting the individual needs of children with diverse abilities / disabilities. Here, once again the teachers role is very important not only in teaching and learning but also in organising classroom activities, extending helping hands to his or her colleagues, providing intensive guidance and counseling to the parents and assisting the children to overcome learning as well as social deficiencies. To accomplish this task effectively, a teacher whether working in regular school or special school or integrated school should have thorough understanding about the concept and nature of inclusive education, causes and characteristics of children with diverse needs, identification and assessment procedures, teaching and training methods and, guidance and counseling to parents as well as children with abilities and disabilities. Such knowledge and understanding enable them to develop positive attitudes towards children with

abilities and disabilities which in-turn leads to acquiring or developing better competencies to handle them.

There are studies conducted in India on primary school teachers awareness towards learning disabilities in children (Dharamaraj, 2000; Kusuma Harinath, 2000; Nagomi Ruth, 2000; Sarojini, 2000; Mehtha Deepthi, 2006) and, attitude and competencies of teachers towards children with learning disabilities (Mukhopadhy and Sharma, 1990; Reddy and Poornima, 2008; Reddy, 2006; 2006a, 2006b; Raghunathan, 2005; Sivakami, 2000). Likewise, studies are noted in abroad on the perceptions of teachers and parents towards inclusive education (Afzali, 1995; Clasberry, 2000; Davis, 1994; Galis, 1994; Herman, 1995 and; Horton, 1998). This indicates that there is a need for more scientific researches that address primary school teacher's awareness towards inclusive education, thereby to develop better conducive environment, positive attitude and competencies in them to promote inclusive education in Indian scenario. Such studies may throw light on the nature and level of awareness the teachers possess on inclusion and factors that are associated with their awareness about inclusive education. The present study is an attempt in this direction.

### **Objectives of the Study**

- 1 To find out the level of awareness of regular primary school teachers towards four aspects (concept of inclusive education, organisational structure and classroom management, identification and assessment, teaching and training methodologies) of inclusive education with special reference to special needs children.
- 2 To find out the significant differences if any, in the awareness of regular primary school teachers towards inclusive education due to variations in their gender, age, educational qualification, years of teaching experience, type of management, locality of school, orientation programme attended by the teachers and medium of instruction of the school.

### **Hypothesis of the Study**

- 1 The level of awareness of regular primary school teachers towards the four aspects of inclusive education with special reference to special needs children may vary.
- 2 There exists significant difference in the awareness of regular primary school teachers towards inclusive education due to variations in their gender, age, educational qualification, years of teaching experience, type of management, locality of school, orientation programme attended by the teachers and medium of instruction of the school.

## **Methodology used in the Study**

### ***Method :***

Survey method is used in the study.

### ***Tool used in the Study :***

For the purpose of the study, the investigator developed a Questionnaire to assess the awareness of regular primary school teachers towards four aspects of inclusive education (concept of inclusive education, organisational structure and classroom management, identification and assessment, teaching and training methodologies), by going through the literatures and several other tools related to awareness aspects of inclusive education. The questionnaire got 'yes' or 'no' type statements having the scores of 1 and 0 respectively for the positive statements and reverse scoring for the negative statements.

### ***Validity and Reliability of the Tool :***

The developed tool has been given to a panel of experts comprising of special education professionals and field experts with a request to point out any ambiguity, appropriateness etc., of the inclusive education aspects. Based on their comments, the awareness aspects has been modified and there were 40 statements covering four aspects (concept of inclusive education, organisational structure and classroom management, identification and assessment, teaching and training methodologies) of inclusive education. The reliability of the Questionnaire (0.67) was established by using Split-half method. The content validity, face validity and intrinsic validity has also been established for the developed tool by giving the developed tool to the panel of subject experts for checking the errors, ambiguity of statements, content adequacy and appropriateness of the statements.

### ***Locale and Sample of the Study :***

The area of the study encompasses Kuppam Mandal, Chittoor District of Andhra Pradesh State. The sample consist of 80 regular primary school teachers (randomly selected by using simple random sampling technique) working in twenty primary schools (Private -10 and; Govt., -10) in Kuppam Mandal, Chittoor District of Andhra Pradesh State, India.

### ***Rationale for Selecting the Locale :***

Kuppam Mandal is one of the rural backward town of the Chittoor District and is located in the trilingual junction. Kuppam is the border town to Tamil Nadu and Karnataka States. The people in Kuppam Mandal shall speak three dialects (Tamil, Telugu and Kannada). This scenario gives a vast scope for the teachers working in the schools of Kuppam Mandal to cater to the needs of students from three varied language background. The regular teachers working in primary schools should be

aware of certain issues pertaining to language difficulties among students in particular and special needs students in general.

**Statistical Techniques used in the Study :**

The investigator visited the schools directly and administered the questionnaire to the regular primary school teachers. The data was collected from the samples and the statistical techniques like mean, standard deviation (SD), mean  $\pm$  1SD, t / F test were used to analyze the collected data.

**Results and Discussion**

To know the level of awareness of regular primary school teachers towards various aspects of inclusive education, mean and SD for each statement of the questionnaire has been calculated. Based on mean and SD, the level of awareness of teachers in each aspects of inclusive education has been divided into three categories i.e. low (L), moderate (M) and high (H) by using mean  $\pm$  1SD. Accordingly, the awareness scores 0.95 to 1.00 are categorized as the aspects of inclusive education in which teachers possess high level of awareness, aspects having the scores from 0.62 to 0.94 are categorized as moderate level of awareness and; 0.61 and below scores are categorized as low level of awareness. The obtained results were presented in table-1 and discussed.

**Table 1: Level of Awareness of Primary School Teachers towards Inclusive Education**

S. No.	Aspects of Inclusive Education	Mean Scores	Level of Awareness
1	Concept of Inclusive Education	0.71	Moderate
2	Organisational Structure and Classroom Management	0.80	Moderate
3	Identification and Assessment	0.73	Moderate
4	Teaching and Training Methodologies	0.84	Moderate
	<b>Total</b>	0.77	Moderate

**Note :** Level of Awareness in the 4 aspects of Inclusive Education

High : 0.95 to 1.00

Moderate : 0.62 to 0.94

Low : 0.61 and below

It is clear that the primary school teachers possess moderate level of awareness in 1) concept of inclusive education (mean scores: 0.71), 2) organisational structure and classroom management (mean scores: 0.80), 3) identification and assessment (mean scores: 0.73) and; 4) teaching and training methodologies (mean scores: 0.84).



Thus from the above result, the stated hypothesis '*The level of awareness of regular primary school teachers towards the four aspects of inclusive education with special reference to special needs children may vary*' is rejected.

Further, inter-analysis of the aspects of inclusive education clearly show that regular primary school teachers possess low level of awareness in the 'concept of inclusive education' among other aspects of inclusive education. This strategy may be because the concept of inclusive education is itself having confusion, taking different forms depending on contextual concerns and got spectrum of usage and understanding in both the developed and in developing countries, as discussed earlier in this paper. On the other side, it is a good sign to be observed that the teachers possess high level of awareness in 'teaching and training methodologies' as compared to the other aspects of inclusive education.

Similar findings were observed in the studies conducted by Reddy (2006) and; Payal and Mayaan (2015) where the regular school teachers had limited awareness of education for children with disabilities. Further, Puri and Abraham (2004) & Smith (2000) identified four strategies of removing barriers to inclusive education. One of which is removing the barriers of attitudes developed due to lack of awareness. They also added that providing awareness, sensitivity and solutions for teachers is one way of removing the barriers of the teaching system.

These results imply an urgent need for in-service training programs on inclusive education for the regular primary school teachers that will facilitate them to be well versed with the pedagogy of inclusive education and develop the needed knowledge, positive attitudes, skills and competencies to take up the challenge in implementing the same. The study of teachers in Ireland noted the need for further professional development to facilitate knowledge, skills and competencies relating to : 1) differentiation and information on particular types of special educational needs; 2) training for teachers in special settings, including special schools and special classes attached to mainstream schools and; 3) planning to meet individual needs (O'Gorman & Drudy, 2011).

As the results indicates moderate level of awareness in the four aspects of inclusive education, the regular primary school teachers should possess adequate and better knowledge in the following four specific features of inclusive education for successful implementation of the same.

#### ***Concept of Inclusive Education :***

To have a positive attitude towards inclusion one needs to be aware of the concept of inclusion in general and disabilities in particular. The more knowledgeable the teachers are, the more positive their attitudes would be towards inclusion. The teachers should possess knowledge regarding the : meaning and difference between special, integrated and inclusive education, philosophy and psychology of inclusion,

notion of inclusion in developed and developing countries, target groups of inclusive education, need and benefits of inclusive education, barriers to inclusive education, various laws pertaining to inclusive education and; rights of the special needs children.

#### ***Organisational Structure and Classroom Management :***

Apart from the knowledge in the concept of inclusive education, the regular primary school teachers should also be aware of : modifications, adaptations required in the general classroom, abilities and difficulties of the special needs children, infrastructure facilities required in the regular classroom to accommodate certain types of special need children, arranging and organising the assistive devices and instructional aids, using the assistive devices, time management in teaching both the disabled and non-disabled students, strategies in removing both the physical and psychological barriers in the school environment and organising supportive services.

#### ***Identification and Assessment :***

Further, the primary school teachers are the one with whom the child come across at an early stage, both physically and psychologically, so they should possess basic knowledge in identification and assessment of special needs children. The awareness related to the milestones of the child development, developmental delays in special needs children, characteristics and nature of a particular disability, screening procedure involved in identifying the developmental delays, various diagnostic test procedures, testing general IQ of a child, administering various standardized tests, factors influencing the identification and assessment, involving parents in identification and assessment and other factors related to assessing the special needs children.

#### ***Teaching and Training Methodologies :***

The teachers has to be aware of the appropriate teaching and learning methodologies which benefit every student in the classroom. In teaching and training the special needs children, the primary school teachers should possess adequate knowledge regarding the : individualized educational planning, task analysis (breaking down a single task to several sub-tasks), behaviour modification techniques, multi-sensory approach in teaching a concept, assigning assignments / tasks according to the ability level of students, adapting and modifying the curriculum according to the children needs, involving parents in teaching-learning process of special needs children and various teaching strategies like peer-tutoring, co-operative learning etc.,.

#### ***Influence of the Personal Variables on the Awareness of Regular Primary School Teachers towards Inclusive Education***

To find out the significant differences if any, in the awareness of regular primary school teachers towards inclusive education due to variations in their personal variables, mean and standard deviation (SD) was calculated for each group in a variable.



Accordingly, t / F- values have been worked out to find out the significant difference between / among the means and are presented in table - 2.

From table 2, it is observed that the calculated t / F-values for the variables 'age' (2.07) and 'locality of school' (1.97) are significant at 0.05 level; whereas the variables 'orientation programmes attended' (2.90), and 'medium of teaching' (2.82) are significant at 0.01 level. Further, the mean scores indicate that the teachers of smaller age group (26 to 35 years), working in urban area, attended orientation programme and having Telugu as medium of teaching showed higher rates of awareness towards inclusive education than their counterparts.

**Table 2: Mean and SD of the Awareness Scores of Primary School Teachers towards Inclusive Education and Calculated t/F -values**

Personal Variables	Mean	SD	Calculated t / F-value
<b>Gender</b>			
Men (n=38)	7.83	1.64	<b>0.20@</b>
Women (n=42)	7.75	1.61	
<b>Age</b>			
26-35 Years (n=59)	8.02	1.67	<b>2.07*</b>
36-45 Years (n= 21)	7.21	1.55	
<b>Educational Qualification</b>			
T.T.C (n=32)	7.83	1.58	<b>0.36@</b>
Graduation with B.Ed. (n=32)	7.73	1.68	
P.G. with B.Ed. (n=16)	7.91	1.77	
<b>Years of Experience</b>			
1-10 yrs (n=69)	7.69	1.61	<b>0.25@</b>
11-20 yrs (n=11)	7.83	1.79	
<b>Type of School</b>			
Government Schools (n = 40)	7.69	1.50	<b>0.85@</b>
Private Schools (n= 40)	7.52	1.03	
<b>Locality of School</b>			
Rural (n=43)	7.27	1.77	<b>1.97*</b>
Urban (n=37)	7.98	1.52	
<b>Orientation Programmes Attended</b>			
Attended (n=27)	8.04	1.19	<b>2.90**</b>
Not Attended (n=53)	7.17	1.54	
<b>Medium of Teaching</b>			
Telugu (n=54)	8.18	1.60	<b>2.82**</b>
English (n=26)	7.11	1.67	

Note: \*\* Significant at 0.01 level; \* Significant at 0.05 level;  
@ Not significant at 0.05 level

Similar results were reported with reference to the attitudes of the teachers towards inclusive education, by Cornoldi, Terreni, Scruggs, & Mastropieri (1998) where the older and more experienced teachers appear to have less positive attitudes than younger teachers. Further, Hsien, Brown and Bortoli (2009) reported teachers with lack of training in inclusive or special education possess less positive attitudes towards the inclusion of students with disabilities. Further, the teachers teaching in their Regional language i.e. Telugu is believed to have better understanding the special needs children than the teachers teaching in English.

The results of the studies conducted by Sarojini (2000) and Reddy (2006) support the current results where the variable 'locality of school' significantly influenced the awareness of primary school teachers towards learning disabilities in English and the awareness of school teachers in dealing children with disabilities for promoting inclusive education respectively. This may be because the schools located in the urban area may come across almost all the professional developmental programmes of the Government than the schools located in rural area which is still inaccessible to the developmental programmes.

On the other hand, the other variables - gender, educational qualification, years of experience and type of school are not significant at 0.05 level indicating their non-influence on primary school teacher's awareness towards inclusive education. The results of studies conducted by Tam and Prellwitz (2001), Leyser, Kapperman and Keller (1994) and; Parasuram (2006) are in-line with the present study where the gender differences do not have any significant bearing on their attitudes towards disability and inclusion.

Thus the stated hypothesis '*There exists significant difference in the awareness of regular primary school teachers towards inclusive education due to variations in their gender, age, educational qualification, years of teaching experience, type of management, locality of school, orientation programme attended by the teachers and medium of instruction of the school*' is **accepted** with regard to age, locality of school, orientation programme attended and medium of teaching and **rejected** in case of other variables like gender, educational qualification, years of teaching experience and, type of management.

### **Findings of the Study**

The following are the two major findings of the study.

1. The level of awareness possessed by the regular primary school teachers towards the inclusive education is moderate.
2. The regular primary school teachers personal variables like age, locality of school, orientation programme attended and medium of teaching has significantly influenced their awareness towards inclusive education. Further, the regular primary school teachers belonging to age group (26 to 35 years), working in urban area, attended orientation programme and

having Telugu as medium of teaching showed higher rates of awareness towards inclusive education than their counterparts belonging to the age group (36 to 45 years), working in rural area, not attended orientation programme and having English as medium of teaching.

Based on the above findings, the following implications has been summarised to enhance the level of awareness among regular primary school teachers towards inclusive education.

### **Implications of the Study**

#### ***Enhancing Awareness towards Inclusive Education***

As the study reveals that the regular primary school teachers possess moderate level of awareness towards inclusive education, it is clear that they are not possessing adequate knowledge required for implementing inclusive education. The adequate knowledge towards inclusive education among regular primary school teachers shall be enhanced with the following ways and means.

#### ***Sensitization programmes on Inclusive Education for In-Service Teachers:***

The sensitization programmes like orientation programmes, workshops, seminars on 1) the concept of inclusive education; 2) organisational structure and classroom management; 3) identification and assessment procedure for inclusive classrooms and 4) teaching and training methodologies shall be organized to enhance the level of awareness towards inclusive education.

#### ***In-Service Training on Inclusive Education and Professional Development:***

As rightly observed by R.N. Tagore 'A teacher can never truly teach unless he is still learning himself. A lamp can never light another lamp unless it continues to burn its own flame', in-service training and professional development tasks related to inclusive education will enhance the level of awareness of primary school teachers. Also, one of the major aims of NCERT's In-service Teacher Professional Development (ITPD) is to professionally train the teachers to deal with a range of diverse learners for inclusive education.

The awareness held by teachers to a great extent are influenced by the quality and content of in-service training they receive. While organising the in-service training programmes the teachers should be given clear-cut picture about the aspects such as the concept of inclusive education where the children with diversified needs are the part and parcel of the school system, identification and assessment procedure of the special needs children, classroom and school requirements to accommodate the special needs children and, the teaching and training methodologies to be adapted for teaching the special needs children in a regular classroom. In-service training cum refresher courses shall be organised in order to orient the primary school teachers on

multiple disability concepts. School administration shall arrange and encourage the in-service teachers to participate in the professional learning activities.

Also while organising any sensitization and training programmes, one should consider the variables like age of the primary school teacher, locality of the school, orientation programme attended and medium of teaching as these variables has significantly influenced the regular primary school teacher's awareness towards inclusive education. These primary school teachers shall be utilized as a resource person to give further training on inclusive education to other teachers in the same school and locality.

#### ***Role of Mass Media :***

The electronic and print media should broadcast the programs and publish the materials related to inclusive education. The existing community TV viewing centres and community Radio listening centres can be used to promote awareness for inclusive education among primary school teachers.

Further, literatures on inclusive education and allied areas should be documented appropriately and disseminated periodically. Journals, periodicals and magazines should publish articles related to inclusive education and related concepts and should be widely circulated to all the primary schools. This will facilitate the awareness of primary school teachers towards inclusive education.

#### **Concluding Remarks**

Successful implementation of inclusive education requires whole school approach, wherein every part of the system should be geared up to meet the diverse needs of children. However, teachers play a prime role for successful implementation of inclusive education. Apart from professional development activities to the in-service teachers, the viewpoints of in-service teachers regarding inclusive education practices shall be considered in curriculum planning of pre-service teacher training courses. Also, NCTE (1998) in its curriculum framework for preparing quality teachers, recommended the theory and practical curricular input of special education in general teacher preparation programme right from the pre-primary to secondary levels. Thus the regular teacher training programmes should integrate inclusive education components at B.Ed. and M.Ed. levels, thereby the pre-service teachers would be sensitized on the aspects of inclusive education and have positive attitudes towards inclusive education right from the beginning.

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## **INFORMATION AND COMMUNICATION TECHNOLOGY (ICT) IN HIGHER EDUCATION, QUALITY AND ACCESSIBILITY**

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### **Abstract**

As India is becoming digital India. Education has been an important instrument for transition. Higher education is also receiving a major impetus in terms of access, and quality in India. This transition is highly influenced by the rapid developments in information and communication technologies (ICTs) all over the globe. The introduction of ICTs in the higher education has deep implications for the whole education process particularly with key issues of access, and quality. In this backdrop, this paper addresses the opportunities of ICTs in various aspects of higher education at present.

**Keywords:** Information and Communication Technology (ICT), Higher Education, Quality, & Accessibility.

### **Introduction**

Information and Communication Technology (ICT) has gained attention, & has become a significant area of research for many scholars around the globe. One of the main reasons for this sudden increase is that nature of ICT has changed the face of education to a large extent. In the recent years higher education system has grown rapidly to meet the demands of quality education for all. This aspect has further gained pace due to fast advancements in Information and Communication Technology (ICT). The demand for professional and knowledgeable person is increasing very rapidly. To make sure that higher education reaches to the remotest areas of the country open and distance learning has played a great role. The introduction of ICTs in higher education is on the rise around the globe. ICT is being applied successfully in instruction, learning and assessment. It is considered as a powerful tool for educational change and reforms. ICT tends to expand access to education and has made the teaching learning meaningful and enjoyable. First we will discuss briefly the present profile of higher

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education in India. The role of ICTs in higher education and the extent to which they will benefit us will be discussed after.

The higher education system in developing countries has budgets to consider, quality to preserve, faculties to satisfy, and social demands and responsibilities to meet (Boren & Maltha, 2005; Lee & Healy, 2006). In addition, the rapid increase in student enrolment, knowledge explosion, advances in information and communication technologies (ICTs), globalization, economic restructuring and financial constraints have all contributed to reforms in higher education (Hattangdi & Ghosh, 2008; Shin & Haerman, 2009; Welch, 2011). Hence, many higher educators believe that closer cooperation and exchange of lessons learned can bring benefits to their respective higher education systems.

Any communication devices or applications, including: radio, television, mobile phones, laptops, hardware and software, satellite systems and so on, are called Information and Communication Technology (ICT) as well as the number of services and applications are related with them, like-wise videoconferencing and distance learning. These new technologies are used for educational push, particularly for supporting and improving the learning and to develop learning environments for students, they can be compared to subfield of Educational Technology. In higher education ICTs are being used for developing course material; delivering & subject matter; students communication between with teacher and the outside world; online presentation and lectures; academic research; admission process, student enrolment etc. Quick access to knowledge via ICT keeps people informed with the latest developments around the world. In that scenario, education has always played a crucial role in social & economic growth of a country. Education increases the active skills & earning power of the individuals. Education helps them to absorb new ideas and makes them sensible, it also increases their social interaction, gives them access to improved health and provides enormous benefits. There are various kinds of ICT products available which have relevance to education, such as teleconference, email, video conference, audio conference, radio broadcasts, interactive voice response system, audiocassettes and CD ROMs are being used in education for different purposes (Bhattacharya and Sharma, 2007).

### **Steps towards using ICT in Higher Education**

As a fast developing nation India is making full use of powerful combination of ICTs such as open source software, satellite technology, local language interfaces, easy to use human-computer interfaces, digital libraries etc. with a plan to reach the remote areas, Community service centers have been started to promote e-learning throughout the country (Bhattacharya & Sharma, 2007). Worthy development of use of ICT in education in our country include:

- IGNOU is using radio, television and internet technologies.

- National Programme on Technology Enhanced Learning: a concept similar to the open courseware initiative of MIT. Uses internet and television.
- Eklavya initiative: Are using internet and television to promote distance learning.
- Renowned institutions like Kolkata have entered into a strategic alliance with NIIT for providing programmes through virtual classrooms.
- IIT-Mumbai has started the program of CDEEP (Centre for Distance Engineering Education Program) as emulated classroom interaction through the use of real time interactive satellite technology.

The UGC sponsored scheme called “ICT for teaching and learning process” for achieving quality and excellence in higher education. Network facilities with the help of ERNET, Ministry of Information and Technology, Government of India were installed at UGC office to promote a healthy work culture. UGC also launched a mega programme namely, ‘UGC INFONET’, a network of Indian Universities and Colleges, by integrating Information and Communication Technology (ICT) in the process of teaching, learning and education management. This network is managed by ERNET India and almost all the universities are affiliated with it. Information for Library Network (INFLIBNET), an autonomous Inter University Centre of UGC is the nodal agency for coordination and facilitation of the linkage between ERNET and Universities. Training programmes for the manpower were conducted to manage the ERNET facilities and other aspects of systems including electronic subscriptions. In addition, UGC is also encouraging creation of e-content / learning material for teaching learning process and management of education in colleges and universities.

### **Higher Education & Role of ICT**

The use of ICT in higher education has resulted in a move from teacher-centred delivery and transmission learning to student-centred learning. ICT functions as information sources and cognitive tools, supporting and enabling students to be responsible for their own learning (Jonassen & Reeves, 1996). Hattangdi & Ghosh (2008) used the term informative, situating and constructive tools to further define the functions of ICT. Learning environment becomes inquiry-based and problem-centred within authentic settings. Lectures are facilitators, coaches and mentors and ICTs support the learning environment (Oliver, 2005).

Expansion of ICTs is in its full swing all over the world. ICTs have become as powerful tools for spreading of knowledge and information. The introduction ICTs in the higher education has generated diverse response. The opportunities can be categorized as the aspects relating to role of ICT for access and equity in education, their role in pedagogy for quality teaching and learning at higher education level and in inducing innovations in approaches and programmes. *E-Learning or easy accessible*

*learning* understanding e-learning is simple, e-learning is learning utilizing electronic technologies to access educational curriculum outside of a traditional class room. In most cases, it refers to a course, program or degree delivered completely online. It is also known as online learning. Distance education paved the way for e-learning's development. E-learning can be 'on demand'. It overcomes timing, attendance and travel difficulties. E-learning allows delivery, dialogue and feedback over the internet. It allows mass customization in terms of content and exams. E-education can provide access to the best teachers and the best practices or knowledge available (UNESCO, 2002). It is possible to leverage the online environment to make teaching techniques like role-play across time and distance. It can also help forward the development of scenarios, which can be not often witnessed in practice. ICT is playing a vital role to monitor and log the progress of the students across time, place and varied activities. **Blended Learning or Future of higher education** is a formal education program in which a student learns at least in part through delivery of content and instruction via digital and online media with some element of student control over time, place, path, or pace. According to a recent study of the role technology plays in higher education, student achievement in blended learning environment is greater than in either online or face-to-face learning alone. **Formal Learning** normally refers to learning that usually occurs in a classroom setting where teacher delivers lecture to a group of learners. This could include lectures, workshops, presentation, tutoring, conference and much more. **Self-Learning** in this type of learning flexibility is given to learner to learn according to learners' own time and pace, it occurs in different ways such as : reading specific chapters from text book, studying course material presented through web-based or CD based course, can attend pre-recorded classes or sessions, articles referred by faculty member, assignments working & projects, and searching & browsing the internet. **Online-Learning** it involves interaction between learners and teachers through the web; this type of interaction can occur in one of the following ways i). Synchronous interaction ii). Asynchronous interaction.

**Synchronous**, means 'at the real time', it involves interacting with a faculty member and other learners via the web in real time using available technologies like virtual classrooms and or chat rooms. On the other side, **Asynchronous** means 'not at the real time'; it enables learners to interact with their colleagues and faculty member at their own convenience, such as interacting with colleagues and faculty members through mail. **Distance learning as restriction free learning** this type of education can also be called as restriction free learning. In this type of education, students can work on their own at home or at the office and can communicate with faculty members and other students via e-mail, videoconferencing, chat rooms, instant messaging and other forms of latest communication technologies. It is also known as open learning. It can also be called as global learning. Most distance learning programs include a computer based training (CBT) system and communications tools to produce a vital classroom. Because the Internet and World Wide Web (www) are accessible from virtually all

computer platforms, they serve as the first step for many distance learning systems. With the help of ICTs we can create digital libraries where the learner, teachers and professionals can have easy access to research & course material at any time. Such facilities allow the networking of academics and researchers and hence sharing of material and leads to quality enhancement in teaching and learning process.

### **ICT towards Accessibility and Equity in Higher Education**

ICT in education sector is growing day by day. Despite the fact that education is a social enterprise and teachers are the backbone of teaching learning process, ICTs are very powerful tool for dispersing knowledge and information, a basic aspect of the education process. ICTs can play huge role for improving access and equity in education sector in general and higher education sector in particular. The demand for higher education will surely rise in the coming years. ICTs place themselves as an ideal mechanism for closing this gap by complementing both formal education system as well as distance learning systems (Neeru, 2009). E-learning is emerging as an important technique to provide extensive and easy access to quality higher education. E-learning is a general term representing various uses and intensities of uses of ICTs, from online education to campus-based education and through other forms of distance education supplemented with ICTs in some way. Various steps have been taken for development of e-learning in India in continuing and sporadic a manner, UGC is advocating and making consisting efforts to improve the quality of higher education by framing guidelines for their integration in classroom and other activities.

### **Conclusion**

ICTs has brought smart changes in teaching and learning at all levels of higher education systems (HES) leading to quality improvement. Conventional forms of teaching and learning are rapidly being converted to online and virtual environments. There is no limit to the integration of ICT in the education system. Use ICT in education has improved classroom teaching learning process, and it also provides the facility of e-learning. ICT has played a great part in the enhancement of distance learning. Learners are now able to access quality learning environment from anywhere and at anytime. It is important that teachers or trainers should be made aware of technology in their teaching styles to provide pedagogical and educational gains to the learners. Fruitful implementation of ICT to lead change is more about influencing and empowering teachers and supporting them in their engagement with students in learning rather than acquiring computer skills and obtaining software and equipment. ICT enabled education will finally lead to the democratization of education.

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## **CAREER PREFERENCES, STUDY HABITS AND ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT OF SECONDARY SCHOOL STUDENTS WITH SPECIAL NEEDS**

*Mrs. Nazima\**  
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### **Abstract**

The present study was carried out to find out the career preferences, study habits and academic achievement of secondary school students with special needs (Orthopedic Impairment and Visual Impairment). A sample of 200 students was drawn randomly from government schools of division Kashmir. The age of the subjects was 14+ years. Data was collected with the help of the Chatterji's Non-Language Preference Record, M.N. Palsane and S.Sharma's Study Habits Inventory and Academic achievement of the student with special needs be the average marks of two previous annual examinations. Mean, SD and test of significance were calculated to find out the differences between the mean scores of the subjects on career preferences study habits and academic achievement. The result revealed significant mean differences between two groups under investigation.

**Key words:** Career Preferences; Study Habits; Academic Achievement; and Student with Special needs.

### **Introduction**

A well planned and properly implemented system of education plays a very significant role in laying down the proper foundation of child's cultural, emotional, ethical, intellectual, moral, physical, social and spiritual development. Education prepares child to enter life. Inclusion is an educational philosophy that emphasizes the rights of all children to attend their local school and is common throughout the world. Inclusion is a comparatively newer concept in developing countries such as India. An inclusive education is achieved when the education environment of children who have a disability cannot be distinguished from those of others in the school community. In broad spectrum some students in a classroom have special disabilities owning which they possess different states of decision making. Career preferences are the most important decisions in the life of every person. Inadequate choices lead to failure and suitable ones to promising returns. Preferences

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are modifiable; therefore, every precaution is to be taken while developing interests in several vocations which helps a person to make a steady progress and enjoys prosperity. Hence, research in this area can be of tremendous help to the students for placing them on right jobs.

In modern technological age one of the objectives of education is to enable an individual to choose an occupation for which he is most suitable. Education, thus, should lay emphasis on vocational efficiency and later indicates that a person is happily employed on the job; is productive and contributes to the social life of the society in which he lives. This explains that right choice of an occupation is very important for an individual to lead individually satisfying and socially useful life. A vocational choice means making a decision for preparing and entering into a particular job. If the individual succeeds in developing himself properly and prepares for a vocation which suits him and is in harmony with his all round development, he is able to contribute towards the general economic growth and development. Thus, there is imperative need for vocational guidance in order to establish a happy and well organized social structure. It is possible to conserve human resources only through proper career selection. In a dynamic society where changes are brought about by new scientific discoverer and inventions, conditions of life and work change rather rapidly. This is a changing world of occupation; there is a great need of career selections. A career selection is needed on account of individual and the society as well as for the consideration and utilization of human resources in a fast changing world of technology and industry.

As mentioned earlier, career choices are nothing but a choice of decision making for a particular job and the final selection and preparation of it depends on many factors like; education, training, level of intelligence, special mental abilities, interest aptitudes, health physical development, personality traits, economic status and other allied factors; it is pertinent to mention that few individual decision in their life.

Considerable amount of research has been carried out in the area of career education in India and abroad and a number of variables falling under cognitive, non-cognitive and demographical variables seen to have been investigated. Attempts have been made to study career choices of students in relation to intelligence, scholastic achievement and creativity. Influences of parental education, age, socio-economic status (SES) and institutional status has been investigated by various researchers (Mattoo, and Sugra, 2007; Anderson, 1993; Sujata, 1988; Yasmeeen, 1985; Martin, 1975; Adms, 1974; Lockwood, 1958; Mohan and Banth, 1975 and Bell, 1938). Career choices of students in relation to locality, sex and personality factors have also been the interest of researchers (Mattoo, and Sugra, 2007; Jansari and kumar, 1999; Sujata, 1988; Mohan, Sujata and Banath, 1986; Pandey, 1975; Pangotra, 1965 and Bell, 1938). The findings of these research studies have been found to be of divergent nature, as some found that locality has no effect on the vocational preferences of the students (Sujata, 1988 and

Bell, 1938). While some researchers have found that students, irrespective of their residential status, have similar preferences so far as career choices are concerned. In a study conducted by Mohan and Banat(1975) and Yasmeen(1985), it has found that SES influences the vocational preferences of students but the sample of these studies seems to have been drawn from privately managed institutions. Since the students in private institutions are mostly from the privileged socio-economic class, therefore, their studies reflect the vocational preferences of a particular class of society. Beside, attempts have been made to study vocational preferences of adolescent students in relation to sex, locality and socio-economic status (Yadave, 2000; Mir, 1997 and Nityananda, 1995).The findings of these research studies revealed that socio-economic status has no effect on the vocational preferences on the students, while as gender differences are reported to exist in vocational interests.

Inclusive education is the most common approach to address the educational needs of all children (Miles and Singal, 2010; Ruijs, Van der Veen and Peetsma, 2010; Mitchell, 2009; Ainscow and Miles, 2008). According to Idol (2006), inclusion means that students with special needs attend general school programmes and are enrolled in age-appropriate classes for 100% of their schooling. Inclusion is a widely accepted phenomenon according to UNESCO (2005) for two reasons: firstly, education is a right that is part and parcel of modern society. Inclusion can foster democratic values (García-Huidobro and Corvalán, 2009; Engelbrecht, 2006; Ferguson, 1995) in the pursuit of social justice (Artiles, Harris-Murri and Rostenberg, 2006; Moberg and Savolainen, 2003; Slee, 2001 and Gerrard, 1994). Secondly, it is a feasible option, and an integral part of the principles of equality of opportunity in education (Mitchell, 2010). Recent studies show that inclusive education provides the best opportunities to support the development for people with disabilities (Thomas and Loxley, 2001).

Inclusive education emphasizes the rights of all children to attend their local school. Research is yet to clearly record the outcomes of inclusive education on the quality of life of students with disabilities (Hornby, 1999). Moreover, Lindsay (2003) recognized the needs of research in inclusive education to inform policy and practice. In this respect, the purpose of this research is to throw light on teachers' practices supporting inclusive education. It is predicted that the greater the skills that teachers have in dealing with students with disabilities, the more effective their teaching (Angelidies, 2008) which will have significant implications for the ultimate quality of life for their students.

### **Need and Importance of the Study**

The need and importance of this issue comes first of all from the democratic thinking of social institutions and those humanitarian values, which the whole public education is based on, and secondly from the recognition and acceptance of those rights that state everybody has the right to be educated in schools.



Freedom to choose one's life style is basic to our democracy. Today, India is one of the leading and developing countries, seeking to become self-sufficient and to solve her problems. A rigorous effort is being made to plan the educational and vocational system so as to utilize human resources to the maximum. The most important investment that a country can make is on its human resources. Money and time spent on training students in different courses has to be optimally utilized with a view to develop potentialities to maximum. The findings of some researchers reveal that socio-economic status has no effect on the vocational preferences on the students, while as there are gender differences in vocational interests. So, selection procedure are to be such ,which deputes the right man for the right job, keeping the abilities, aptitudes, personality, motives and interest suited for job. This would result in increased work efficiency, production and personal satisfaction.

### **Objectives of the study**

Following objectives have been designed to carry out the present investigation.

1. To find and compare the career preferences of secondary school students with special needs (i) Orthopadically impaired, and ii) Visual impaired
2. To find and compare the study habits of secondary school students with special needs.(i ) Orthopadically impaired, and ii) Visual impaired.
3. To find and compare the academic achievement of secondary school students with special needs.(i) Orthopadically impaired, and ii) Visual impaired .

### **Hypotheses**

The study aims to test the following hypotheses:

1. There shall be a significant difference between the mean scores of secondary school students with special needs on Career preferences, viz. (i) Orthopadically impaired, and ii) Visual impaired
2. There shall be significant difference between the mean scores of secondary school students with special needs on study habits.
3. There shall be a significant difference between the mean scores of secondary school students with special needs on academic achievement.

### **Variables**

The variables under investigation are defined as under:-

1. **Career Preferences:** Career preferences have often been defined as what the individual prefers to do. Out of a number of vocational alternatives, his preferences or interests for one or another and this form his choice. In the proposed investigation career preference shall refer the dominant set

of scores obtained by the secondary school students with special needs on Chatterji's Non-Language Preference Record.

2. **Study Habits:** Study habits in the present investigation refer the dominant set of scores obtained by the students with special needs on study habit inventory by M.N. Palsane and S.Sharma.
3. **Academic Achievement:** Academic achievement in the present study has been assessed on the aggregate marks in all the subjects as secured by secondary school students in their school examinations.
4. **Students with Special Needs:** Students with special needs in the proposed study refer the students who have some disabilities like.(i) Orthopadically impaired, and ii) Visual impaired .

### Methodology

#### Sample

Sample of 200 students with special needs were drawn purposefully from different secondary schools of Kashmir valley (J and K). The age of the subjects is 14+.

#### Tool

The investigator has used the following tool/s to collect the required data.

1. **Chatterji's Non-Language Preference Record:** This tool covers ten interest areas, viz. i) Fine arts, ii) Literary, iii) Scientific, iv) Medical, v) Agriculture, vi) Technical, vii) Crafts, viii) Sports, ix) Outdoor and x) House hold work.
2. **M.N. Palsane and S.Sharma's Study Habits Inventory:** This inventory measures study habits in eight areas ,viz. i) Budgeting time, ii) Physical conditions, iii) Reading ability, iv) Note taking, v) Learning motivation, vi) Memory, vii) Taking examination, viii) Health.
3. **Academic Achievement:** Academic achievement of the student with special needs shall be the average marks of two previous annual examinations.

#### Statistical treatment of data

The collected data was finally put to suitable statistical treatment. Mean, S.D. and test of significance were computed. The information gathered is presented in the following tabular forms:

**Table 1: Showing the significance of Difference between the Mean Scores of Children with Special Needs (Orthopedic Impairment and Visual Impairment) in Career Preferences ( N=100 Each).**

Category	CwOI Mean	SD	CwVI Mean	SD	"t" value
FA	16.82	3.75	17.43	4.65	*
LT	15.88	5.09	16.3	4.63	*
SC	16.02	4.99	17.29	4.12	*
MD	15.38	3.91	16.72	4.41	*
AG	14.65	3.24	15.64	3.22	**
TC	14.71	3.70	15.73	3.95	*
CR	13.25	3.46	14.24	3.38	**
OD	18.12	3.41	18.68	3.91	*
SP	16.72	3.79	18.58	4.25	**
HH	13.86	3.18	13.88	3.49	*

**Index:** CwOI– Children with Orthopedic Impairment; CwVI -- Children with Visual Impairment ; SS.... Statistical Sign; FA– Fine Arts; LT.... Literary; SC.... Scientific; MD...Medical; AG - Agriculture; TC....Technical; CR... Crafts; OD...Outdoor; SP.....Sports; HH... Household  
\*- not significant ; \*\*- significant

**Table 2: Showing the significance of Difference between the Mean Scores of Children with Special Needs (Orthopedic Impairment and Visual Impairment) in Study Habits ( N=100 Each).**

Category	CwOI Mean	SD	CwVI Mean	SD	"t" value
BT	8.05	1.93	8.45	1.68	*
PC	8.06	1.81	8.47	1.61	*
RA	9.57	2.74	10.41	2.67	*
NT	4.8	1.27	5.18	1.14	*
LM	9.04	2.05	9.55	1.79	*
M	4.9	1.37	4.83	1.39	*
T	12.07	1.84	11.91	1.86	*
H	4.14	0.82	4.34	1.30	*

**Index:** CwOI– Children with Orthopedic Impairment; CwVI -- Children with Visual Impairment; BT- Budgeting Time; PC- Physical Conditions for Study; RA- Reading Ability; NT- Note Taking; LM- Learning Motivation; M- Memory; TE- Taking Examination; H- Health.  
\*- not significant

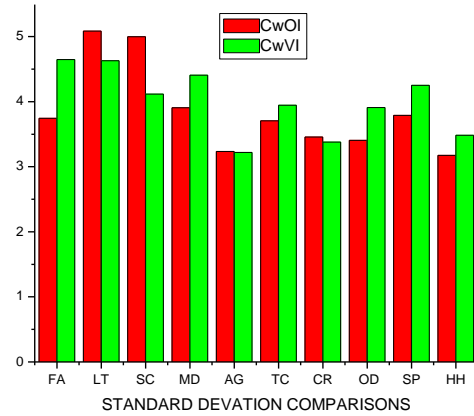
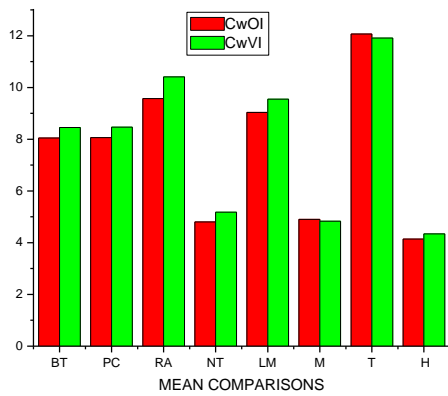
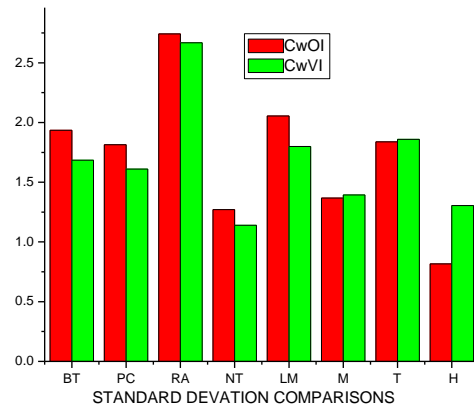
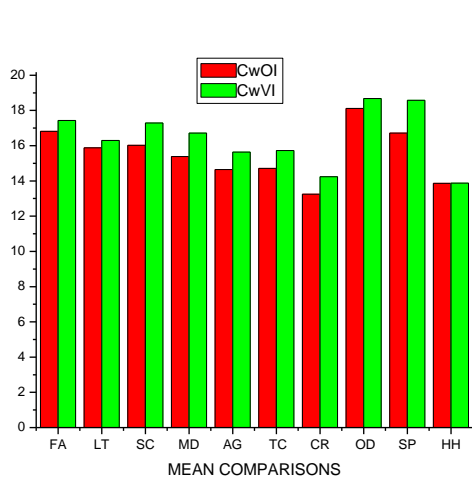
Table 3: Showing the significance of Difference between the Mean Scores of Children with Special Needs (Orthopedic Impairment and Visual Impairment) in Academic Achievement ( N=100 Each).

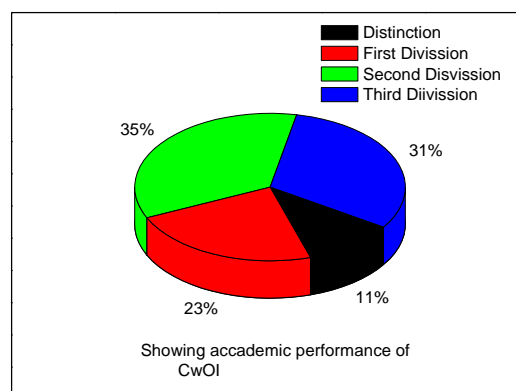
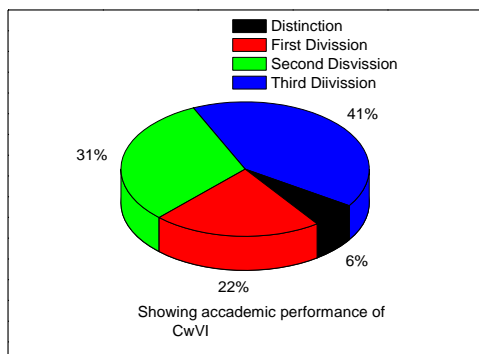
Group	N	Mean	SD	't' value
CwOI	100	49.77	15.86	**
CwVI	100	53.03	15.68	

Index: CwOI– Children with Orthopedic Impairment;

CwVI -- Children with Visual Impairment;

\*\*- significant





## Findings

The study yielded following findings:

### I. Comparison of career preferences of children with special needs on the basis of type of disability (Orthopedic v/s Visual).

Table 1.00 gives us the information about mean and SD scores of children with special needs (orthopedic impairment and visual impairment) on ten areas of Career preferences. These scores in case of children with orthopedic impairment: Fine Arts-16.82 and 3.75; Literary-15.88 and 5.09; Scientific-16.02 and 4.99; Medical-15.38 and 3.91; Agriculture-14.65 and 3.24; Technical-14.71 and 3.70; Crafts-13.25 and 3.46; Outdoor- 18.12 and 3.41; Sports-16.72 and 3.79; Household-13.86 and 3.18. In case of children with visual impairment the results are: Fine Arts-17.43 and 4.65; Literary-16.3 and 4.63; Scientific-17.29 and 4.12; Medical-16.72 and 4.41; Agriculture-15.64 and 3.22; Technical-15.73 and 3.95; Crafts-14.24 and 3.38; Outdoor- 18.68 and 3.91; Sports-18.58 and 4.25; Household-13.88 and 3.49. This table also gives us the information about 't' values of secondary school students with special needs (orthopedic impairment and visual impairment) on ten areas of career preferences. These 't' values are: Fine Arts-0.86; Literary-0.44; Scientific-1.51; Medical-1.93; Agriculture-2.37; Technical-1.74; Crafts-2.12; Outdoor-1.04; Sports-2.87; Household-0.04. It means the areas like Fine Arts; Literary; Scientific; Medical; Technical; Outdoor and Household are not significant whereas the areas like Agriculture; Craft and Sports are significant. The results further reveal that children with orthopedic impairment have lower inclination towards areas like Agriculture; Craft and Sports as compare to the children with visual impairment. In the areas like Fine Arts; Literary; Scientific; Medical; Technical; Outdoor and Household the children of both the groups have same inclination.

## **II. Preferences wise career choices of the children with special needs (Orthopedic impairment V/S Visual impairment).**

The preference wise career choices of the children with orthopedic impairment has been found to be: a) Outdoor, b) Fine Arts, c) Sports, d) Scientific, e) Literary, f) Medical, g) Technical, h) Agriculture, i) Household, j) Crafts. However, in case of children with visual impairment in the order of their career preference was found to be as a) Outdoor, b) Sports, c) Fine Arts, d) Scientific, e) Medical, f) Literary, g) Technical, h) Agriculture, i) Crafts, j) Household

## **III. Comparison of study habits of children with special needs (Orthopedic v/s Visual).**

Table 2.00 infers the information about mean and SD scores of children with special needs (orthopedic impairment and visual impairment) on eight areas of Study Habits. These scores in case of children with orthopedic impairment: Budgeting Time- 8.05 and 1.93; Physical Conditions or Study- 8.06 and 1.81; Reading Ability- 9.57 and 2.74; Note Taking- 4.8 and 1.27; Learning Motivation- 9.04 and 2.05; Memory- 4.9 and 1.37; Taking Examination- 12.07 and 1.84; Health- 4.14 and 0.82. In case of children with visual impairment the results are: : Budgeting Time- 8.45 and 1.68; Physical Conditions or Study- 8.47 and 1.61; Reading Ability- 10.41 and 2.67; Note Taking- 5.18 and 1.14; Learning Motivation- 9.55 and 1.79; Memory- 4.83 and 1.39; Taking Examination- 11.91 and 1.86; Health- 4.34 and 1.30. The 't' value of those secondary school students in these eight area of study habits are as: Budgeting Time- 0.07; Physical Conditions or Study- 0.08; Reading Ability- 0.06; Note Taking-0.14; Learning Motivation- 0.08; Memory- 0.02; Taking Examination- 0.02; Health-0.06, which reveals that there is no significant difference between these two groups in such areas. Both these groups have same study habits, which rejects hypothesis 2<sup>nd</sup> that; there shall be significant difference between the mean scores of secondary school students with special needs on study habits.

## **IV. Comparison of Academic achievement of children with special needs (Orthopedic v/s Visual).**

An examination of table 3.00 infers the information about mean and SD scores of children with special needs in two groups as: Orthopedic impairment- 49.77; 15.86 and Visual impairment- 53.03; 15.68. It 't' value is 9.88, which indicates that these two groups are significantly different from each other. So, the hypothesis 3<sup>rd</sup> is proved true.

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## Book Review

### Minority Studies

Robinson, Rowena (Eds): New-Delhi: Oxford University Press, 2013. 319 pp. ISBN-0-19-807854-4. Price: Rs. 675.

*Mohammad Zia ul Haa Rafiqi\**

Minority studies edited by Robinson, Rowena published under auspices of the "Oxford in India Studies in Contemporary Society," the volume under review is third in the series devoted to reveal what minority studies means in the Indian context. This book has gratified all the minority sections of India viz., SC/ST, Christians, Muslims, Buddhists, Parses and the Sikh's. This book is compiled of twelve chapters unanimously fervent to a specific minority group, illuminating the deep reflections and novel ideas of the contributors. Each chapter had flanged up new questions and raised innovative issues that had not been conceived of in initial stages.

The silver line of this book is its introduction from the editor which exemplified a primer for various minority groups. Starting with a debate on Minorities, Multiculturalism and the rights of minorities at transnational level, (Europe, France, Netherland, Austria, Germany, Norway etc.,) and sanitization of the term (minority) from its close synonym(s) like immigrants, citizenship and the majority – minority framework. Following the constitutional Assembly debate regarding the growth and development of the term minority, a brief discussion of various articles, provisions, and the rights of Minorities as enshrined in the constitution of India is well articulated. At the end of this section an overview of the studies conducted in South Asia and India has broadened the scope of this book. Here a brief overview of all the chapters has been nicely sketched and these abstracts initiate vigour to go through all the chapters of this book. And it seems that the book is compiled in a lucid manner and the themes/chapters are linked in such a way that a kind of coherence in the literature remains intact. Kudos to the whole team for bringing out such a vivid work, which act as a good initiator for those scholars eager to study/research the marginalised sections of the society. The contributors of this book include anthropologists, sociologists, political theorists and the scholars of history and religious studies that also has extended its scope.

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The first three chapters look at the category of the 'minority' in terms of an all-India Perspective, raising general concerns and flagging issues of wide-ranging importance. Chapter –I, locates India's legal provisions for its minorities in terms of a wider comparative framework. An attempt has been made to locate theoretically what model of democracy explains India's particular and peculiar notion of secularism, as well as its capacity for the recognition of the collective rights of minority groups and their variant religious practices. This chapter is important for laying out the issue of 'minorities' from a state perspective and reminding us that in the Constitution, minorities included both linguistic and religious groups. It also brings to the centre the complex issue of 'collective' versus 'individual' rights in a democracy. This chapter recalls the problematic character of India's policies towards its Minorities.

The Chapter II, links up with the themes raised in first Chapter by taking a closer look at the crucial issue of personal laws. The question of how religious minority identities have been constructed in the context of modern Indian politics, particularly with regard to the 1980s battles over the definition, understanding, and application of Muslim Personal Law. Pointing to deep divides, (gender divides, construction of a minority identity) there are both 'top-down' and 'bottom-up' ways through which distinctions of minorities are produced and maintained. Chapter III, brings out the complexity of modern India's legally and constitutionally created minorities—the Scheduled Castes (SCs). Members of the SCs, must belong to certain religions (Hinduism, Sikhism, or Buddhism) to be legally recognized as having SC status in India. The concept of macro-majority and the micro-minority to speak of the fragmentation of the SC identity into subcategories based on religion or through the use of the 'creamy layer' concept. The authoress argues that both the fragmentation and the amalgamation the micro-minority and the macro-majority processes—put the minorities in a vulnerable position.

The relation between state categories and the complexities on the ground (in Chapter –I) forms the motif of next four chapters. All these chapters connect, in different ways, with questions that arise out of the complex engagement of authoritative categorizations with the lives and experiences of communities located differently in regional cultures and hierarchical structures. Sometimes, conflicts may arise because of the competition between groups to be recognized by the state as this or that category (with its attendant privileges). Dry, legal labels take on a turbulent life when communities are willing to fight each other, sometimes with desperate commitment to an identity that, in other circumstances or spheres of activity, they may willingly relinquish.

Chapter –IV, examines the idea of 'minority' among Muslims and Adivasis, as 'betwixt and between' Hindu and Muslim. Acknowledging that in Gujarat, 'minorityness' indicates not just religion, but, specifically the Muslim. The idea of being a minority might contain certain privileges or value for the group so designated,

whereby it can legitimately demand entitlements from the state. Sometimes, caste is more the unifier than religion, but even within the Jatt caste identity, there may be different *maslaq* (sectarian affiliations, Sunnis or Ahl-e-Hadis).

Aspects of this regional and caste complexity were also brought out in the chapter—V, on the Buddhists of Maharashtra. Buddhists are a minority, while Ambedkarite Mahar Buddhists are a major constituent of this group. The ways in which minority identity is constructed through everyday life and practice (the *habitus*) like the Associationalism and the domain of the '*sarvajanik*' or public are together engaged with when the Ambedkarites want to stress their particular identity as Buddhists on as ex-Untouchables. Finally, using the political notion of different ways in which the Buddhists locate themselves in civil and public spheres and tracing how a state constitutes a 'population' out of citizens, entitling such populations to enlist as beneficiaries of its practices of welfare.

Chapter—VI, pursues the problem of overlapping of identities, the Sarna and Christian Oraons, how they have perceived and articulated their Oraon identity in recent times. Both the Sarnas and the Christians are 'STs' with constitutional entitlements. Nevertheless, the 'tribal' identity of the Christians is challenged by some sections of the Sarnas in collaboration with anti-Christian forces. The tribal Christians have also responded to the challenge to their 'tribal' identity by asserting their pro-tribal stance in everyday life. Chapter—VII explore the notion of minority identity through the politics of demography that rages through controversies over conversion. Arguing that the conversion has been 'normal' through Indian history, they question any understanding of rigid tightly bound identities in the Indian context. Focusing on the violence in Kandhamal in Orissa, they show its complex location in the politics of caste and tribe, language, and the new Christian sectarian identities. Crosscutting these alliances and divisions are the produced identities of 'Hindu' and 'Christian', which are invoked in the process of violence against presumed or real Christian conversion practices. As they show, therefore, violence against Christians is often justified as a response to the presumed subversive conversion activities of missionaries. Such a justification requires that the parties involved in perpetrating the violence define themselves primarily along religious lines so that each act of conversion to Christianity can be understood as a defeat to the numbers game between religious communities and can, therefore, be framed as a provocation.

The next three chapters bring out yet other aspects of the state—community relationship. Here, resistance to the state is highlighted and it emerges in three distinct forms: ignoring or refusing state-imposed labels; resistance by battling the state legally in court; and armed struggle against the state. The Parsis, (Chapter VIII) are a community that have always disliked being referred to, or viewing themselves, as a minority. If they accept the designation at all, it is in terms of its sense of small and culturally distinct, not in terms of its denotation as a group that accepts the state's

patronage. One of the possible explanations that he offers is that the 'high' Persian culture they claim they are heirs to does not permit them to see themselves as relegated to a subaltern position. Their view has been that they would not like to claim any special concessions as a minority community but would prefer to completely identify themselves as Indian and make themselves indispensable to the country. Parsis embody three traditions—Persian, Indian, and Western—and, in fact, they have embraced modernity willingly. However, this modern community which refuses to locate itself as a minority faces a crisis of its reproductive economy due to the rigid practice of community endogamy. The Parsis transcend the status in the political economy of being a 'minority' subservient to the state; this is because their capital accumulation serves their interests far better than the state. However, the Parsis are a very small minority and, like other minorities, face the dangers of the exclusive nationalism framed by Hindutva ideologues. Their withdrawal from this reality is due to their obsession with their distinct Persian ethnicity. Nonetheless, by doing this they appear to forget, according to the author, that a minority as such needs minority rights—which they will have to share with all minorities (including the greatly stigmatized Muslims). For this, an affirmation—within their worldview—of the system of rights will be necessary.

Chapter IX traces the tortured arguments and debates surrounding the Ramakrishna Mission's plea that it was a non-Hindu organization, through the 1980s and early 1990s. Here the authoress questions the term 'minority' and 'majority', arguing that when an organization with a large following among the 'majority' seeks to be identified as a 'minority', the label 'minority' comes to contain more than merely an enumerative dimension. It is not merely a bland descriptive term, but is a political one, affirming strength and indicating weakness. Numerical and sociological understandings of what constitutes a minority may not overlap. In analysing the ways in which the term can or is employed in the Juridico-legal and socio-political contexts of modern India, her chapter discusses how the labels 'minority' and 'majority' can become fiercely contested ones. How and when does a minority identity form the basis of a larger, separatist, nationalist identity? Has been examined in Chapter—X by focusing on the narrative construction of identity, exploring how actors make sense of their lives. She uses this to analyse the construction of Sikh minority identity tracing it through its various forms, even until it emerges as a nationalist identity. She captures the significance of a nationalist narrative within the Sikh community without assuming that this narrative is either uniform or monolithic. In doing so, she shows how and why Sikhs can, at a certain point of time, locate their socio—political identity in nationalist terms. A segment of the Sikh community narrates its minority identity through a public— nationalist Sikh tale, which emphasizes sacrifice, martyrdom, injury, and injustice, and leads to the emphasis on Khalsa Raj. There are specific material interests as well as enactments of privilege and dislocation that shape the nationalist construction of identity.



The important issue of the stigma of identity, particularly with regard to Muslims, is raised in the last two chapters. Separately, and together, the chapters locate how nationalism, international politics, and popular culture are co-implicated in the creation of the increasingly demonized category of the 'minority Muslim'. Chapter – XI looks at how popular cinema produced in Mumbai constructs a particular Muslim ethos and Islamic cultural characteristics. Tracing the progress from inclusion to exclusion, he tries to explore through some common examples from Bollywood cinema how particular cultural traits which are at present exclusively associated with Muslims were once freely accepted as normal and practiced by a majority of people. In other words, Muslim traits were part of a more embracing popular culture and were not exclusively 'Muslim'.

The final chapter brings together several of the themes that have been discussed at different places earlier in the book: the ideology of Hindutva and the work of cross-border politics; and ideas of demography in the construction of the stigmatized 'Other'. The gendered character of such constructions emerges as he shows how a particular form of majority masculinity is sought to be fashioned through acts of violence. This is a masculinity that announces itself the protector of the security of the Hindus, in fact, of the imagined Hindu nation itself. Here the idea of 'security' is defined to understand how violence masks itself as counter-violence, in the name of protection. This happens with respect to Indian minorities, particularly Muslims, wherein Hindutva ideology normalizes violence against minorities in the name of communal, national, and even international security. As he shows, recalling Waeber (1995, 2000), security is constitutive of danger, rather than merely a response to it, and it is accompanied by the dehumanization and stereotyping of the 'Other'. The 'Other' is labelled as the danger and is now fit object for control, policing, even extermination. The international war on terror reinforces the association of Islam and terrorism. In the Hindutva worldview, it becomes easy to confine the Indian Muslims, terrorists and Pakistanis. The 'Muslim terrorist is viewed as a grave threat to the national security of India today; in the long run, the demographic rise of the Muslims in India produces the spectre of the defeat of Hindus in the numbers game and the annihilation of the Hindu nation, or the possible constitution of another Pakistan. The chapter is a fitting conclusion to the volume, as it also brings us back to the requirement of the consideration of our subject from a cross-country perspective. Certainly, the theme of 'securitization' links the chapter to the section on South and Southeast Asia, bringing into sharp focus the need to analyse the issues related to minorities in India in a wider, comparative framework.

In conclusion, I agree that the minority – majority framework cannot easily be discarded, whether in policy analysis or academic discourse. This volume has attempted to bring together some of the kind of work being done on minorities today. It sets out the main themes that occupy us at this point. However, there is considerable



scope for widening the ambit of such studies. The discussions on the relationship between multiculturalism and citizenship could become overly concerned with the unity and viability of the democratic nation state and the potential or perceived threat posed to citizenship by minority rights. In this work, in fact, the concern is with examining how theories of multiculturalism and minority rights affect the virtues and practices of citizenship and vice versa. This could allow multiculturalism to be branded as an ideology for the management of minorities within the framework of the nation state.

On the one hand, the legal and policy framework will continue to be significant from the perspective of the development of the field. Analysts of secularism, multiculturalism, and the role of the state in relation to religion in India largely tend to compare the experience of this country directly with that of the 'West'. The ways in which other complex, traditional cultures in South and Southeast Asia have mediated the political realities of multi-religious societies in the modern period have largely been ignored. As suggested earlier, the comparative experiences and struggles with secularism of India with other plural, developing countries would be valuable for both theory and policymaking. In fact, one looks forward to more comparative analyses of the trajectories of development—social, economic, and political—in relation to increasing ethno-religious and regional discontent in the countries in South Asia.

On the other hand, the volume restricts itself to known minorities or the officially recognized ones. Of course, at all times, it queries these categories and shows them to be historically contingent. As it demonstrates well the need for the study of minorities in themselves, in terms of their own understandings of themselves, and in relation to the multiple sites and complex ways in which they seek to perform their identity. Further, the study of minority religions should move towards an understanding of diversity itself, framing itself in ways that can grasp the increasing multiplicity of religious and cultural cults and movements. There are splits, divisions, and a whole host of new faith groups that form part of the terrain of minority (indeed, even majority) religions. The study of these largely transnational-religious movements that are attracting a significant number of devotees should become part of our analyses. Through such historically located, ethnographically rich, interdisciplinary cross-cultural comparative analyses, we can reframe the dominant models of religion and culture that have thus far been the accepted knowledge.

The volume tries to understand how particular circumstances bring to fore the religious identity, and how and under other conditions this identity may dissolve or break up to reveal other affirmations of caste, class, gender, or regional association. As several of the chapters in the volume show, in practice, the construction of a minority as a religious group has been difficult to achieve given the existence and competition of several, and sometimes contradictory, allegiances and identities. The study of minorities in India has proceeded beyond the understanding of communities as

undifferentiated entities. What is considered of greater significance is the analysis of the construction of religious and minority identity and the implications and tensions that surround such constructions.

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