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From Chief Editor’s Desk

I am delighted to present INSIGHT - Journal of Applied Research in Education, Volume 22. No. 1 (2017) to field practitioners in general and devoted researchers, teachers, scholars and students of various schools of education across the country in particular. The present volume contains thirty four research and general papers which include topics on educational psychology, teacher education, Indian education, social psychology, educational technology, ICT in Education 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 earnest and humble gratitude to Prof. Khurshid Iqbal Andrabi, the hon'ble Vice-Chancellor of our University for his sagacious guidance, patronage and wholehearted encouragement. Prof. Khurshid Ahmad Butt - the Registrar of our University is equally acknowledged for his academic and administrative support. Finally, I want to express my gratitude to the Editorial Board for their contributions and efforts to make this journal a reality. Thanks are acknowledged to our reviewers to see this journal in its practical shape.

Prof. Mahmood Ahmad Khan is acknowledged for his contribution, as the Editor of this journal, in the consolidation of research articles presented in this volume.

Prof. Mohammad Iqbal Mattoo
Chief Editor
GENDER DIFFERENCE IN ACADEMIC COMPETENCE OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL STUDENTS: MODERATING ROLE OF PARENTAL EDUCATION AND SOCIAL DISADVANTAGE

Kulwinder Singh*  
Dilpreet Kaur**

Abstract

The present study investigated gender difference in academic competence of socially disadvantaged (scheduled caste and backward class students) vis-à-vis general category elementary school students of Punjab in relation to their parental education. The academic competence scale developed by Kaur (2015) consisting of 20 items was administered on a sample of 290 (161 boys and 129 girls) government elementary school students. The ANOVA results of the study showed significant gender difference in scheduled caste and general category (but not in backward class) elementary school students, in favour of girls. Further elementary school girls with illiterate parents showed better academic competence than boys, both in scheduled caste and general category groups but not in backward class elementary school students. The results favoring girls’ better academic competence, restricted to illiteracy and general category students, are discussed for enhancing girl child’s academic performance in school education.

Keywords: Academic Competence, Gender, Parental Education, Social Disadvantage

*Professor, Department of Education and Community Service, Punjabi University, Patiala  
**Research Scholar, Department of Education and Community Service, Punjabi University, Patiala
Introduction:

Gender issue in education and development has been a matter of concern in national policies and programmes since 1950s and at international level, too. The MDGs (2000-2015) period put an agenda: on education and development with gender equity to ensure that all boys and girls complete a full course of primary schooling; eliminate gender disparity in primary and secondary education preferably by 2005, and at all levels by 2015. The initiatives of government of India through DPEP in 1990s and SSA after 2000 had targeted for universal enrollment and retention of girl child for education and reduction of gender gap in of rural-urban gap as well as across social category groups (SC/BC/ST vs. General). The RTE-2009 implemented w.e.f. April 1, 2010 and later on efforts--during 12th five year plan (2012-17) too made a concentrated effort to enroll and retain girl child for universalisation of elementary education. However, persistence of gender bias in all India adult literacy rate (80.89 vs 64.64, total literacy rate being 72.99%) as per 2011 census and the similar figures for Punjab (80.44 vs 70.73, total literacy rate being 75.84) too show gender bias. The gender bias in school education in terms of enrolment and retention is prevalent inspite of all governmental efforts (Sharma, 2015 & Kaur, 2015). The problem of enrolment and dropout is associated with parental characteristics, especially education and employment. Further, the academic success of stay-ins, too depend on family characteristics, besides students’ personal characteristics such as intelligence, interest and above all competencies to learn. It is universally accepted fact that the socio-economic status of parent is the best predictor of students’ academic achievement. However the students at all grade levels do better academic work and have more positive school attitudes, higher aspirations and other positive behaviors if they have parents who are aware, knowledgeable, encouraging and involved (Coleman et al., 1966; Epstein, 1992). The students’ academic performance does not necessarily depend on parental occupation or the levels of parental education. It is not necessary that a low level of educational background or no educational background of parents automatically leads to wards’ poor performance (Kirpal et al., 1985; Hawkes, 2006). It is also reported in some studies that no significant relationship exists between socio-economically disadvantaged students’ academic achievement and also there is no significant relationship between parental influence and students’ academic achievement (Adeyemo & Babajide, 2012). Academic competence is a multi-dimensional construct composed of the skills, attitudes and behaviors of a learner that contribute to academic success in the classroom. It is well researched fact that academic competence--comprising of academic skills and academic enablers--is prerequisite to academic success in schooling. Academic skills are the basic and complex skills that are the primary focus of academic instruction in elementary and secondary schools. In contrast academic enablers are attitudes and behaviors that allow a learner to participate in and ultimately benefit from, academic instruction in the classroom (DiPerna et al. 2001). Thus the purpose of the study was to explore gender difference
Gender Differences in Academic Competence of Elementary School Students

in academic competence of elementary school students across parental education and social category groups.

**Objective**

To study gender difference in academic competence among socially disadvantaged elementary school students in relation to parental education.

**Hypothesis**

There will be significant gender difference among socially disadvantaged and advantaged elementary school students irrespective of levels of parental education.

**Method**

Descriptive method of research was followed for the conduct of the study.

**Sample**

The sample of the present study was 290 elementary school students of Patiala and Sangrur districts of Punjab in which there were 198 socially disadvantaged (SC-128; BC-70) and 92 general category.

**Measures**

The academic competence scale (2015) developed by researcher herself was used. The scale consisted of 20 statements on five points rating scale namely always, most often, frequently, sometimes, never with seven areas: perceived academic competence for learning, critical thinking and motivation, study habits, behavior pattern, achievement motivation, personal strain and psychological hardiness. The scale has content and criterion related validity (0.68). The split half reliability with odd even method and test-retest reliability coefficient was found to be 0.85 and 0.87 respectively.

**Procedure**

The academic competence scale was administered on the selected sample of government elementary school students. The elementary school students were classified in terms of gender (161 boys and 129 girls) two levels of parental education (80 illiterate and 210 educated). The category wise distribution of elementary school students across gender (boys and girls) came out to be (BC-41/29; SC-65/63; and Gen-55/37) respectively. The collected data was analysed with the help of three way ANOVA (gender × parental education × social category).

**Results**

The mean academic competence scores of elementary school boys and girls in terms of their parental education and social category are given in table 1.
Table 1: Mean of Academic Competence Scores of Elementary School Students with respect to their Gender, Parental Education and Social Category.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>GROUPS</th>
<th>GENDER</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Boys (N=161)</td>
<td>Girls (N=129)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Class: BC</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Illiterate</td>
<td>65.22</td>
<td>63.25</td>
<td>(C₁) 65.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educated</td>
<td>63.40</td>
<td>66.00</td>
<td>(B₁) 64.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Class: SC</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Illiterate</td>
<td>64.65</td>
<td>67.09</td>
<td>(C₂) 64.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educated</td>
<td>63.51</td>
<td>66.07</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Class: General</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Illiterate</td>
<td>59.23</td>
<td>64.83</td>
<td>(C₃) 62.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educated</td>
<td>62.92</td>
<td>64.40</td>
<td>(B₂) 64.38</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It may be seen from table 1 that elementary school students have mean academic competence scores ranging from 59.23 to 67.09, both in case of illiterate parents highest, (67.09) for scheduled caste girls and lowest for general category boys (59.23). The mean academic competence scores of other groups in 2×2×3 factorial design lie in between these two mean values.

In order to find out significant of the main effects of gender, parental education and social category on academic competence of the elementary school students along with their interactional effects, three way ANOVA (2×2×3 factorial design) was used. There were two types of gender (i.e. boys and girls), two levels of parental education (i.e. illiterate and educated) and three types of social category (i.e. BC, SC, and GEN) groups in the design. The summary of three way ANOVA is given in table 2.

The table 2 indicates that there is significant main effect of gender on academic competence of elementary school students (F= 3.79; p<0.05). The elementary school girls had significantly higher level of academic competence as compared to boys (63.15 and 65.27; t= 3.18; p<0.01). The F values for main effects of parental education and social category did not turn out to be significant (Fs= 0.09 and 1.79; p>0.05). The F values for the interaction effects of parental education with gender and social category did not turn out to be significant (Fs= 0.005 and 0.25; p>0.05). However the interaction effect of gender with social category turned out to be significant (F= 3.38; p<0.05), thereby meaning that significant effects of gender on academic competence of...
elementary school students is dependent on social category. The elementary school girls have significantly higher level of academic competence than boys only in case of general and scheduled caste category groups (t = 1.98 and 2.39; p<0.05) and not in case of BC groups (t = 0.19; p>0.05).

Table 2: Summary of Analysis of Variance (Gender × Parental Education × Social Category): Academic Competence

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S. No.</th>
<th>Source of Variance</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Gender (A)</td>
<td>13.45</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>13.45</td>
<td>3.79*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Parental Education (B)</td>
<td>0.34</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.34</td>
<td>0.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Social Category (C)</td>
<td>12.72</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6.36</td>
<td>1.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>A×B</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>0.005</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>A×C</td>
<td>23.92</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>11.96</td>
<td>3.38*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>B×C</td>
<td>1.82</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.91</td>
<td>0.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>A×B×C</td>
<td>926.60</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>463.30</td>
<td>130.87**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>Within</td>
<td>15383.07</td>
<td>278</td>
<td>3.54@</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>16361.94</td>
<td>289</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p<0.05 **p<0.01
@ corrected MS_{within} is equal to correction term 0.064 multiplied by MS_{within} 55.33 computed for ANOVA with unequal N.

Figure 1: Academic Competence of Elementary School Students- Gender and Social category

Also the triple interaction of gender, parental education and social category turned out to be significant (F = 130.87; p<0.01). This means that the significant double order interaction of gender and social category is dependent upon parental education to explain academic competence of elementary school students. It may be seen from
figure 2  that elementary school girls and boys of educated parents did not show significant mean difference in academic competence in case of backward class, scheduled caste and general categories (ts= 1.34; 1.73 and 0.83; p>0.05) respectively. However elementary school girls of illiterate parents had significantly higher level of academic competence than elementary school boys only in case of general category (t= 1.98; p<0.05), whereas such difference were not significant in case of scheduled caste and backward class categories (ts= 0.44 and 1.09; p>0.05).

Figure 2: Academic Competence of Elementary School Students-Gender and Social category for Illiterate and educated Parents

Conclusion

From these results it may be concluded that elementary school girls having significantly higher level of academic competence differ significantly from boys only in case of general and scheduled caste category students as a whole whereas, these significant differences remain true only for general category students having illiterate parents. No significant gender difference emerged for socially disadvantaged and general category students when parental education status was good. In other words social dis-advantagedness (belonging to SC group) -- both social class and education--has a significant role to explain gender difference in academic competence among elementary school students, variedly across levels of parental education

References


Gender Differences in Academic Competence of Elementary School Students


SARVA SHIKSHA ABHIYAN (SSA) – AN EVALUATIVE STUDY OF DISTRICT SHOPIAN IN KASHMIR VALLEY

Mahmood Ahmad Khan
Zahoor Ahmad Wani

Abstract
The present study was undertaken to evaluate the various parameters of Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan (SSA) in district Shopian in Kashmir valley. The parameters were to study the number of primary schools opened under SSA in all educational zones of district Shopian, pupil teacher ratio, total enrollment, Mid-day meal scheme, total number of EGS centres, training facilities, infrastructure facilities in terms of Classrooms, Principals room, Staff room, Benches, Mating, Black boards, Chairs etc. To assess the role of VEC’s & to study the progression in enrollment in these schools, with effect from the implementation of the scheme (2002). The sample consisted of all the 204 SSA schools of district Shopian. Self constructed information blank and check list were used for the collection of data and percentage statistics was used for the analysis of data. The results of the study highlight that SSA has opened 204 schools upto June 2012 in all the 04 educational zones of district Shopian with total enrollment of 7106. A total no. of 395 teachers have been appointed making over all pupil teacher ratio (PTR) of 1:17. There has been overall 79.2% progression in enrollment from 2002 to June 2012. Although government is painting a rosy picture on the implementation of centrally sponsored schemes but still a percentage of 55% & 64% of SSA schools of concerned district are without toilet & drinking water facility respectively. All the Education Guarantee Scheme (EGS) centres were elevated to normal SSA primary schools and majority of them are running in single...
rooms donated by Education Volunteers (EV’s) themselves. 99% of teachers have received training under SSA.

Key Words: Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan (SSA), Pupil Teacher Ratio, Village Education Committees, Universalisation of Elementary Education.

Introduction

The importance of education is best described by a famous Chinese proverb. “If you want to think one year ahead, plant rice, if you want to think 10 years ahead plant trees, but if you want to think 100 years ahead, give education to people.” Best education is a guarantee for durable peace, progress, prosperity, integrity and honesty. Education is life and life is education. It occupies a pivotal position in the development of every society. Education widens the horizons of our mindset, opens up new vistas for mankind and empowers the powerless.

As education is the birth right of an individual, it means that it is not considered with any particular class and group but has to deal with entire population of a nation. The targets for primary education fixed earlier have not been achieved as such the concept of universalisation of elementary education (UEE) was introduced which means making education available to all in the age group of (6-14) years as article 45 of the constitution says that the State shall endeavor to provide within the period of 10 years from the commencement of this constitution for free and compulsory education for all children until they complete the age of 14 years. The concept of compulsory primary education can not be attained unless provisions for Univesalisation are attained. It is evident that huge amount of money is allocated and utilized for the mass education in order to eradicate illiteracy but still a huge proportion of our population remains in the grip of illiteracy. The literacy rate of J&K State is 68% (census-2011). For males it is 78% while as for females it is 58%. This means that 22% males and 42% females are still living in the darkness of illiteracy. The progress of primary education is an important index of the general, social and economic development of the country as a whole. (Naik, 1999). Primary education touches life at every point, and it has to do more with formation of national ideology and character than any other single activity - social, political or educational. Those of us, who are concerned with the great work of primary education, should therefore visualize its problems and try to eradicate them for better future of the country.

A few research studies have been conducted on the functioning of SSA; Yadav (2013) has found that enrollment & retention of girls continuously falls down as we move from class I to V except at some situations. Also there is a difference among the opinion of Parents, Teachers and Students towards the impact of Mid-day meal programme (MDMP). Kumar & Kumar (2013) has found that the role of community in promotion of Elementary Education can not be ignored as participation of community in day to day school functioning assumes significance not only due to the reason that the school children belong to that particular locality/ community where
school is located in, but at the same time that community has responsibility and
obligation to ensure creation of learned society which calls for quality education,
sharing responsibility with the school system. The existing programme of Sarva
Shiksha Abhiyan in the country as well as RTE Act-2009, through school management
committee, has given due recognition and importance to community participation in
the context of Elementary Education. Khan and Koul (2012) has found that SSA has
opened 507 schools in 12 educational zones of district Anantnag with the total
enrollment of 23590 constituting 12307 boys (52%) and girls 11283 (48%). Moreover, a
total 1200 teachers have been appointed under SSA in the same district. By the proper
working of SSA there has been 16% increase in enrollment from 2008 - 09. The study
also reveals that the over all enrollment of Gujjar and Bakerwal students is 447 which
include 241 (54%) boys and 206 (46%) girls. The overall enrollment of Gujjar and
Bakerwal students is 447 which is 2% of the total enrollment (23590). Revathy (2008)
found that infrastructural facilities need to be improved. Institute of public auditors of
India, New Delhi (2008) on monitoring of the financial management and procurement
relating to SSA in New Delhi has found that in the Govt. accounting system,
depreciation was not been provided under SSA. It has also been found that the school
authorities had not purchased furniture according to instructions issued by UEE
of Srinagar and Budgam districts of Kashmir province has found that no health
campus were conducted in any of the school opened under SSA. It has also found that
almost all the schools are housed in rented buildings and are in bad condition. DIET,
Bheemunipatnam, Visakhapatnum district Andhra Pradesh (2006) conducted study
on impact of Mid-Day Meal at primary level in Visakhapatnum district found that the
participatory level of community towards Mid-Day Meals programme was not
encouraging, 68% of the schools were not having kitchen facility. With regard to
happiness of children it was observed that in almost all the schools the children of all
the localities felt happy with the supply of Mid-Day Meals. With regard to quality of
food grains almost all the schools have maintained the quality. Chauhan, et al. (2006) in
their study on in – service teacher training programme under SSA in (Sunni)
educational block of district Shimla has found that the training component has been
judged useful for teachers to a large extent in the areas like, use of teaching learning
material (TLM) in classroom situation, activity based teaching and child centered
approach followed by subject enrichment. In the sampled schools 61% teachers were
found male and 39% female. All India sample service (2005) was conducted to
estimate the number of out of school children in age group of 6 – 14; it has been found
that country has about 19.4 crore children in the age group of 6 – 13 of whom 6.9%
children never attended school and 31.7% were drop – outs.

Keeping these factors in view, SSA a centrally sponsored scheme was started
to uplift the programme of UEE through out country. In this scheme States are being
provided every sort of help to improve the literacy rate in the country. Large numbers
of schools are being opened under this scheme; new teachers are being appointed to fulfill the deficiency of staff in these schools. Mid–day meal scheme has been implemented and also new buildings are being constructed under this scheme. Keeping in view the above discussion there is a need of a present study to investigate and to see how far the government has succeeded in implementing the centrally flagship programme of SSA in district Shopian of J&K state. The purpose of the present study is also to see and observe the conditions in schools that have opened under SSA in all the educational zones of district Shopian. The present study is also an attempt to collect and analyze the data collected from these educational zones and to see what achievements have been made by this scheme in the concerned district. No evaluative study till date has been reported on SSA in district Shopian, therefore, the proposed study is a first of its kind in the district. As very few researches have been carried out regarding SSA, the Investigator felt the need of the present study. The present study is also important in order to present the existing conditions of the schools under this scheme so that educational planners and administrators may be able to understand the problem in a proper manner and try to remove hindrances and inadequacies.

**Objectives of the Present Study**

1. To study the number of primary schools opened under SSA in district Shopian of Kashmir valley.
2. To study pupil teacher ratio in these schools.
3. To study the total enrollment in primary schools in the district.
4. To assess the Mid-day meal scheme in the district.
5. To assess the total number of EGS centres and their enrollment.
6. To study the training facilities available to primary school teachers under SSA.
7. To study infrastructure facilities in terms of Classrooms, Principal room, Staff-room, Benches, Mating, Black boards, Chairs etc.
8. To assess the role of VEC’s in these schools.
9. To study the progression in enrollment in these schools, with effect from the implementation of the scheme.

**Operational Definition of Variable**

SARVA SHIKSHA ABHIYAN (SSA): SSA is a flagship programme of government of India for achievement of UEE. SSA is an effort to provide useful and relevant elementary education for all children of 6-14 years of age groups by 2012. It is a centrally sponsored scheme to improve the literacy rate in the country.
Plan and Procedure

Sample

In district Shopian there are 04 educational zones consisting of 204 primary schools opened by SSA from inception to 2012. All schools were selected as sample for the study.

Tools

The data for the present study was collected with the help of following self constructed tools:-

1) Information Blank –
   The information blank was used to collect information about number of teachers and their training, total enrollment both sex wise and class wise, total number of alternative and innovative centres and their total enrollment.

2) Check List –
   The check list was used by investigator to know detailed information about infrastructure and other facilities such as classrooms, desks, chairs, blackboard, electricity, toilet facility, drinking water facility, play ground, library, principal room & mid-day meal facility.

Statistical Analysis:

In order to accomplish, the objective of the present study, the data collected through various data gathering devices, was statistically analyzed using percentage statistics and presented in a tubular form.

Table 01: Zone Wise Total Number of SSA Schools With Population Covered

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S.No.</th>
<th>Name of the Educational Zone</th>
<th>Total No. of Schools</th>
<th>Population Covered</th>
<th>Ratio</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Imamshahib</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>14500</td>
<td>1:250</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Keegam</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>16225</td>
<td>1:275</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Shopian</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>9384</td>
<td>1:204</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Vihul</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>11275</td>
<td>1:275</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td><strong>204</strong></td>
<td><strong>51384</strong></td>
<td><strong>1:209</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 02: Zone Wise Total Enrollment of SSA Schools

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S.No.</th>
<th>Name of the Educational Zone</th>
<th>Total No. of SSA Schools</th>
<th>Total Enrollment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Imamshahib</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>1718</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Keegam</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>2506</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Shopian</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>1688</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Vihul</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>1194</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>204</td>
<td>7106</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 03: Zone Wise Total Number of Teachers and Pupil – Teacher Ratio

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S.No.</th>
<th>Name of the Educational Zone</th>
<th>Total No. of Teachers</th>
<th>Total Enrollment</th>
<th>Pupil Teacher Ratio</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Imamshahib</td>
<td>111</td>
<td>1718</td>
<td>1:15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Keegam</td>
<td>117</td>
<td>2506</td>
<td>1:21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Shopian</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>1688</td>
<td>1:19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Vihul</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>1194</td>
<td>1:15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>395</td>
<td>7106</td>
<td>1:17</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 04: Zone Wise Incentives Provided To SSA Schools

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S.No.</th>
<th>Name of the Educational Zone</th>
<th>Total No. of Schools</th>
<th>Incentives.</th>
<th>%age</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Mid-Day Meals</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Imamshahib</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Keegam</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Shopian</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Vihul</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>204</td>
<td>204</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 05: Zone Wise Number of Teachers Trained Under SSA.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S. No.</th>
<th>Name of the Educational Zone</th>
<th>Total No. of schools</th>
<th>Total No. of Teachers</th>
<th>Teachers Trained Under SSA</th>
<th>%age of Teachers Trained Under SSA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Imamshahib</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>111</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>99%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Keegam</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>117</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>97%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Shopian</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Vihul</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td></td>
<td>204</td>
<td>395</td>
<td>391</td>
<td>99%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 06: Zone Wise Availability of Infrastructure Facilities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of the Edu. Zone</th>
<th>No of Schools</th>
<th>Facilities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>No of Class rooms</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imam Sahab</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Keegam</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shopian</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vihul</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>204</td>
<td>300</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table - 07: Zone-Wise Function of Village Education Committees.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S. No.</th>
<th>Name of the Educational Zone</th>
<th>Total No. of Schools</th>
<th>VEC Framing</th>
<th>PERFORMING FUNCTIONS.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Visiting Schools</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Meeting Parents</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Invited in Panel Framing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Made Land Available for Schools</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Imamshahib</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>50(86%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>58(100%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>09(15%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Keegam</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>42(71%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>59(100%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>05(8%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Shopian</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>31(67%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>46(100%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Vihul</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>34(83%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>41(100%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>07(17%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td></td>
<td>204</td>
<td>204</td>
<td>157(77%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>204(100%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>21(10%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 08: Zone-Wise Sex Enrollment (As on June 2012)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S. No.</th>
<th>Name of the Education Zone</th>
<th>Total No. of Schools</th>
<th>Boys</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Girls</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Total Enrollment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Imamshahib</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>912</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>806</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>1718</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Shopian</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>1353</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>1153</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>2506</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Keegam</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>840</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>848</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>1688</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Vihul</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>704</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>490</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>1194</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td></td>
<td>204</td>
<td>3809</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>3297</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>7106</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 09: Year-Wise Progression (Status) in Enrollment Since the Inception of the Scheme

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Imamshahib</td>
<td></td>
<td>284</td>
<td>718</td>
<td>1328</td>
<td>1434</td>
<td>1566</td>
<td>1722</td>
<td>1592</td>
<td>1556</td>
<td>1778</td>
<td>1718</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Keegam</td>
<td></td>
<td>444</td>
<td>766</td>
<td>1036</td>
<td>1154</td>
<td>1294</td>
<td>1496</td>
<td>1534</td>
<td>1752</td>
<td>1862</td>
<td>2506</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Shopian</td>
<td></td>
<td>542</td>
<td>930</td>
<td>1540</td>
<td>1768</td>
<td>1778</td>
<td>1912</td>
<td>1802</td>
<td>1678</td>
<td>1680</td>
<td>1688</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Vihul</td>
<td></td>
<td>208</td>
<td>326</td>
<td>522</td>
<td>732</td>
<td>846</td>
<td>944</td>
<td>1118</td>
<td>1286</td>
<td>1380</td>
<td>1194</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1478</td>
<td>2740</td>
<td>4418</td>
<td>5088</td>
<td>5484</td>
<td>6074</td>
<td>6046</td>
<td>6272</td>
<td>6700</td>
<td>7106</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%age</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>46.05%</td>
<td>37.92%</td>
<td>13.16%</td>
<td>7.22%</td>
<td>9.71%</td>
<td>-0.46%</td>
<td>3.60%</td>
<td>6.3%</td>
<td>5.71%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall %age</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>79.2%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Interpretation and Discussion:

The table 01 depicts the total number of SSA schools in all the 04 educational zones of district Shopian. The table reveals that in educational zone Imamshahib, the total number of schools is 58, covering the population of 14500 persons, in educational zone Keegam it is 59, covering the population of 16225 persons, in educational zone Shopian it is 46, covering the population of 9384 persons and in educational zone Vihul it is 41, covering the population of 11275 respectively.

The results show that the maximum number of schools opened under SSA is in zone Keegam (59) and lowest number is in zone Vihul (41), but as per the population ratio is concerned, the educational zone Shopian has got the highest no. of schools i.e.,
01 SSA primary school for 204 population, while as educational zone Keegam and educational zone Vihul has got lowest no. of SSA schools i.e., 01 SSA school for 275 population and educational zone Imamshahib has got 01 SSA school for 250 population. As a whole, the district has got 01 SSA school for 209 population which is more favorable than prescribed population standard i.e., 01 SSA primary school for 300 population.

The table 02 depicts the total enrollment of these schools falling in all educational zones of district Shopian. The table reveals that in educational zones of Imamshahib, Keegam, Shopian and Vihul the total enrollment is 1718, 2506, 1688 and 1194 respectively. The results show that the educational zone Keegam has highest enrollment i.e., 2506 while as the educational zone Vihul has lowest enrollment i.e., 1194, as the number of schools and population of the former educational zone is greater than the later educational zone.

The table 03 depicts the total number of teachers working in these schools and also the pupil –teacher ratio i.e., how many students share the one teacher. The table reveals that in educational zone Imamshahib, the total enrollment in these SSA schools is 1718. The number of teachers working in these schools is 111. Here the pupil-teacher ratio is 1:15. In educational zone Keegam, the total enrollment in these SSA schools is 2506. The number of teachers working in these schools is 117. Here the pupil-teacher ratio is 1:21. In educational zone Shopian, the total enrollment in these SSA schools is 1688. The number of teachers working in these schools is 91. Here the pupil-teacher ratio is 1:19. In educational zone Vihul, the total enrollment in these SSA schools is 1194. The number of teachers working in these schools is 76. Here the pupil-teacher ratio is 1:15. Here the result depicts that the maximum number of teachers appointed under SSA are in educational zone Keegam (117). The educational zone Vihul has got lowest number of teachers (76) as the educational zone has the lowest number of schools. During investigation it was found that the schools have been opened in far flung areas to provide chances of primary education to all. The criterion of at least 1:40 pupil-teacher ratio is maintained in all school and is even more favorable in maximum number of schools. The overall pupil-teacher ratio is 1:17 in district Shopian which is more favorable as compared to criteria of SSA scheme.

The table 04 depicts the incentives such as Mid-day meals and free text books provided to SSA schools. The table reveals that the Mid-day meal scheme is functional in all the 204 schools (100%) in district Shopian. Free text books are also provided to all the students in all the SSA schools of district Shopian. Under this scheme variety of food is being served every day. The meal is comprised of 100 grams of cooked rice, dal (any type) and leafy vegetables per child per day with the convergence charges of Rs 3.11 per child per day of primary standard. Children and concerned parents are happy with both the quality and quantity of food given to them. But no provision has been made by the government to provide the children micro- nutrients and medical check-
ups. During investigation it was found that food is being cooked either in the class rooms or in the kitchen of house holder and no regular payment is made to these cooks. During investigation it was also found that Mid-day meals are not being properly served in Vihul & Imamshahib educational zones of district Shopian. Although government is painting a rosy picture on the implementation of centrally sponsored Mid-day meal scheme (MDM) in the valley but taking a cursory look at the half yearly monitoring reports prepared between October (2010) to March (2011) and April (2011) to September 30 (2011) by State resource centre of University of Kashmir, reveals that MDM programme of Ministry of Human Resources (MHRD) is affected by the non availability of food grains and delay in release of the funds.

During investigation some teachers across all the educational zones brought into our notice that there should be one person wholly and solely responsible for MDM programme in each school and not a teacher. It has been also observed that this feeding programme for school children also lacks supervision from the concerned authorities. Some teachers also demanded that supply of rice should be distributed on the pattern of Aanganwadi centres (ICDS centres) where the supply is deposited at respective centers as it is very difficult for another teacher to handle, not to speak of teaching the students in the schools, because for the collection of food grains at least one teacher remains out of school for two days to collect the food grains from concerned ration depots. As the ration depots are far away from the vicinity of the schools opened under SSA. However it was found that Mid-day meals scheme has motivated parents to send their children to schools to a great extent. The parents, who struggle to get too square meals for his family, get a chance to be relieved from one meal of their ward and therefore send their children to school and hence the result is that enrollement increases.

So far as EGS centres are concerned, all have been elevated to primary schools under SSA norms with reference to government order No.322 dated- 26/6/2008 and no such EGS centre is being established. Now for the present study they have been calculated as normal primary SSA schools. The teachers were working on voluntarily basis in these centres and with the implementation of this order all education volunteers were converted in to R.T's (Rehbari-e-taleem's). So far as their previous school record is concerned, it reflects that all the EV’s have worked dedicately and were maintaining all the school records properly.

The table 05 depicts the training facilities available to teachers in all educational zones of district Shopian. The training of 20 days for all teachers, each year, 60 days refresher course for un-trained teachers and 30 days orientation for freshly trained recruits has been provided under SSA scheme. SSA recognizes the importance of teachers and as such is giving intensive training to all teachers. The table also reveals that educational zone Imamshahib has 111 total working teachers among these 110 (99%) were trained through SSA scheme. Among 117 total teachers
in educational zone Keegam 114 (97%) were trained through SSA scheme. Educational zone Shopian has 91 total teachers among these all 91 (100%) were trained through SSA scheme. Among 76 total teachers of educational zone Vihul all the 76 were received the training through SSA. The result depicts that educational zone Shopian and educational zone Vihul have the highest percentage of trained teachers while as educational zone Keegam has the lowest percentage of trained teachers. There are total 395 teachers among which 391 (99%) are trained through SSA. During investigation it was found that all the trained teachers are highly satisfied with training facilities. The Teaching Learning Material (TLM) is also provided to all the SSA teachers.

The table 06 depicts the infrastructural facilities provided to SSA schools which include Principals room, Staff room, Availability of benches, Matting, Blackboards, Chairs, Electricity, Toilets, Playground and Drinking water facility. The perusal of table 06 reveals that facility of principal's room, staff room, electricity is not available to any SSA school in all the educational zones. However, other facilities like blackboards, chairs, benches and matting are available to all schools. All the schools are facing accommodation problem as maximum number of schools are having only 2 classrooms for 5 classes. It is important to note that the some EGS centres elevated to Primary Schools are still running in the single room donated by the education volunteer at the time of opening of EGS centres. The results also show that most of the schools lack basic facilities. In overall the picture of accommodation of classrooms is so severe that against 204 SSA schools only 300 government constructed classrooms are available, which means that in whole district (Shopian), 05 classes in a primary school share 1.5 classrooms for teaching and learning process. Fifty five (55%) of the schools are without the toilet facility, while as the Sixty four (64%) of the schools are without drinking water facility. The figures clearly indicate the government is not serious in providing basic infrastructural facilities to these schools because of which children as well as staff members of these schools are facing lot of problems. During investigation it was seen that in almost all the schools the teachers take 2 to 3 classes in a single room which totally hampers the teaching learning process. It was also found that because of lack of accommodation most of the schools have been opened in noisy places which affects on teaching learning process. In a unique situation, during investigation it was found that Primary School Sugoo falling in the educational zone Imamshahib was situated in the open area adjacent to running Nallaha (stream), classes are being conducted in open air when the weather is raining, the school remains closed. During interaction with the teachers it was revealed that no one in the village provides the accommodation on the rental basis, because of meager rent rate i.e., Rs 200/ per month fixed by the government. Govt. is also callous that they are not taking the matter serious and constructing the building for the school. Regarding playground facilities, it was found that only 19% of the schools are having this facility,
but these playgrounds are not properly maintained because of which students face a lot of problems while playing.

The table 07 shows the total number of Village Education committees (VEC’s) framed and their functions in all the educational zones of district Shopian. The table 07 reveals that VEC’s have been framed in all the SSA schools in all the educational zones. For cent percent retention under SSA scheme, community involvement at grass root level has been encouraged and for this purpose VEC’s have been framed. Two members from the VEC’s of the school were approached and interacted and necessary information regarding implementation of the scheme collected there from. During the investigation it was found that in educational zone Imamshahib VEC’s were framed in all the SSA schools (100%), 50(86%) of these committees perform the function of visiting schools, no committee was found to perform the function of meeting parents to increase the enrollment. All the 58 committees (100%) were invited by schools and ZEO in panel framing for the selection of teachers (Rehbar-e-Taleems) and 09 committees (15%) has made land available for construction of schools. In educational zone Keegam VEC’s were framed in all the SSA schools (100%), 42(71%) of these committees perform the function of visiting schools, no committees was found to perform the function of meeting parents to increase the enrollment. All the committees i.e., 59(100%) were invited by schools and ZEO in panel framing for the selection of teachers (Rehbar-e-Taleems) and 05 committees (8%) has made land available for construction of schools. In educational zone Shopian VEC’s were framed in all the SSA schools (100%), 31(67%) of these committees perform the function of visiting schools, no committee was found to perform the function of meeting parents to increase the enrollment. 46 committees (100%) were invited by schools and ZEO in panel framing for the selection of teachers (Rehbar-e-Taleem) and no committee has made land available for construction of schools. In educational zone Vihul, VEC’s were framed in all the SSA schools (100%), 34(83%) of these committees perform the function of visiting schools, no committee was found to perform the function of meeting parents to increase the enrollment. All the committees i.e., 41(100%) were invited by schools and ZEO in panel framing for the selection of teachers (Rehbar-e-Taleem) and 07(17%) committees has made land available for construction of schools. It is evident that VEC committees have been framed in all the SSA schools of district Shopian, 77% of these committees perform the function of visiting schools, no committee was found to perform the function of meeting parents to ensure increase in enrollment, 100% of committees were invited by schools and ZEO’s in panel framing for the selection of teachers (Rehbar-e-Taleem) and only 21% of VEC’s has made land available for construction of schools.

The table 08 reveals that the total enrollment in all educational zones of district Shopian is 7106 with girls 3297 and boys 3809. The girls constitute 46% while as boys constitute 54%. In educational zone Imamshahib total enrollment is 1718 with 912(53%) boys and 806(47%) girls. Educational zone Keegam is having total 1353 (54%) boys
and 1153 (46%) girls among total enrollment of 2506. In educational Zone Shopian, total enrollment is 1688 with 840 (50%) boys and 848 (50%) girls (almost). Educational zone Vihul is having 704 (59%) boys and 490 (41%) girls among total enrollment of 1194. The enrollment of girls is not more than boys except in educational zone Shopian, where the percentage is on equal front i.e. 50-50, while as compared to this the enrollment of boys is more than girls in the rest three educational zones i.e. Imamshahib, Keegam and Vihul. The total enrollment of boys is (54%) and girls (46%), which indicates that the girl enrollment is 4% less than boys. This shows the untoward approach of parents towards girl child, which is a matter of concern. During investigation it was found that the SSA schools residing in far flung areas have crowded enrollment as compared to town area schools, but the availability of teachers is vice-versa. In a living example, the investigators found that in Aagapathri and Chamanpathri SSA schools are having more than 150 students against 2 teachers, instead of this P/S Malik poora Shopian are having only 12 students enrolled against 4 teachers which hampers the teaching-learning process badly and which is against the implementation of the scheme. Government should take necessary steps to rationalize the posting of teachers in an effective and efficient manner, so that every student should get adequate attention on behalf of the teachers. It was also found that 1km norm between the two SSA schools was kept alive in several areas where as in semi-urban areas this norm has not been taken care of, as the establishment of schools became the vote banks for politicians.

The table 09 reveals that the total enrollment position in these 204 SSA schools since the inception of the scheme upto the June 2012. Table shows that in the years 2003, 2004, 2005, 2006, 2007, 2008, 2009, 2010, 2011 & 2012 the total enrollment was 1478, 2740, 4418, 5088, 5484, 6074, 6046, 6272, 6700 and 7106 respectively. The results show that, in the academic year 2002-2003, the total enrollment was 1478 which is increased to 2740 in the academic year of 2003-2004 i.e., enrollment increased by 46.05%, in the academic year 2004-2005 it increased by 37.98%, in the academic year 2005-2006, it increased by 13.16%, in the academic year 2006-2007, it increased by 7.22%, in the academic year 2007-2008 it increased by 9.71%, while in the academic year 2008-2009, the roll declines by -0.46%, in the academic year 2009-2010, the roll enhances by 3.60%, in the academic year 2010-2011, the roll increases by 6.38% and in the academic year 2011-2012, the roll also increased by 5.71% respectively.

At a glance, it is clear that there are variations in enrollment progression since the inception of the scheme in the whole district of Shopian from the academic year 2002-2003 to 2007-2008, the roll increases from 1478 to 6074 i.e., 75.6%, while the academic year 2008-2009 indicates the slight decline i.e., 6074(in 2008) and 6046 (in 2009) which means the roll declines by -0.46% this decline may be attributed to famous double murder and rape cases of two daughters of the soil of Shopian district namely Asiya & Neelofar. After the academic year 2008-2009, the roll also increases by 11.7% in the academic year 2009-2010 to 2011-2012. Hence the overall progression in
enrollment since the inception of scheme up to June-2012 is 79.2% which is a healthy sign. This also justifies that SSA scheme in district Shopian has served its purposes.

The findings discussed and observed in the study are inline with the findings of Duraisamy, P. (Tamil Nadu, 2001), Chauhan, D.R. Sharma, Bhupender, Rawat, Jyoti (Shimla, 2006), Khan & Koul (Kashmir, 2012), Kumar & Kumar (Harayana, 2013). Duraisamy, P. (Tamil Nadu, 2001), found that in the recent years, steps have been taken to provide incentives such as free mid-day meals, uniforms, books, transport and scholarship and the like have drawn children to schools.

Chauhan, D.R. Sharma, Bhupender, Rawat, Jyoti (Shimla, 2006) found the training component useful for teachers to a large extent in the areas of teaching learning material (TLM) in classroom situation, activity based teaching and child centered approach followed by subject enrichment. They have also found that TLM was made available to 98% trainees.

Khan & Koul (Kashmir, 2012) found that SSA has opened 507 schools in all the 12 educational zones of district Anantnag of Kashmir valley with the total enrollment of 23590 constituting 12307 boys (52%) and girls 11283 (48%). Moreover, a total 1200 teachers have been appointed under SSA in the same district. The study also reveals that by virtue of SSA there has been 16% increase in enrollment from 2008-2009.

Kumar & Kumar (Harayana, 2013) found that the role of community in promotion of Elementary Education can not be ignored as participation of community in day to day school functioning assumes significance not only due to the reason that the school children belong to that particular locality/community where school is located in, but at the same time that community has responsibility and obligation to ensure creation of learned society which calls for quality education with sharing responsibility with the school system. The existing programme of Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan in the country as well as RTE Act-2009, through school management committee, has given due recognition and importance to community participation in the context of Elementary Education.

**Inferential Suggestions**

1. VEC’s should be given authority and proper funds to recruit Para-teachers to overcome teacher shortage in the situation of Maternity leave, Medical leave etc.
2. Toilet and drinking water facilities should be provided to all schools to maintain hygienic environment in these schools.
3. Electricity should be provided to all schools to make effective use of latest gadgets, available to the teachers at home or at school.
4. The funds kept for Maintenance, Grant, TLM, ECCE, MDM etc., should be released before the initiation of new academic year.
5. New buildings should be constructed to deal with accommodation problem with well ventilated class rooms.
6. Hard working teachers should be encouraged and rewarded.
7. The training should normally be in relation to the needs and requirements of teachers and schools, taking into consideration emerging trends and concerns in education. The emerging concerns need to be essentially incorporated both in pre-service and in-service training programmes including short duration of orientation of teachers.
8. Training to in-service teachers must be imparted with the sole objective of qualitative improvement in the skill, knowledge, communication and handling of real classroom situation.
9. Teacher absenteeism was seen high in the whole district of Shopian. It should be dealt with severe hand.
10. There should be separate teachers for Math’s/ Science and Computers.
11. Teachers should be consulted at the time of curriculum construction or in the preparation of district plans.
12. Permanent and separate staff should be recruited at district and sub-district levels for the effective implementation of SSA so that the teachers get rid from this additional burden.
13. Universal enrollment is a difficult challenge due to seasonal migration, illiteracy, sibling care and academic backwardness and hence as per our view school calendar should be devised in such a manner that should be sync with above constraints.
14. There should be greater emphasis on training imparted to VEC members as it creates transparency in usage of funds or maintenance of records.
15. Greater emphasis should be given on awareness of interventions of SSA and Parent teacher associations (PTA’s).
16. Monitoring and Supervision should not be restricted to a few members like accountants, data entry operators but representatives of DIET or NGO’s should also be taken into confidence.
17. There should be complete record of visits made by concern officials and maintenance of Visitors book should be mandatory.
18. Transport facility and ramps should be provided for differently-abled children.
19. The engagement of teachers by the government for census and non-teaching works should be reduced, so that the actual functioning of schools may not suffer.
20. Sports equipments need to be providing in schools.
21. As and when a vacancy is created in the school, it should be filled immediately without wasting the precious time of students.

22. There is need of improvement in pedagogic core practices such as use of Activity Based Learning (ABL) and Activity Learning Methodology (ALM) in letter and spirit as it will be helpful in creating interest among students and will definitely reduce drop out rate.

23. Rote learning should be discouraged.

24. Textbooks made available to all children in the beginning of the session because usually it has been observed that books are being distributed in the later months of the session and this reduces the efficiency of Teaching Learning Process.

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A STUDY OF VALUES OF SCIENCE AND SOCIAL SCIENCE HIGHER SECONDARY SCHOOL TEACHERS OF DISTRICT BARAMULLA

M. Y. Ganai*

Abstract
Present study was aimed to examine the values of Science and Social of Higher secondary school teachers. The research was conducted with a main purpose; to investigate the theoretical values, Economic value, Aesthetic value, Social value and Religious value, among Science and Social Science Higher secondary school teachers. The population of this study consists of 60 Higher Secondary School Teachers (30 Science and 30 Social sciences) were taken from various Higher Secondary Schools of District Baramulla (J&k) INDIA and they were selected by a random sampling technique. The instrument used for data collection was N. Y. Reddy “Indian adaptation of study of value by Allport, Vernon, Lindzey” scale. The data was subjected to statistical analysis by computing Mean, S.D. and test of significance. The results revealed that that there is a significant difference between Science and Social Science Teachers and Science teachers found to have high theoretical value, economical value and Religious value than their counterparts. However, No significant difference was found between Science and Social Science higher secondary teachers on political and social value and Aesthetic value.

Key Words: Science, Social Science, Higher Secondary School Teachers, Baramulla

Introduction
All of us are motivated to move our lives in a certain direction. That motivation is determined by the values we subscribe to. Our values are thus the formation and ideations of thought, the distinct formulation of understanding that express what we

* Associate Professor, Department of Education, University of Kashmir.
perceive to be important truths of life. These ideals are then reinforced by our
emotions and feelings, which turn those mental perception into a vital passion that we
hope to realize in our lives. Whether we actually make the efforts to implement them
is another matter (Maria Myrtle2006).

Values affect and shape the human personality; influence the adjustments of
the individual as well. For healthy development and adjustment it is important that
not only sound values are required or selected, but also those they are rightly ordered.
In fact, of the two aspects of value development, this one is more important. Many of
the ills of the individual and of the societies spring from the failure to distinguish
higher and lower values. Influence of the values and adjustment on job entrance, job
satisfaction and productivity have shown a positive relationship between vocational
out- comes and vocational aspirations a mode of adjustment. A few studies conducted
in the area of personality adjustment by (Nanda, 1957; Kakar, 1964; Patel, 1979; and
Mattoo, 1972) have shown that average adapt man’s happiness depends largely on a
satisfactory vocational adjustment. The same is true of the individual because his
pattern of life is influenced by how much he earns (Hurlock, 1979).

Values serve as standards (White,1968) that we learn to employ
generally across objects and situations in various ways: to guide action; to
guide us to the positions that we take on various social, ideological, political, and
religious issues; to guide self-presentations (Ghoush,977) and impression
management (Tedeschi, Schlenker, and Bonama,1971); to evaluate and judge ourselves
and others by; to compare ourselves with others, not only with respect to competence
(Festinger, 1956), but also with respect to morality six types of values (Allport,1960),
were identified: theoretical, economic, aesthetic, social, political, and religious values.
Every aspect of our life has values. In fact values permeate the role of human existence
and is a major factor in deciding what sort of human beings we are.

Values are the acquired and effective aspects in life, which an individual
internalizes through the process of socialization. Values figure at the core of one’s life
and form the spring of human endeavors. As such they are significant and
fundamental dimensions of human life and indicate how one adheres, attaches and
reacts in life situations or circumstances. Values are also the blueprint or action plans,
which orient and decide the thinking, actions, feelings and behaviour.

From the above discussion a broad and simple working concept of values
could be evolved. Any human actively, thought or idea, feeling sentiments or emotion
which could promote self development of the individual in all its dimensions could be
said to constitute a value. But on the other hand modern age of science and
technology had created certain evils. Inspite of spectacular achievements in science,
man is not happy and contented. Man is still a slave of many undesirable passions. In
the present era, the erosion of values has led to the spread of callous, selfishness,
unlimited greed, bribery narrow-ism, violence and destruction, abuse of human rights,
gross injustice, frustration, dishonesty, nepotism and other such practices from top to bottom are increasing.

It is not the immediate concern of the present study to find out who the education system which has been moulding the outlook of our youth since time immemorial, it will interesting to know briefly how the teachers from different subjects of streams have played an important role in shaping and developing the value system in education. Therefore present study explored the values of higher secondary school teachers of science and social science background. This study guides the psychologists and policy plans while recruiting the teachers and training should be given to them in order to develop a balanced personality, such teachers will inculcate real values away the students at various stages and levels of education which plays a vital role for the development of nation.

Objective of the Study

1. To study the values of Science and Social science Higher Secondary School Teachers
2. To compare the values of Science and Social science Higher secondary school Teachers

Hypothesis

Science and Social science Higher Secondary School Teachers differ significantly on various types of values

Research Design

Sample:

The present study was conducted on 60 Higher Secondary School Teachers (30 Science and 30 Social sciences). were taken from various Higher Secondary Schools of district Baramulla. The sample was collected on the basis of random sampling technique. The sample subjects were consulted at their concerned institutions. The score was done as per the procedure of tool.

Tool:

For the assessment of value N. Y. Reddy “Indian adaptation of study of value by Allport, Vernon, Lindzey” scale administrated on teachers.

This scale measures once relative prominence of six basic interests or motives in personality i.e. Theoretical, Economic, Aesthetic, Social, Political and Religious values. The classification based directly upon Eduard Springer. This scale is in the form of questionnaire which continues to be the most used instrument in educational research.

Statistical Treatment

The data was analysed by applying test of significance in order to find out the difference between two groups on their value pattern.
Analysis and Interpretation

Table 1.1: Shows the Significant Difference between the Mean scores of Science and Social Science Higher Secondary School Teachers on Theoretical values, N= (30 each)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>Level of significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Science Teachers</td>
<td>43.93</td>
<td>7.45</td>
<td>5.81</td>
<td>Significant at 0.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Science Teachers</td>
<td>39.83</td>
<td>6.45</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1.2 Shows the Significant Difference between the Mean scores of Science and Social Science Higher Secondary School Teachers on Economic value, N= (30 each)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>Level of significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Science Teachers</td>
<td>33.33</td>
<td>6.33</td>
<td>1.99</td>
<td>Significant at 0.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Science Teachers</td>
<td>35.16</td>
<td>5.75</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The above table shows the mean comparison of science and social science higher secondary school teachers on Economic value. The table reveals that the two groups differ significantly on Economic value. The table further indicates that Mean value favours the Social science teachers, which reflects that the Social Science teachers have higher Economic value than Science Teachers.

Table 1.3 Shows the Significant Difference between the Mean scores of Science and Social Science Higher Secondary School Teachers on Aesthetic value, N= (30 each)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>Level of significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Science Teachers</td>
<td>43.86</td>
<td>7.18</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>Not Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Science Teachers</td>
<td>43.70</td>
<td>7.45</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The above table shows the mean comparison of science and social science higher secondary school teachers on Aesthetic value. The table reveals that the two groups do not differ significantly on Aesthetic value. The table further indicates that both the groups have similar Aesthetic value.

Table 1.4 Shows the Significant Difference between the Mean scores of Science and Social Science Higher Secondary School Teachers on Social value, N= (30 each)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>Level of significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Science Teachers</td>
<td>44.6</td>
<td>7.87</td>
<td>0.94</td>
<td>Not Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Science Teachers</td>
<td>45.96</td>
<td>7.85</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
A Study of Values of Science and Social Science Higher Secondary School Teachers of District.

The above table shows the mean comparison of science and social science higher secondary school teachers on Social value. The table reveals that the two groups do not differ significantly on Social value. The table further indicates that both the groups have similar Aesthetic value.

Table 1.5 Shows the Significant Difference between the Mean scores of Science and Social Science Higher Secondary School Teachers on Political value, N= (30 each)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>Level of significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Science Teachers</td>
<td>31.9</td>
<td>5.44</td>
<td>0.62</td>
<td>Not Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Science Teachers</td>
<td>32.86</td>
<td>6.45</td>
<td>0.62</td>
<td>Not Significant</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The above table shows the mean comparison of science and social science higher secondary school teachers on Political value. The table reveals that the two groups do not differ significantly on Social value. The table further indicates that both the groups have similar Political value.

Table 1.6 Shows the Significant Difference between the Mean scores of Science and Social Science Higher Secondary School Teachers on Religious value, N= (30 each)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>Level of significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Science Teachers</td>
<td>39.36</td>
<td>5.64</td>
<td>2.31</td>
<td>Significant at 0.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Science Teachers</td>
<td>43.06</td>
<td>6.75</td>
<td>2.31</td>
<td>Significant at 0.01</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The above table shows the mean comparison of science and social science higher secondary school teachers on Religious value. The table reveals that the two groups differ significantly on Theoretical value. The table further indicates that Mean value favours the social science teachers, which reflects that the Social science teachers have higher Religious value than social Science Teachers.

Conclusion

The study was conducted on Science and Social Science higher secondary teachers. The following conclusion has been drawn from the present study.

1. Significant difference was found between Science and Social Science higher secondary teachers on theoretical value. The Science teachers have high theoretical value than their counterparts.
2. On economic value a significant difference was found between Science and Social Science higher secondary teachers on economic value. The Social Science teachers have high economical value than their counterparts.
3. No significant difference was found between Science and Social Science higher secondary teachers on Aesthetic value.
4. No significant difference was found between Science and Social Science higher secondary teachers on political and social value.

5. A significant difference was found between Science and Social Science higher secondary teachers on religious value. The Social Science teachers have high Religious value than their counterparts.

Reference:
PERSONALITY CHARACTERISTICS OF WOMEN EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATORS IN RELATION TO LENGTH OF SERVICE

Irshad Ahmad Kumar∗
Mohammad Iqbal Mattoo**

Abstract
The main purpose of the study was to investigate the personality characteristics of women educational administrators in relation to length of service. A sample of 300 women educational administrators were randomly selected 150 each from Srinagar and Anantnag districts. Sixteen Personality Factor (16PF) Questionnaire developed by R. B. Cattell was used to collect the data. The collected data was subjected to various statistical treatments like Mean, S.D and Test of significance to reach the definite conclusions. The results of the study reveal some interesting conclusions. The junior and senior women educational administrators differ significantly on fourteen (14) Factors of 16PF i.e. factor ‘A’, ‘B’, ‘C’, ‘E’ ‘F’, ‘G’, ‘H’, ‘L’, ‘M’, ‘N’, ‘O’, ‘Q₁’, ‘Q₂’ and ‘Q₄’ whereas no significant difference was found on two (2) Factors i.e. factor ‘I’ and factor ‘Q₅’ of 16 Personality Factors.

Key Words: Personality Characteristics, Women Educational Administrators, Length of Service.

Introduction
The process of education has been going on since times immemorial. Changes in the society have always desired a changed system of education. So, new techniques are being adopted in education to meet the needs of society. The institutions are, first
of all, setup and then through the efforts of the administration, are made to function keeping in view the aims and objectives fixed up by the society. The better the educational administration, the better are its outcomes. The need for modernizing and strengthening educational administration in India has been emphasized by a number of committees and commissions including the Indian Education Commission of 1964-66. While education has expanded a great deal, the administrative bodies and methods have remained more or less unchanged. Today’s success is a complex. Fast changing environment also demands a new kind of leadership at all levels. Creative problem solving, vision, strategic thinking, encouraging and inspiring others, creative and getting things done through networks of relationships both within and outside the organization, working in teams and task forces, communication effectively with a wide variety of people is success indicators. These success indicators are increasingly becoming part of the leader’s performance expectations (Shultz, 2000).

Administrator in an educational institution has to perform two major functions: Firstly, he is the principal of the school and secondly, he needs to continuously reshape his organization. The principal of a school is not only to be an administrator but an educational statesman too. He has to achieve immediate objectives of the organization and also to plan long range development and growth of the institution. He is not only to implement the educational policies framed by the powers that be, but also is expect to suggest the changes in the policies (Gupta, 1987). Smooth operation of an educational institution requires competent administrators. Principals provide instructional leadership as well as manage day to day activities in schools. They also direct the educational programmes and community service organizations. Educational administrators set educational standards and goals and establish the policies and procedures to carry them out. They also supervise and support staff, teachers, Liberians and others. They develop academic programmes, monitor student’s educational progress, administer record keeping, prepare budgets, handle relations with parents, students and the community, and perform many other duties.

A number of research studies have been conducted by various investigators in the field of personality factors. (Chambers, et al., 2001; Feather and Volkmer, 1991; Dembroski and Costa, 1987). Educational administration is concerned with the development of human personality. It takes into account life as a whole ranging from childhood to manhood. Shirmard, et al. (2013) found a direct relationship between personality types and leadership styles. Ali, et al. (2011) revealed that there exists a positive relationship between principal’s personality characteristics of introversion and extroversion and performance dimensions. Popoola and Ilugbo (2010) found that personality traits were not substantial predictors of the level of stress experienced female teachers in Osun State Teaching Service. Ahadi, B. and Narimani, M. (2010) found that there was a significant positive correlation between conscientiousness, extroversion and openness to experience, agreeableness and educational performance. Sofal, F. A. (2010) found that rural and urban dichotomy affects the personality
Personality Characteristics of Women Educational Administrators in Relation to Length of Service

characteristics of educational administrators. Easwari, (2004) found that there is no low position relationship between administrative responsibility and all the personality factors. The above mentioned studies on personality characteristics cannot be conclusive. They need further depth investigation and hence in the light of this the present study is designed to investigate the personality profiles of women educational administrators in relation to length of service.

Objectives

The following objectives were formulated for the present study:

1. To study the personality characteristics of women educational administrators.
2. To compare the personality characteristics of women educational administrators on the basis of length of service.

Hypothesis

The following hypotheses were formulated for the present study:

Junior women educational administrators differ significantly from senior women educational administrators on personality characteristics.

Operational Definitions of Terms and Variables

Personality Characteristics: Personality characteristics in the present investigation have been considered in the light of the viewpoints given by Cattell (1956). The operational definition reads as:

“A cluster of 16 distinct dimensions or traits of personality factors arranged in a bipolar manner and measured through Cattell’s 16 Personality Factor Questionnaire”.

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.

Methodology

Sample

A sample of 300 women educational administrators (150 each from Srinagar and Anantnag districts) working at government middle schools were selected randomly for the study.

Tools

The investigator employed the Sixteen Personality Factor (16PF) Questionnaire of Raymond B. Cattell. This tool covers the 16 Personality Factors viz: Factor ‘A’ Cool

Statistical Treatment of Data

The collected data was subjected to the statistical treatment by using mean, S. D. and test of significance. The details are given in the following table:

Table 1.0: Showing the Significance of difference between the Mean scores of Junior and Senior Women Educational Administrators on each of 16 Personality Factors (N=150, each group).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>*Group</th>
<th>**SS</th>
<th>Factors</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
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<tr>
<td></td>
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<td>B</td>
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<td>E</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>G</td>
<td>H</td>
<td>I</td>
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<tr>
<td>JWEA</td>
<td></td>
<td>4.92</td>
<td>5.58</td>
<td>4.12</td>
<td>4.92</td>
<td>3.66</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>1.63</td>
<td>1.76</td>
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<td>1.59</td>
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<tr>
<td>SWEA</td>
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<td>5.74</td>
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<td>5.02</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>1.68</td>
<td>1.45</td>
<td>1.77</td>
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<td>1.91</td>
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<td>5.86</td>
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<td>0.01 level</td>
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<tr>
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<td>5.54</td>
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<td>0.01 level</td>
<td>Insignificant</td>
<td>0.05 level</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Index:
*Group: JWEA: Junior Women Educational Administrators. SWEA: Senior Women Educational Administrators
** SS: Statistical Significance
Interpretation of the Results

Data analysis and interpretation is a process of assigning meaning to the collected facts and determining the conclusions, significance, and implications of the findings. The information collected was put to suitable statistical analysis in order to arrive at definite conclusions. The detailed analysis is given below:

A perusal of table 1.0 shows the significance of difference between the mean scores of junior and senior women educational administrators on Sixteen (16) Personality Factors. The detailed discussion is given below:

On Factor- ‘A’ (*Cool vs. Warm*) of 16 Personality Factors the mean score in case of senior women educational administrators is reported to be 5.74, whereas the junior women educational administrators have obtained mean score of 4.92. The obtained ‘t’-value came out to be 4.31 which is significant at 0.01 level (P>=0.01). From these results it can be inferred that senior women educational administrators seem to be good matured, easy going and kindly adoptable (A+). Whereas junior women educational administrators are reported to be impersonal, detached and working alone. They are likely to be precise and rigid in their way of doing things (A-).

On Factor- ‘B’ (*Concrete-th thinking vs. Abstract-th thinking*) of 16 Personality Factors the mean score of senior women educational administrators is reported to be higher (M=6.41) than junior women educational administrators (M=5.58). The obtained ‘t’-value came out to be 4.61 which is significant at 0.01 level (P>0.01). On the basis of these results it can be said that senior women educational administrators
tend to be quick to grasp ideas, fast in learning and more intelligent (B+). Whereas junior women educational administrators are reported to be slow in learning and grasping of things (B-).

On Factor- ‘C’ (Emotionally Less Stable vs. Emotionally Stable) of 16 Personality Factors the senior women educational administrators scored a higher mean value (M=5.31) as compared to junior women educational administrators who are reported to have obtained a low mean score (M=4.12). The obtained ‘t’ - value came out to be 5.95 which is significant at 0.01 level (P>0.01). From these results it can be said that senior women educational administrators tends to be emotionally mature, stable, and realistic about life (C+), whereas junior women educational administrators tend to be low in frustration, tolerance for unsatisfactory conditions, changeable and plastic (C-).

On Factor- ‘E’ (Submissive vs. Dominant) of 16 Personality Factors the mean score in case of senior women educational administrators is reported to be higher (M= 6.17) than the mean score of junior women educational administrators (M= 4.92). The obtained ‘t’- value came out to be 6.25 which is significant at 0.01 level (P>0.01). On the basis of these results it can be said that senior women educational administrators are assertive, aggressive, self-assured and independent minded (E+). Whereas junior women educational administrators are dependent, humble, mild, confessing, anxious for obsessional correctness (E-).

On Factor- ‘F’ (Sober vs. Enthusiastic) of 16 Personality Factors the results reveal that the two groups of women educational administrators differ significantly at 0.01 level (‘t’- value = 6.8; P>0.01). The mean score in case of senior women educational administrators is reported to be 5.02 in comparison to junior women educational administrators (M= 3.66). The results further reveal that senior women educational administrators tend to be cheerful, active, frank and expressive (F+), whereas junior women educational administrators tend to be restrained, reticent and introspective. They are sometimes seen to be pessimistic and dependable on others (F-).

On Factor- ‘G’ (Expedient vs. Conscientious) of 16 Personality Factors the mean score in case of senior women educational administrators is reported to be (M = 6.71) than the mean score of junior women educational administrators (M = 5.42). The obtained ‘t’- value came out to be 5.86 which is significant at 0.01 level (P>0.01). On the basis of these results it can be inferred that senior women educational administrators tend to be exact in character, dominated by sense of duty, responsible planful (G+). Whereas junior women educational administrators tend to be unsteady in purpose. They are often casual and lack in effort for group undertaking and cultural demands (G-).

On Factor- ‘H’ (Shy vs. Bold) of 16 Personality Factors senior women educational administrators scored a higher mean value (M= 6.03) than the junior
women educational administrators who are reported to have obtained a low mean score (M= 4.15). The obtained ‘t’- value came out to be 6.63 which is significant at 0.01 (P>0.01). On the basis of results it can be inferred that senior women educational administrators are sociable, bold, spontaneous and abundant in emotional response (H+). Whereas junior women educational administrators tend to be shy, withdrawing and cautious. They have usually inferiority feelings. They dislike occupations with personal contacts (H-).

On Factor- ‘I’ (Tough-minded vs. Tender-minded) of 16 Personality Factors it has been found that the mean score in case of senior women educational administrators is reported to be higher (M = 5.14) whereas, the mean score in case of junior women educational administrators it is reported to be low (M = 4.77). The obtained ‘t’- value came out to be 1.85 which is not significant. The results further reveal that neither of the groups is tough-minded nor tender-minded.

On Factor- ‘L’ (Trusting vs. Suspicious) of 16 Personality Factors it has been observed that senior women educational administrators scored a high mean value (M = 7.71) in comparison to junior women administrators who scored a low mean value (M = 6.54). The obtained ‘t’- value came out to be 5.85 which is significant at 0.01 level (P>0.01). On the basis of these results it can be inferred that senior educational women administrators tend to be mistrusting and doubtful. They are often involved in their own egos and are self-opinionated and interested in internal mental life (L+). Whereas junior women educational administrators tend to be free from jealous tendencies; and are adoptable, cheerful and usually willing to take a chance with people (L-).

On Factor- ‘M’ (Practical vs. Imaginative) of 16 Personality Factors it has been found that the mean score in case of senior women educational administrators is 6.27 than junior women educational administrators (M = 5.08). The obtained ‘t’- value came out to be 4.95 which is significant at 0.01 level (P>0.01). On the basis of these results it can be inferred that senior women educational administrators tend to be unconventional, unconcerned over day to day matters. They are self-motivated, imaginatively creative, concerned with essentials (M+). Whereas junior women educational administrators tend to be anxious to do right things, they are concerned over detail, keep their heads in emergencies, but are sometimes imaginative (M-).

On Factor- ‘N’ (Forthright vs. Shrewd) of 16 Personality Factors the mean score in case of senior women educational administrators is reported to be 7.61, whereas the mean score in case of junior women educational administrators is found to be 5.81. The calculated ‘t’- value came out to be 6.92 which is significant at 0.01 level (P>0.01). The results further reveal that senior women educational administrators tend to be polished, experienced and shrewd. Their approach to people and problems is usually perceptive, hard-headed and efficient (N+). Whereas, junior women educational administrators have a lot of natural warmth and a genuine liking for people, they are uncomplicated, sentimental and unvarnished in their approach to people (N-).
On Factor- ‘O’ (Self-assured vs. Apprehensive) of 16 Personality Factors the results reveal that mean score in case of senior women educational administrators is reported to be 6.86, whereas junior women educational administrators are reported to have a mean score of 5.79 level. The calculated ‘t’- value came out to be 5.94 which is significant at 0.01 level (P>0.01). On the basis of these results it can be said that senior women administrators have strong sense of obligation and high expectations of themselves. They tend to be worry and feel anxious (O+). Similarly, junior women administrators tend to be unruffled and to have unshakable nerve. They have a mature, un-anxious confidence in themselves and capacity to deal with the things (O).

On Factor- ‘Q1’ (Conservative vs. Experimenting) of 16 Personality Factors the mean score in case of senior women educational administrators is found to be (M = 6.92), whereas the junior women educational administrators are reported to have a mean value of (M = 5.54). The obtained ‘t’- value came out to be 7.26 which is significant at 0.01 level (P>0.01). The results further reveal that senior women educational administrators tend to be interesting in intellectual matters and have doubts on fundamental is- sues. They are critical and inquiring regarding ideas, either old/new (Q1+). In the same way, junior women educational administrators are confident in what they have been taught to believe and accept the ‘tried and true’ even when something else might be better (Q1-).

On Factor- ‘Q2’ (Group-oriented vs. Self-sufficient) of 16 Personality Factor the calculated ‘t’- value came out to be 4.12 which is significant at 0.01 level (P>0.01). The mean score in case of senior women educational administrators is reported to be 6.11 as compared to junior women educational administrators (M= 5.12). On the basis of these results it can be said that senior women educational administrators are temperamentally independent, accustomed to go in their own way, making decisions and taking action on their own (Q2+), whereas junior women educational administrators prefer to work and make decisions with other people. They are also seen to be depending on social approval and admiration (Q2-).

On Factor- ‘Q3’ (Undisciplined self-conflict vs. Following self-image) of 16 Personality Factors the results reveal that senior women educational administrators obtained higher mean value (M = 5.93) than junior women educational administrators (M = 5.63). The calculated ‘t’- value came out to be 1.2 which failed to arrive at any level of significance. Hence it can be inferred that junior and senior administrators are similar in Q3 factor of 16 Personality Factors.

On Factor ‘Q4’ (Relaxed vs. Tense) of 16 Personality Factors the mean score of senior women educational administrators is reported to be higher (M= 5.58) than junior women educational administrator (M = 5.19). The obtained ‘t’- value came out to be 2.05 which is significant at 0.05 level (P>0.05). On the basis of these results it can be said that senior women educational administrators tend to be tense, restless, fretful, impatient, and hard driving. They are often fatigued, but unable to remain inactive...
Personality Characteristics of Women Educational Administrators in Relation to Length of ....

(Q_4^+). Whereas, junior women educational administrators tend to be sedative relaxed, composed and satisfied. In some situations their over satisfaction can lead to laziness and low performance (Q_4^-).

Discussion of Results

While analyzing the personality profiles of junior and senior women educational administrators it has been found that the two groups of women educational administrators differ significantly on fourteen (14) factors of 16 PF. These factors are: Factor - A; Factor - B; Factor - C; Factor - E; Factor - F; Factor - G; Factor - H; Factor - L; Factor - M; Factor - N; Factor - O; Factor - Q_1; Factor - Q_2; and Factor - Q_4; and are similar on two (02) factors i.e. Factor - I, and Factor - Q_3. This implies that senior women educational administrators tend to be warm, outgoing, adaptable, soft-hearted, emotionally stable, mature, calm, dominant, assertive, self-assured, independent minded, bossy, enthusiastic, cheerful, active, talkative, frank, conscientious, responsible, persevering, moralistic, bold, spontaneous, sociable, uninhibited, suspicious, mistrusting, doubtful, skeptical, imaginative, self-motivated, impractical, shrewd, socially aware, experienced, diplomatic, apprehensive, self-blaming, insecure, worrying, experimenting, liberal, critical, self-sufficient, resourceful, prefer own decisions, following self-image, socially precise, compulsive, tense, frustrated, restless, fretful and hard driving. The data further revealed that junior women educational administrators tend to be cool, reserved, impersonal, affected by feelings, emotionally less stable, submissive, humble, mild, easy led, accommodating, sober, restrained, prudent, serious, expedient, disregards rules, self-indulgent, shy, timid, hesitant, intimidated, trusting, accepting conditions uncompetitive, practical, steady, attentive to practical matters, forthright, unpretentious, artless, self-assured, secure, self-satisfied, untroubled, conservative, respecting traditional idea, group-oriented, listens to others, sound follower, undisciplined self-conflict, careless to social rules, relaxed, tranquil, composed and un-frustrated. However, the study further revealed that the two groups of women educational administrators (junior and senior) are similar on Factor I and Factor Q_3.

In order to sum up the above discussion on personality profiles of junior and senior women educational administrators it has been found that senior women educational administrators were better than junior women educational administrators in most of the 16 personality factors. The findings are in conformity with the findings of other researchers (Shirmard, et al., 2013; Ali, et al., 2011; Ahadi, B. and Narimani, M. 2010; Sofal, F. A. 2010; Easwari, 2004; Chambers et al., 2001; Dembroski and Costa, 1987; and Feather and Volkmer, 1991). Shirmard, et al. (2013) found a direct relationship between personality types and leadership styles. Ali, et al. (2011) concluded that there exists a positive relationship between principal’s personality characteristics of introversion and extroversion and performance dimensions. Ahadi, B. and Narimani, M. (2010) found that there was a significant positive correlation
between conscientiousness, extroversion and openness to experience, agreeableness and educational performance. Sofal, F. A. (2010) found that length of service affects the personality characteristics of educational administrators. Easwari, (2004) found that there is close relationship between administrative responsibility and all the personality factors. The findings of present study reveal that length of service affects the personality profiles of women educational administrators.

Conclusions

On the basis of analysis, interpretation and discussion of results following major conclusions have been drawn:


The study further concludes that junior and senior women educational administrators do not differ significantly on Factor ‘I’ (Tough-minded vs. Tender-minded) and Factor ‘Q3’ (Undisciplined self-conflict vs. Following self-image) of 16 Personality Factors. It can be further revealed that both the groups of administrators were similar on these two factors.

It was also found that the mean scores of senior women educational administrators were found higher than the mean scores of junior women educational administrators in all the 16 Personality Factors.

References


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Abstract

Mathematics education usually concentrates on achievement in cognitive domain. However, affect of a person also is important in cognitive tasks as it influences task choice, effort and perseverance. Affect would reflect in the end product also. This study analyzes students’ likes and dislikes, motivational beliefs, learning strategies and their perceptions regarding the difficulties in learning mathematics. The data were collected from 178 standard nine students (90 boys and 88 girls) from Malappuram and Kozhikode districts of Kerala using difficulties in learning mathematics questionnaire. Percentage analysis and chi square test were used to analyze data. Despite recognizing importance of mathematics, most of the students perceive the subject as difficult and boring, and possess a belief that mathematics is not in their reach, and only people with high intelligence can learn mathematics. Most of the students follow surface learning strategies. Based on the students’ perception, the study counsels educators for managing the affective factors in mathematics teaching-learning process, with focus on motivational beliefs, interest and anxiety. Suggestions are made on the basis of the observed interrelations among the affective beliefs of students.

Keywords: Mathematics teaching, learning, affective beliefs, difficulties in learning mathematics.

*Professor, Department of Education, University of Calicut
"** Senior Research Fellow, Department of Education, University of Calicut
Introduction

Mathematical literacy is vital to all individuals for a better living, so mathematics plays an important role in the school curriculum. For reasons including knowledge of mathematics being important for the learning of all other subjects like sciences, and its practical value, we all give importance for achievement in mathematics especially in cognitive domain. Many students feel learning of mathematics as difficult. Mathematics learning is known for demanding relatively more cognitive abilities and associated instructional and learning efforts. Usually schools, teachers and parents pay attention to cognitive aspect of learning mathematics. However, management of instruction and learning in mathematics is not usually discussed from an affective perspective. Learning outcomes whether cognitive or affective, including of maths, results from the experiences.

Hence all learning experiences, within and without classrooms and in and out of schools, needs to be cared for when seeking answers to problems which persist even after concerted efforts, as the case is with maths learning in schools. Learning experiences, intellectual and emotional, should be managed in ways that improve learning and its horizontal and vertical transfer. This paper reports findings from an exploration of children’s affective responses towards mathematics and the implications thereof to management of children’s in and out of classroom affective experiences related to maths.

Significance of exploring affective Beliefs in Managing Maths Learning

“Children’s feeling about mathematics, aspects of the classroom such as teacher-student relationships, or their perception of themselves as learners of mathematics” (Reyes, 1984) constitutes affective factors in maths learning. To be good in learning mathematics, effort is needed from the part of students to master the contents in each standard. Effort of students is determined by their affect. Only when they have sufficient interest and motivation students will take effort. Children’s feelings about mathematics include their attitudes, subjective beliefs like expectancy value, task value, self-efficacy, epistemological beliefs and goal orientations. Development of positive attitude towards maths study is valuable as it further the future effort, learning and development in that area. Attitude towards mathematics is a complex of negative or positive emotions that associate with mathematics, individual beliefs towards mathematics and their behaviour associate with mathematics (Hart, 1989). Individual beliefs are subjective conceptions of students, may be implicit or explicit, and thought to be true, that influence their learning (Op’tEynde, De Corte &Verschaffel, 2002). Expectancy value, task value, self efficacy, epistemological beliefs and goal orientations are identified as affective beliefs that having influence on mathematics outcomes.
Self-efficacy is a person’s perception about his ability to reach the goal (Bandura, 1977). Self-efficacy does not represent one’s ability, but his beliefs; it affects achievement through the selection of task and effort. Expectancies for success are defined as one’s beliefs about the success of his or her performance on an upcoming task (Eccles et al, 1983). When a number of electives are available, one will choose a task with more success expectation and value. Task value beliefs are “beliefs about the importance of, interest in, and value of the task” (Pintrich, 1999). Epistemological beliefs are beliefs held by students about the nature of knowledge and its acquisition. Epistemic beliefs of students are known to influence the nature of achievement goals, learning strategies and student achievement (Muis, 2008; Muis & Franco, 2009; Trautwein & Ludtke, 2007). It is the teachers’ duty to manage the classroom in such a way as to develop positive beliefs in students. This study is an exploration of select affective beliefs, emotions and learning strategies held by high school students in learning mathematics to know, how well the expected quality of mathematics education is met in affective perspective.

**Objective**

This study aims to identify the difficulties felt by students in learning mathematics, students’ affective reasons for disliking mathematics and to know how the teacher and teaching style and students’ motivational beliefs are related to students’ liking of subject and expectancy about its difficulty. Based on data, need for, nature and areas of affective management of mathematics teaching learning process are discussed.

**Methodology**

1.1. **Participants**

Participants were 178 standard nine students (90 boys and 88 girls) from Malappuram and Kozhikode districts of Kerala. Students’ willingness to be a part in the study is obtained before starting the survey.

1.2. **Instrument**

Difficulties in learning mathematics questionnaire is administered to obtain data on students’ likes and dislikes, motivational beliefs, learning strategies and their perceptions regarding difficulties in learning mathematics. This questionnaire includes open ended as well as scaled items.

1.3. **Procedure**

After creating rapport with students, and giving reassurance on anonymity and ensuring their willingness to provide the data, approximately fifty minutes were allowed for completing the questionnaire with factual clarification from the administrator wherever required.
1.4. Data Analysis

Categorization of student perceptions, Percentage analysis and \( \chi^2 \) test of independence and mapping of the student perception of mathematics and their interrelationships were used to draw findings.

Results

1. **Vast majority of students value maths learning, but a considerable proportion is yet to realise it**

   Almost 97% of students agree that they need to learn math for different reasons like, to use in daily life, for higher education, to use in next standards, and to get their favourite jobs. They are agreeing that, everywhere in daily life, we need math. But 11% of students do not have any personal values attached with math learning due to disliking and inability in learning and understanding it. Almost all students (98%) agree that the materials learned in mathematics will be useful in more or less; but only 15% are well aware of the use of the content that they learn in math. A higher portion of students (66%) are valuing learning subject other than math.

2. **Students have clear perception of maths than other subjects, whether positive or negative**

   Mathematics is the most liked (24%) and the most disliked subject (20.78%) for good share of grade 9 students. More students have clear perception of maths, whether positive or negative, than about other school subjects. Maths is clearly preferred as well as abhorred by most number of students. The second place goes for Malayalam in case of preferred subject and for English and Physics in case of disliked subject. Students’ reasons for liking mathematics are it is an easy subject, easily and well understanding, easy to learn, interesting, no need of writing notes, we use it everywhere in daily life. Students’ reasons to dislike mathematics were difficulty in understanding math, difficult to learn, and material once learned by them are forgotten easily, bad teacher and teaching style.

3. **Mathematics is difficult but interesting for students if teaching and teacher’s style is liked by them**

   Some students reported that though Mathematics is difficult to understand, it is interesting. And it is found that rating of their teacher and teaching style (good or bad) influences very much in their selection of liked or disliked subject. As they cannot follow the teacher, they dislike the subject. While 63 % students like mathematics, 37 % dislike Mathematics. Students who like their mathematics teachers tend to like mathematics \( [\chi^2(1, N=178) =14.71, p<0.01] \). At the same time, 57% of students perceive themselves as not good in math. Their reasons for bad performance are difficulty in learning math, difficulty in understanding math, forgetting and bad teaching. Some are performing well in class but they can’t do the same in exams. These
students are using blind strategies like by-hearting equations or learning only the class notes.

4. **Students perceive difficulty in learning maths as mostly related to cognitive factors, but their affect also significantly influence it**

   The most frequent factors, identified by students, that make difficulty in learning math are lack of previous knowledge (69%), rapid forgetting (59%), difficulty in understanding math (37%), lack of family members to help in learning process (34%), do not know how to learn math (30%), inability in learning math (28%), difficulty of mathematics as a subject (26%), lack of hard work (24%), and can’t understand the class (13%). Those who lack previous knowledge tends to have feeling of mathematics as a difficult subject [\( \chi^2(3, N=178) = 10.69, p<0.05 \)]. Moreover, the most frequent factors that make math learning easy are very good teaching (75%), liking math (38%), tuition (27%), simplicity of math (20%), and ease to understand (16%). Eight percent of the students responded that mathematics is not at all easy by any reason. Significantly more number of students who feel mathematics as difficult tends to dislike mathematics (81%) than those who feel mathematics as easy (11%) [\( \chi^2(1, N=178) = 82.35, p<0.01 \)].

   Among the students, 36% perceive math as a very difficult subject, 40% as comparatively difficult and 24% as an easy subject. Most of the students (84%) find Algebra as difficult area rather than Geometry (10%). One in four (28%) of students believe that they cannot learn math. Many students (64%) are taking effort to solve a problem only if they feel it as easy. When confronting with a difficult problem, 40% of students leave the problem with more or less effort, only 55% seeking help from others. In case of retrieving or using previous knowledge, 74% are unable or rarely able to retrieve and use previous knowledge. 54% of students are unable to solve problems in textbooks themselves.

5. **Student disinterest and dislike towards maths is mostly related to their blind beliefs, especially math-fear and low self-efficacy**

   A good portion of students (68%) are in agreement with learning of math is interesting, but 27% of students find mathematics as a boring subject. One in five (22%) students believes that they can’t succeed in math. Some blind beliefs held by students include the following. Only people with high intelligence can learn math (15%), math learning is influenced more or less by inborn ability (54%), a person’s chance for failing or succeeding in math is fixed (17%), and math should be learnt by heart (46%). 17% of students have intense fear and 61% has an average level of fear regarding math, 85% of students reported that they are forgetting equations due to fear. And the students are trying to escape from math related situations.

   Liking math affects students’ expectancy related behaviours, feeling of interest or boredom, self-efficacy, task value, epistemological beliefs, and fear. Most of the
students who like mathematics found interest in learning maths (85%) than those who dislike maths (27%) \( \chi^2(1, N=178) =82.15, p<0.01 \). However, significant more number of students who dislike maths has a feeling of boredom (56%) than the students who like maths (21%) \( \chi^2(1, N=178) =46.49, p<0.01 \). Students’ likes toward mathematics is significantly affected by their self-efficacy for learning maths \( \chi^2(1, N=178) =17.21, p<0.01 \). That is, students who like mathematics has self-efficacy (72%) and those who dislike tends to do not have self-efficacy (46%). And, it is found that task value is significantly associated to liking of the subject \( \chi^2(1, N=178) =8.5, p<0.05 \) in a way that as they like math they are valuing the task. Significant more number of students who do not like math tends to hold negative epistemological beliefs; like, every one can’t learn math (70%) \( \chi^2(1, N=178) =9.6, p<0.01 \), hard work will not improve learning of math\( \chi^2(2, N=178) =20.91, p<0.01 \), only people with high intelligence can learn math \( \chi^2(2, N=178) =9.31, p<0.01 \).

6. Feeling difficult affects students’ liking of math which in turn impact their strategies, effort and perseverance

Feeling mathematics as a difficult subject affects not only their liking of math but also their expectancy behaviour, perseverance, interest and boredom, self-efficacy beliefs, epistemological beliefs and fear. It is also found that lack of previous knowledge is significantly related to feeling of difficulty. Significant more number of students who feel mathematics as difficult are not trying to solve a problem if they are not expecting a success (56%) \( \chi^2(1, N=178) =5.05, p<0.05 \). Significant more number of students who feel mathematics as difficult shows perseverance and help seeking (82%) than who feel mathematics as difficult (29%) \( \chi^2(3, N=178) =21.49, p<0.01 \). Students who feel mathematics as difficult tends to have low interest in learning math (68%) significantly more than those who feel maths as easy (10%) \( \chi^2(1, N=178) =62.54, p<0.01 \), and students who feel mathematics as difficult tends to feel boredom in mathematics (51%) significantly more than those who feel it as not difficult (12%) \( \chi^2(1, N=178) =30.51, p<0.01 \). Students’ self-efficacy beliefs is significantly dependent on their feeling of difficulty in mathematics \( \chi^2(1, N=178) =15.17, p<0.01 \). Despite these, significant more number of students who feel mathematics as difficult hold beliefs like no effect for hard work \( \chi^2(2, N=178) =16.83, p<0.01 \), “I never understand maths” \( \chi^2(2, N=178) =22.92, p<0.01 \), fixed faith \( \chi^2(1, N=178) =6.32, p<0.05 \) and only people with high intelligence can learn mathematics \( \chi^2(2, N=178) =20.61, p<0.01 \). Regardless of these, when the students have a feeling of difficulty there are feeling of fear also \( \chi^2(2, N=178) =34.4, p<0.01 \).And students who reported themselves as backward in maths tend to follow blind strategies like learning equations or class notes only \( \chi^2(2, N=178) =12.58, p<0.01 \).
Discussion

Almost all students accept the utility value of mathematics, but a significant number of students grant less personal value for it because of difficulty in learning or understanding it. That is, they comprehend the utility of mathematics but don’t know where and how to use the particular concept. Cost value belief has shown the same trend. Students believe that learning of other subjects will be profitable than learning of mathematics. If the difficulty beliefs of students regarding mathematics were high, they try to stave off mathematics in spite of its practical value owing to low personal value along with high cost value.

It is interesting that, mathematics is on the top of most liked and most disliked subjects for secondary school students. This is among all nine school subjects, including languages, sciences, social sciences and information technology. From the school perspective, students’ likes or dislikes towards a subject is mostly determined by their likes or dislikes towards the teacher. Most of the students’ most liked subject is, the subject that taught by their best teacher. That is attitude towards teacher (liking or disliking) is directly linked to liking of the subject. And when they like math teacher, they have interest in math and are not feeling boredom in learning it. And as to the reason for mathematics learning being easy, the most students report good teaching. These imply the influential role of teacher. It is clear from the result that the role of teacher can’t be replaced by any other means. Teacher effectiveness is a contributing variable to students like or dislike towards the subject. Students perceive good teaching as the factor that makes mathematics learning easy. And, instead of their roles, students find teachers’ role as more important in their learning. There are previous researches that demonstrated teachers’ interest in the subject and interpersonal behavior are contributing to students’ learning motivation (Lapointe, Legault & Batiste, 2005; Skinner & Belmont, 1993).

Students mostly pointed forgetting as the reason for disliking and feeling of difficulty in mathematics. Forgetting may occur for different reasons like ineffective coding, decay, interference, retrieval failure. Most of these problems can be overcome by proper coding or by improving the encoding process. Students’ use of learning strategies has a crucial role in this. Student motivation also has a positive correlation in the retrieval of the learned material.

Students mostly cite lack of previous knowledge, rapid forgetting and difficulty in understanding mathematics as the reasons for difficulty in learning mathematics. These reasons are closest one another. Lacking previous knowledge means they have forgotten the content. And, it also means learning of subsequent content will suffer due to lack of basics. This is also pointing to the inefficiency of students’ learning strategy as we have discussed in the preceding section and their inability to see the interconnections between topics.
The most evident reason for feeling difficulty in math learning is the lack of previous knowledge and quick forgetting of learned material. These implies that students follow blind strategies for learning, and they are not taking the learning seriously. They learn it for a short time goal, only to pass exams. Students should be given a clear picture about the interconnection between current topic with those they had learn and with those they have to learn. This will improve the understanding about the topic and of course task value beliefs.

Most of the students’ disadvantageous beliefs found related to their dislike and feeling of difficulty in mathematics; and their favorable beliefs found related to likes and feeling that mathematics is not a difficult subject. Though we can’t say definitely which one is determining the other, of course beliefs will have more deep roots. As the students attested that teacher is is important in creating likes and feeling of ease about mathematics, teacher can improve students’ learning by guiding their beliefs through proper interpersonal relationship and by using teaching learning strategies that take care of affective factors as well as cognitive factors.

There is strong association between students’ belief regarding the difficulty of math and dislike towards math, and these two are associated to lower interest, higher boredom and low perseverance. That is, dislike and feeling of difficulty causes for negative reactions from students. Whereas liking of subject and absence of the feeling of difficulty are affected by higher self-efficacy, good task value, and positive epistemological beliefs. The same is found by Zan and Martino (2008) that if the students can do math they like it, otherwise they dislike it.

In the light of these findings we call for teachers’ attention on students’ feelings and beliefs in mathematics learning. The identified difficulties are lack of previous knowledge, difficulty in understanding math, students’ perception about teacher and teaching style; do not know how to learn math, blind beliefs and fear. These are mostly need to be managed by teachers; it includes cognitive and affective management. Students need cognitive as well as affective instruction as shown in Figure 1.

The diagram gives a pictorial representation of interconnection between beliefs, likes and dislikes, and reasons for these. It highlights the factors to be improved from the cognitive and affective aspects in learners.

Management in the cognitive part includes making basics in students; make the teaching in the understanding level of students. Also learning groups can be set in the classroom. Prior to starting a unit; activities in the area of previous knowledge can be given to learning groups. Management of affect includes making liking towards math, positive beliefs; reduce negative beliefs and fear, of students regarding mathematics.
Need for Managing Mathematics Teaching Learning Process from an Affective Outcome ...

Figure 1: Need and importance of affective management in mathematics instruction
Conclusion

Affective instruction refers to teaching learning process that relates to students’ interest, attitudes and motivation. Affective teaching will improve expression of their thoughts, ideas, feelings and self-awareness, and students’ personal and emotional involvement will improve their task behavior (Shechtman & Leichtentritt, 2004). To make liking towards mathematics in students, teachers need to eliminate the factors that create dislike. Hence, to consider change in beliefs like low self-efficacy, blind beliefs regarding effort and ability.

Teachers should be aware of their students’ beliefs regarding mathematics and its nature. In society, many declare that he or she is not good in mathematics, which makes a meaning, that mathematics is a difficult subject and majority cannot learn that. The teachers should move this belief. At least in school context, mathematics and related experience should be managed such that students never come to hear that mathematics is a difficult subject. When introducing a new topic, instead of explicitly saying that the topic is difficult, teachers can instruct students to take more effort and its relevance in practical field may be explained. Teachers need to provide experiences to make believe students that they can do and to value of effort. To change students’ belief they should be given short courses on learning of mathematics, and how to learn math. In the classroom, teachers can make small groups and can give simple activities to help the students to make belief that they can do by giving problems in their level; as a result, they will improve their effort.

To manage students’ learning, it should be taught to students how to learn mathematics. Adoption of self-regulated learning strategy will help students to know themselves well as learners. Self-regulated learning strategy is defined as being met cognitively, motivationally and behaviorally active in one’s own learning process and in achieving one’s own goals (Eccles & Wigfield, 2002). Teachers can help the students to set their own goals, to follow deep learning strategy, teach every topic with at least one practical use and overall provide a stage for affectionate and interesting learning.

References


TEACHER COMMITMENT IN RELATION TO INSTITUTIONAL PERFORMANCE, CREATIVE MANAGEMENT AND GENDER OF COLLEGE PRINCIPALS IN TEACHER EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS

Amit Kauts*  
Deepa Sikand**

Abstract
The present study was conducted to study the teacher commitment in relation to creative management and institutional performance in teacher education institutions. In order to conduct present study 450 teacher educators with doctorate degree and without doctorate degrees, with different levels of experience were selected from 45 selected colleges of education taking 10 teachers from each institution were selected randomly. Institutional Performance Scale & Creative Management Scale prepared by the investigator and Teacher Commitment Questionnaire (Kauts & Kalia, 2012) were used as tools for the present study. The findings of the study revealed that teacher commitment in case of dimension, "commitment to profession" and "commitment to attaining excellence for professional action" is significantly higher among teacher educators working in institutions with good performance than those working in the institutions with poor performance. Another finding revealed that teacher educators in the institutions with male principals exhibit higher "commitment to learners" as compared to the teacher educators in the institutions with female principals. The means of commitment to profession among teacher educators of colleges with female principals of institutions with good performance was significantly lower than those in colleges with male principals of institutions with good performance, colleges with male

* Professor, Department of Education, Guru Nanak Dev University, Amritsar  
** Associate Professor, Department of Education, Guru Nanak Dev University, Amritsar
principals of institutions with poor performance and colleges with female principals of institution with good performance. There is a positive relationship between creative management and teacher commitment.

Keywords: Teacher effectiveness, Creative management, Institutional performance

Introduction

The quality of teaching depends a great deal on the level of teachers’ involvement in relation to the profession exerted, to the organization one is part of and the professional satisfaction that one feels. On the one side, the relation teacher establishes with one’s students, the nature of the teaching activity and the work carried on in the professional community, the relations with peers, superiors, students’ parent’s leads to professional achievement and, indirectly, it reflects into the achievements of one’s students. We may say that the teacher’s reaction during teaching activity represents a complex pattern, including specific attitudes and behaviour. A multitude of individual characteristics may affect their work reaction: aspirations, reasons, needs, perceptions, personality, ability to learn, creativity, as well as organizational characteristics, including working conditions, benefits, colleagues, leading style, company’s policy, promotion opportunities etc. These factors are inter-related and influence employees in what concerns attitudes and behaviour.

Teacher commitment

Sharma (2001) studied commitment among teachers engages in inter colleges, degree colleges and the teacher of C.C.S. University campus. 100 teachers comprised the sample of this study. The study found that age, sex and faculty had no bearing on commitment whereas the level of education i.e. primary, secondary and higher had contributed to the development of commitment. Lu and Chang (2002) carried out a survey to find the relationships among professional commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions of hospital nurses. The study found a significant positive correlation between job satisfaction and professional commitment and turnover intentions. Maheshwari (2002) in which she conducted study on professional commitment of teacher and concluded that overall professional commitment level among teacher was found moderate & professional commitment do not depend on gender differences. Improvement in commitment among teachers could improve by providing good environment. Isabel et al. (2007) conducted a study on teacher education, graduate’s teaching commitment and entrance into the teaching profession. Results revealed that graduate’s teaching commitment is strongly related to their entrance into the teaching profession. Sharma (2008) found in this study that college teachers permanently characterized as conscientious, socially bold, trusting practical and high in self-concept tend to be highly committed to their institutions. Parthiban (2008) studied comparative analysis of dimensions of teacher commitment. The study was conducted among 600 teachers of 74 arts and science colleges of Bharathiar University, Coimbatore. The findings show that the teachers are highly committed to their job. Their departmental commitment comes much closer to job commitment.
Faranak and Yeshodhara (2009) studied organizational commitment among high school teachers of India and Iran. Data were collected from 721 high school teachers in Bangalore (India) and Sanandaj (Iran). Results revealed that Indian teachers had better organizational commitment in the affective and normative components and Iranian teachers were found to have better organizational commitment in the continuance component. Shukla (2009) studied teaching competency, professional commitment and job satisfaction of primary school teachers, their relationship and influence on each other. The result showed very high positive correlation between commitment to profession and job satisfaction levels of primary school teachers. Malik (2010) studied job satisfaction and organizational commitment of university teachers in public sector of Pakistan. The study was carried on teaching faculty working in two public sector universities of Pakistan. The finding of the study indicated that the satisfaction with work itself, quality of supervision and pay satisfaction had significant positive influence on organizational commitment of faculty members. The study revealed that faculty members have high degree of organizational commitment and satisfaction with work itself, supervision, salary, co-workers and opportunities for promotion. Arjunan and Balamurugan (2013) studied the Professional Commitment among in-service teachers and as a result they concluded that the gender of teachers has no impact on the level of professional commitment only more experienced teacher possessed more professional commitment. Dhamane (2013) conducted a study on professional commitment of govt-aided and self-finance institutes teachers. The outcome indicated that self-financing institutes’ teachers are showing more commitment towards their profession in comparisons to govt-aided. Shamina (2014) found that teachers have high degree of job satisfaction towards the dimensions of job satisfaction and they have a high degree of job satisfaction and Professional commitment. Ibrahim (2015) found that that there was positive correlation between the commitment to school and to teaching works, and to teaching works, and to the school. The teachers’ commitment to professional values increased the level of the commitment to teaching work. The teachers’ productivity on teaching activities had a positive effect on their commitment to school and to the teaching profession. Maiti (2015) found that there is significant difference between primary and secondary school teachers on various dimension of commitment. But there is no significant difference of commitment between male and female school teachers. Raman et al. (2015) revealed that school climate has relationship with teachers’ commitment. Dimensions such as collaborative leadership, teachers’ professional behavior; and working pressure have positive significant relationship with teachers’ commitment whereas institutional transparency dimension has no relationship with teachers’ commitment. Teachers’ professional behavior was deemed as the determinant for teachers’ commitment. Sharma (2015) revealed a significant negative correlation between teacher commitment and teacher freezing. While Teacher commitment was found to be independent of gender and stream. Secondary school teachers possessing favorable
teacher commitment were found to have lower level of teacher freezing as compared to teachers possessing unfavorable teacher commitment. Beri & Beri (2016) found that there exists no significant difference in professional commitment of male and female teacher educators. Swarnalatha (2016) indicated that females had better commitment than males. The commitment of experienced teachers was more. The math and science teachers had more commitment than other teachers. Sood & Anand (2000) found that level of professional commitment of B. Ed. teacher educators in Himachal Pradesh is moderate. Significant differences were found in professional commitment of B. Ed. teacher educators with regard to gender, marital status and teaching experience. However, NET qualified and Non-NET qualified teacher educators were found to have similar level of commitment towards their profession.

**Creative Management**

The meaning of the creative management takes on many different connotations e.g. Entrepreneur management, innovative management, change management and so on. The essence of the content of these expressions is the same or similar, if we accept the situational approach, where in the last instance, true understanding that any tendency for the exact definition of creative management is in fact averting from the rational approach. While a creative manager is a person, who is never satisfied with current situation, but continues with a permanent search for the new paths for action. Creative management is also known as classic management. The premise that all what was characteristic for many years for a leader or manager, nowadays it is under question mark. Obsolete leaders, as well as traditional chiefs, who behave as traditional parents, who do not trust us much, but they supervise us, have increasingly become today barriers to motivation in a dynamic environment, in leading or governing of the dynamic processes. While the creative manager acts as a supervisor, officer, judge, follower, leader or account supervisor, creative manager today, plays the role of coach, conductor, team leaders, coordinators, assistants, friends or a visionary.

Research on this subject may be structured on a three level approach: individual, group and organizational level (Borgini 2005; Drazin et al. 1999). At the individual level, we shall focus on the following causal-relations explored by creativity literature: Individual creativity depending on personality (Barron & Harrington, 1981; Martindale ,1989), personal expertise, thinking skills and intrinsic motivation (Amambile1997,1998 ) and cognitive abilities (Guilford, 1983). At the group level, literature suggests a variety of characteristics related to successful creative groups: leadership, resource availability, cohesiveness, group composition and group structure (King & Anderson 1990; Payne 1990). At organizational level, Theory of creative action in multiple social domains (Ford 1996), based on the concept that intentional action and evolutionary processes that legitimize action interact to facilitate creativity and innovation. Andropoulos (2001) concludes existence of 5 main determinants of organisational creativity: organisational climate, leadership style,
organisational culture, resources and skills and structure and organisational systems. Hallinger (2003) puts that transformational leadership models conceptualize leadership as an organizational entity rather than the task of a single individual. Basadur (2005) suggested three ways to approach organizational creativity: (a) Identifying creative employees within an organization and matching them to suitable tasks. (b) Using organizational factors to promote or restrain creativity performance. (c) To train employees in order for them turn out to be more creative. Bass & Riggio, 2006 opined that Transformational leaders motivate and inspire those around them by valuing the work of a teacher and challenging staff to achieve more. Sergiovanni (2007) claimed that a transformational leader practices purposing, provides a clear and concise goal focus uniting the organization, and encourages commitment. When a principal provides evidence that he or she understands the need to empower teachers, there is increased motivation and commitment towards campus goals (Leithwood & Jantzi, 2005; Marks &Printy, 2003; Sergiovanni, 2007). Transformational leadership has also been found to have an impact on teachers’ perceptions of school conditions, their individual commitment to change, and organizational learning and student outcomes (Hallinger & Heck, 1998). Nanda and Singh (2009) revealed the three determinants of creativity and innovation at work place: culture& organizational climate, individual characteristics and supporting system. Karasneh & Jubran (2013) revealed that there was a significant correlation between the results of the ten leadership dimensions together and the eight creativity traits of teachers were positively significant. The results showed that there were no significant differences according to the dependent variables (gender, major of specialization, educational experience, and stage of schools) on most of the independent variables (eight creativity traits and ten leadership dimensions). The study also offered some recommendations to enhance the status of educational leadership, creativity of social studies and Islamic education teachers. Alawawdeh (2016) indicated that there are many crises in secondary schools, school principals working on the practice of creativity management in fighting these crises, finally the results pointed out there is a correlation between the creative management and fighting crises in Secondary schools in Palestine. researcher recommended that the need to strengthen creativity management in solving schools crises and give school principals more training courses on the face of school crisis in secondary schools in Palestine.

**Institutional Performance**

Rastogi and Kashyap (2003) studied about job stress and work adjustment among working women with a sample consisting 150 nurses, clerks, and teachers. They found that nurses were more stressed than clerks and teachers. It’s because of nurses worked in harsh working environment. The low stress perceived group is teachers and that’s because of their best working environment comparative to other two groups. Zembylas (2004) exposed that emoluments, working hours and the holidays related to the teaching profession played the key role in the selection of
teaching profession for Cyprus - Cypriot teacher. Ololube (2005) in his study evaluated the relationship between the level of teachers’ job satisfaction, motivation and their teaching performance in Rivers State, Nigeria. The results revealed that the teachers are dissatisfied because of the climate prevailing in the profession like learning policies, management, salary and other emoluments, financial and non-financial benefits. The job satisfaction of Cambodian primary school teachers was strongly linked with pay level and their welfare conditions. However, it is also intertwined with non-financial benefits, such as professional advancement, principal position and participation in management (Lee 2006). Khan et al. (2012) found that teachers’ stress is a reaction of teachers to the unwanted environment factors furthermore the performance of teachers is both tasks and non task related. The teachers’ stress negatively affects the performance of teacher by lowering the productivity of individual teacher and of educational institution. The teachers’ resources act as moderator by minimizing negative effects of stress. Sabherwal et al. (2015) revealed that the determinants of stress among the administrators are numerous and varied, with compilation of results, time pressures, lack of infrastructure, student’s indiscipline and poor pay prospects as very high ranked stressors. The findings also revealed that the administrators experienced, on an average a low to moderate level of stress and this did not negatively affect their performance.

Objectives of the Study
1. To develop a tool for assessing institutional performance.
2. To develop a tool for assessing creative management.
3. To study teacher commitment in relation to institutional performance and gender of principals.
4. To study the relationship between teacher commitment and creative management.

Hypotheses of the Study
1. There is no significant difference in the institutions with high and in the institutions with poor performance on the scores of various dimensions of teacher commitment.
2. There is no significant difference between college with male and female principals on the scores of various dimensions of teacher commitment.
3. There is no significant interaction between institutional performance and gender of principals on the scores of various dimensions of teacher commitment.
4. There is no significant relationship between teacher commitment and creative management.

Delimitation of the study
The study was delimited to the following:
1. The study was delimited to the educational colleges of Punjab, affiliated to GNDU, Punjabi University Patiala and Punjab University Chandigarh only.
2. Data was collected from doctorates and non-doctorate teacher educators only.

**Sample**

There are 180 colleges of education in Punjab affiliated to Guru Nanak Dev University Amritsar, Punjab University Chandigarh and Punjabi University Patiala. It was proposed that the colleges with two units of B.Ed. and/or one unit of M.Ed. and one unit of B.Ed. classes only (number 157 out of 180) will be selected for study. A sample of 450 teacher educators with doctorate degree and without doctorate degrees, with different levels of experience were selected from 45 selected colleges of education taking 10 teachers from each institution were selected randomly. All the principals from selected colleges were approached to collect the required information for the investigation.

**Tools used**

Following tools were used for collecting data for the present study:

1. Institutional Performance Scale prepared by the investigator.
2. Creative Management Scale prepared by the investigator.

**Procedure of the Study**

Firstly, 45 teacher education institutions with two units of B.Ed. and one unit of M.Ed. and one unit of B.Ed. classes were taken as a sample. 10 teachers from each institution were selected randomly. Out of these institutions, questionnaire on institutional performance was administered to 41 principals out of whom 19 were females and 22 were males and in order to assess the teacher commitment and creative management, Teacher Commitment Questionnaire (Amit Kauts and Aachal Kalia, 2012) and creative management scale prepared by the investigator were administered to the teacher educators. The total proposed sample was 450, but for the purpose of analysis the data collected from 373 teacher educators was considered.

**Analysis and Interpretation of Data**

2x2 Analysis of Variance on the Scores of Various Dimensions of Teacher Commitment in Relation to Institutional Performance and Gender of the College Principals

The means and S.Ds of various dimensions of teacher commitment scores in the sub-groups of 2X2 Analysis of Variance have been computed and are presented in below in the Table 1:
Table 1: Mean, Standard Deviation of Various Dimensions of Teacher Commitment in the Sub Groups For 2x2 Design of ANOVAs in Relation to Institutional Performance and Gender of the College Principals

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimensions of Teacher Commitment</th>
<th>Institution with good performance</th>
<th>Institution with poor performance</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>CL: Commitment to the Learner</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colleges with Male principals</td>
<td>M1 = 2018.83 σ = 240.648 N = 58</td>
<td>M3 = 2077.68 σ = 404.774 N = 82</td>
<td>M = 2053.30 σ = 346.512 N = 140</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colleges with Female principals</td>
<td>M5 = 1964.09 σ = 354.380 N = 104</td>
<td>M4 = 1904.52 σ = 265.601 N = 132</td>
<td>M = 1930.77 σ = 308.621 N = 236</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>CS: Commitment to the Society</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colleges with Male principals</td>
<td>M3 = 2045.97 σ = 306.036 N = 58</td>
<td>M5 = 1971.84 σ = 268.974 N = 82</td>
<td>M = 2002.55 σ = 286.197 N = 140</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colleges with Female principals</td>
<td>M7 = 2016.05 σ = 335.096 N = 104</td>
<td>M4 = 2018.02 σ = 217.059 N = 132</td>
<td>M = 2017.15 σ = 274.738 N = 236</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>CP: Commitment to the Profession</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colleges with Male principals</td>
<td>M9 = 1913.66 σ = 236.247 N = 58</td>
<td>M10 = 1884.90 σ = 189.137 N = 82</td>
<td>M = 1896.81 σ = 209.607 N = 140</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colleges with Female principals</td>
<td>M11 = 1955.67 σ = 483.367 N = 104</td>
<td>M12 = 1742.35 σ = 193.248 N = 132</td>
<td>M = 1836.36 σ = 366.726 N = 236</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>CPA: Commitment to Professional Actions</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colleges with Male principals</td>
<td>M13 = 1596.02 σ = 240.648 N = 58</td>
<td>M14 = 1590.62 σ = 149.238 N = 82</td>
<td>M = 1592.86 σ = 174.303 N = 140</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In order to analyze the variance in various dimensions of Teacher commitment scores in relation to institutional performance and gender of the college principals the obtained scores are subjected to ANOVA and the results have been presented below in the Table 4.5.2.

Table 2: Summary of ANOVAs For 2x2 Design on the Scores of Various Dimensions of Teacher Commitment in Relation to Institutional Performance and Gender of the College Principals

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimensions of Teacher Commitment</th>
<th>Source of variation</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MSS</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Institutional performance (A)</td>
<td>10.996</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>10.996</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.992</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CL</td>
<td>Gender of Principals (B)</td>
<td>1113983.632</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1113983.632</td>
<td>10.695**</td>
<td>0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Interaction (AXB)</td>
<td>300784.873</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>300784.873</td>
<td>2.888</td>
<td>0.090</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Error</td>
<td>3.875E7</td>
<td>372</td>
<td>104163.159</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Institutional performance (A)</td>
<td>111640.564</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>111640.564</td>
<td>1.435</td>
<td>0.232</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Dimensions of Teacher Commitment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimensions of Teacher Commitment</th>
<th>Source of variation</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MSS</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CS</td>
<td>Gender of Principals (B)</td>
<td>5672.857</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5672.857</td>
<td>0.073</td>
<td>0.787</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Interaction (AXB)</td>
<td>124196.986</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>124196.986</td>
<td>1.597</td>
<td>0.207</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Error</td>
<td>2.894E7</td>
<td>372</td>
<td>77768.163</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Institutional performance (A)</td>
<td>1256795.908</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1256795.908</td>
<td>13.344**</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CP</td>
<td>Gender of Principals (B)</td>
<td>216770.494</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>216770.494</td>
<td>2.302</td>
<td>0.130</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Interaction (AXB)</td>
<td>730613.183</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>730613.183</td>
<td>7.757**</td>
<td>0.006</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Error</td>
<td>3.504E7</td>
<td>372</td>
<td>94183.890</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CPA</td>
<td>Institutional performance (A)</td>
<td>220183.794</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>220183.794</td>
<td>7.032**</td>
<td>0.008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Gender of Principals (B)</td>
<td>9606.701</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>9606.701</td>
<td>0.307</td>
<td>0.580</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Interaction (AXB)</td>
<td>175783.880</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>175783.880</td>
<td>5.614*</td>
<td>0.018</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Error</td>
<td>1.165E7</td>
<td>372</td>
<td>31310.869</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Institutional performance (A)</td>
<td>407254.930</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>407254.930</td>
<td>2.694</td>
<td>0.102</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CV</td>
<td>Gender of Principals (B)</td>
<td>110625.378</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>110625.378</td>
<td>0.732</td>
<td>0.393</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Interaction (AXB)</td>
<td>288737.576</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>288737.576</td>
<td>1.910</td>
<td>0.168</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Error</td>
<td>5.624E7</td>
<td>372</td>
<td>151171.559</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Significant at the 0.05 level of confidence
** Significant at the 0.01 level of confidence

Main Effects

(A) Institutional Performance

It may be observed from the Table-2 that F-ratios for the difference between means of institutions with good performance and institutions with poor performance on the scores of various dimensions of teacher commitment, in case of dimension CP "Commitment to Profession" and CPA "Commitment to Professional Actions", were found to be significant at the 0.01 level of confidence. Whereas the difference in case of other dimensions viz. CL, CS and CV were not found to be significant even at the 0.05 level of confidence. Thus, the data provide sufficient evidence to reject the Hypothesis (1) namely, "there is no significant difference in the institutions with high and in the institutions with poor performance on the scores of various dimensions of teacher
commitment", in case of dimensions CP and CPA. Whereas in dimension CL, CS and CV, the differences have not been found to be significant even at the 0.05 level of confidence. Thus, the data did not provide sufficient evidence to reject hypothesis. This means teacher commitment with respect to the dimensions; commitment to profession and commitment to attaining excellence for professional action, among teacher educators significantly differs in institutions with good performance and institutions with poor performance. Further the analysis of the means from the Table-1 suggest that means of teacher commitment in case of dimension, "commitment to profession" and "commitment to attaining excellence for professional action" is significantly higher among teacher educators working in institutions with good performance than those working in the institutions with poor performance. This implies that teacher educators exhibit higher "commitment towards profession" and "commitment to attaining excellence for professional action" in institutions with good performance than institutions with poor performance. This result has also been supported by Kauts and Kalia (2008) by indicating that there is a significant relationship between teacher effectiveness and teacher commitment to attaining excellence for professional actions. Therefore, there should be an effort to enhanced teacher commitment by properly channelizing the important factors such as student behaviour, collegial and administrative support, parental demands, and national education policies (Day, 2004).

(B) Gender of Principal

It may be observed from the Table- 2 thatF- ratio for the difference between means of colleges with male and female principals on the scores of dimension CL "commitment to learner", was found to be significant at the 0.01 level of confidence. Whereas, the difference in case of other dimensions, viz. CS, CP, CPA and CV were not found to be significant even at the 0.05 level of confidence. Thus, the data provide sufficient evidence to reject the Hypothesis (2) namely, "there is no significant difference in colleges with male and female principals on various dimensions of teacher commitment", in case of dimension CL. Whereas, the differences in dimensions CS, CP, CPA and CV have not been found to be significant even at the 0.05 level of confidence. Thus, the data did not provide sufficient evidence to reject hypothesis. This means "commitment to learner" among teacher educators significantly differs in institutions with male and female principals. Further the analysis of the means of dimension CL- "Commitment to Learner" from the Table- 1 suggest that means of CL in the colleges with female principals was found to be significantly lower than colleges with male principals. This denotes that teacher educators in the institutions with male principals exhibit higher "commitment to learners" as compared to the teacher educators in the institutions with female principals.
Interaction (AXB)

It may be observed from the Table- 2 that F- ratio for the interaction between the institutional performance and gender of principals on the scores of various dimensions of teacher commitment namely, CP-Commitment to Profession was found to be significant at the 0.01 level of confidence. Thus, the data provide sufficient evidence to reject the Hypothesis (3) namely, “there is no significant interaction between institutional performance and gender of principals on the scores of various dimensions of teacher commitment”, in case of commitment to profession dimension of teacher commitment.

To further analyze the significance of difference in various cells due to which F ratios are found to be significant, t- ratios have been computed and are presented in the Table- 4.5.3

Table 3: Ratios for The Difference in the Means in Various Cells of 2x2 Design on The Scores of "Commitment to the Profession" in Relation to Institutional Performance and Gender of College Principals

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>D</th>
<th>SE</th>
<th>t-Ratio</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>M9-M10</td>
<td>28.76</td>
<td>37.40</td>
<td>0.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M9-M11</td>
<td>42.01</td>
<td>56.65</td>
<td>0.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M9-M12</td>
<td>171.31</td>
<td>35.29</td>
<td>4.85*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M10-M11</td>
<td>70.77</td>
<td>51.80</td>
<td>1.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M10-M12</td>
<td>142.55</td>
<td>26.82</td>
<td>5.32*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M12-M11</td>
<td>213.32</td>
<td>50.29</td>
<td>4.24*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Significant at the 0.05 level of confidence

It may be observed from the Table 3 that means of sub groups of teacher commitment to the profession shows that t- ratios are significant in subgroups M9-M12, M10-M12, M12-M11. The Table 1 shows that means of commitment to profession among teacher educators of colleges with female principals of institutions with good performance was significantly lower than those in colleges with male principals of institutions with good performance, colleges with male principals of institutions with poor performance and colleges with female principals of institution with good performance. It is also shown clearly in Figure-4.5.1. This implies that the teacher educators of colleges having better performance have higher commitment towards the profession.
Table 4: Ratios for the Difference in the Means in Various Cells of 2x2 Design on the Scores of "Commitment for Attaining Excellence for Professional Actions" in Relation to Institutional Performance and Gender of College Principals

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>D</th>
<th>SE</th>
<th>t- Ratio</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>M₁₄-M₁₃</td>
<td>5.4</td>
<td>31.67</td>
<td>0.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M₁₄-M₁₅</td>
<td>40.08</td>
<td>26.17</td>
<td>1.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M₁₄-M₁₆</td>
<td>55.85</td>
<td>21.10</td>
<td>2.65*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M₁₆-M₁₃</td>
<td>61.25</td>
<td>30.08</td>
<td>2.04*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M₁₆-M₁₅</td>
<td>95.93</td>
<td>24.22</td>
<td>3.96*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M₁₃-M₁₅</td>
<td>34.68</td>
<td>33.83</td>
<td>1.03</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Significant at the 0.05 level of confidence

It may be observed from the Table 4.5.4 that means of sub groups of teacher commitment for attaining excellence for professional actions shows that t-ratios are significant in subgroups M₁₄-M₁₆, M₁₆-M₁₃, M₁₆-M₁₅. The Table 4.5.1 suggests that means of teacher commitment for attaining excellence for professional actions colleges with female principals of institutions with poor performance is significantly lower than colleges with male principals of institutions with good performance, colleges of male principals with institutions with poor performance and colleges of female principals with institution with good performance. Figure 3 makes it clear. This result has also been supported by Kauts and Kalia (2008) by indicating that there is a significant relationship between teacher effectiveness and teacher commitment to attaining excellence for professional actions.

Table 5: Relationship Between Teacher Commitment and Creative MANAGEMENT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pearson Correlation</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>.081</td>
<td>.123</td>
<td>373</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It has been observed from Table 5 that value of coefficient of correlation ‘r’ with df 371 came out to be 0.081, which is less than the table value (0.087) even at the 0.05 level of confidence, showing statistically not significant relationship between creative management and teacher commitment. Therefore, the data do not provide the sufficient evidence to reject the hypothesis (4) viz. “There is no significant relationship in the creative management and teacher commitment.” Sutarso et al (1996) advocated positive relationship between teacher commitment and creative management and
reported that teacher commitment was positively related to openness in Principal behaviour and teacher engagement, intimacy and low level of teacher frustration.

**Discussion on Findings**

It has been observed that teacher commitment in case of dimension, "commitment to profession" and "commitment to attaining excellence for professional action" is significantly higher among teacher educators working in institutions with good performance than those working in the institutions with poor performance. This implies that teacher educators exhibit higher "commitment towards profession" and "commitment to attaining excellence for professional action" in institutions with good performance than institutions with poor performance. Arjunan & Balamurugan (2013) in their study revealed that “teachers professional commitment” and “commitment to the learner” is high followed by “commitment to human values, society, “achieve excellence” and least level is “commitment to profession”. The dimension CL-"Commitment to Learner" in the colleges with female principals was found to be significantly lower than colleges with male principals. This denotes that teacher educators in the institutions with male principals exhibit higher "commitment to learners" as compared to the teacher educators in the institutions with female principals. Aydin et al. (2011) resulted in low effect sizes favoring male teachers’ commitment levels. They determined men were slightly more capable than women of adopting organizational norms and values. Commitment to profession among teacher educators of colleges with female principals of institutions with good performance was significantly lower than those in colleges with male principals of institutions with good performance, colleges with male principals of institutions with poor performance and colleges with female principals of institution with good performance. This implies that the teacher educators of colleges having better performance have higher commitment towards the profession. Similarly, teacher commitment for attaining excellence for professional actions colleges with female principals of institutions with poor performance is significantly lower than colleges with male principals of institutions with good performance, colleges of male principals with institutions with poor performance and colleges of female principals with institution with good performance. Karakus and Aslan (2009) focused on the different categories of commitment and determined that of 1,124 high school teachers, females were more affectively and normatively committed to the profession of teaching. However, female teachers exhibited lower levels of normative commitment to the actual work group and lower continuance commitment to the individual school at which they worked (Karakus & Aslan, 2009). Further, it has been observed that there is significant relationship in the creative management and teacher commitment. Sutarso et al (1996) advocated positive relationship between teacher commitment and creative management and reported that teacher commitment was positively related to openness in Principal behaviour and teacher engagement, intimacy and low level of teacher frustration.
Teacher Commitment in relation to Institutional Performance, Creative Management and …

References
EDUCATION OF SCHEDULED TRIBE GIRLS IN JAMMU AND KASHMIR: OPPORTUNITIES AND CHALLENGES

Showkeen Bilal Ahmad Gul*  
M.Y. Ganai**

Abstract

Education is essential for all and is fundamental to tribal girls all round development. Jammu and Kashmir is homeland to a number of tribal communities with diverse eco-cultural, socioeconomic and geographical backgrounds. These Scheduled Tribes experience passive indifference that takes the form of exclusion from educational opportunities and social participation. Despite several campaigns to promote formal education ever since independence, the literacy rate among Scheduled Tribes has remained low and the female literacy rate has been still lower compared to the national female literacy rate. The paper highlighted laudable opportunities and challenges for promotion of education among schedule tribe girls in Jammu and Kashmir. This study is based on secondary data and an attempt has been made in this paper to explore tribal girls’ education of Jammu and Kashmir

Key words: Scheduled Tribe, Education, Opportunities and Challenges

Introduction

Jammu and Kashmir is one of the states which is comparatively at a higher altitude and covered by such mountains which are not easily negotiable. Despite these barriers, the people of State have borne all types of climatic and geographic hazards and have scaled the most enviable pockets of communication. Jammu and Kashmir is an abode to quite a number of tribal groups, who have settled down in every alcove
and corner of this hilly countryside (Gul & Sheikh, 2014). The tribal people and their places, the tribal’s and their customs, their cultures, their means of communication, or simply their culinary arts, makes the tribes of J&K stand out from the rest of Indian tribesmen. The constitution of Jammu and Kashmir has notified twelve tribal communities as the scheduled tribes. Eight communities--- Balti, Bot, Beda, Brookpa, Garra, Changpa, Mon and Purigpa, among them were given this status in 1989; And Gujjars, Bakarwals, Gaddis and Sippis were notified as the scheduled tribes vide the constitution (Scheduled Tribes) order (Amendment) Act,1991. All the twelve scheduled tribes were enumerated officially for the first time during the census 2001, recording the population of 1,105,979. As per the census 2011, the total population of the Scheduled Tribes in the state is 1,493,299, comprising 11.9% of the total population of the state and about 1.43% of the total tribal population of the country (Sofi, 2014). Most of these tribes are found in Ladakh region of the State. However, the Gujjar and Bakerwal tribes are mostly found in Jammu and Kashmir provinces of the State. The demographic statistics of scheduled tribes in India and Jammu And Kashmir State are presented in the following table:

**Table 1: Demographic Statistics of Scheduled Tribes in India and Jammu and Kashmir (2001 and 2011)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S. No</th>
<th>State</th>
<th>Total population</th>
<th>ST population</th>
<th>Decadal Growth among STs</th>
<th>% of STs in the State to total State population</th>
<th>% of STs in the State to total ST population in India</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>India</td>
<td>1210569573</td>
<td>84326240</td>
<td>10,42,81,034</td>
<td>23.66</td>
<td>8.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>J&amp;K</td>
<td>12541302</td>
<td>11,0,5979</td>
<td>14,93,299</td>
<td>35.00</td>
<td>11.90</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Census Reports of India, 2001 & 2011*

Education helps in generating awareness among women about their legal, social, political and economic rights, provisions and privileges to fight against all sorts of social discrimination. It enables them to realize their potentialities, developing skills, seeking employment and improving their nutritional and health conditions. Therefore, educating women encourage not only their political participation and economic independence but also improves their quality of life and through them of the whole family and then of the whole nation in a broader sense. Sharma (2014) has shown that education has made a significant contribution in improving the status of women. Education of women is the most effective channel for reducing the inequalities between men and women and ensuring the maximum participation of women in the development process.
Education of Scheduled Tribe Girls in Jammu & Kashmir: Opportunities and Challenges

Enshrined under Article 46 of the Indian Constitution are the provisions for a widespread and specific welfare of the weaker sections, the underprivileged and the disadvantaged population of India (Mishra, 2001). The Article states, “The State shall promote with special care the educational and economic interests of the weaker sections of the people, and in particular of the Scheduled Tribes and Scheduled Castes, and shall protect them from social injustice and all forms of exploitation”. The gender discrimination runs through this.

The girls form a disadvantaged or underprivileged section due to the cultural prejudice concerned in them. A girl spin out to be multiple disadvantaged when the gender gets compounded with the other disadvantages like poverty, backwardness, scheduled tribes and scheduled caste, minorities, or disability. Among girls, those belonging to Scheduled tribes or Scheduled castes or belong to Muslim community becomes highly disadvantaged. Girls with disabilities also spin into a highly vulnerable group. “Education a girl is equal to educate a whole family”, “educate a man, you educate an individual, but educate a woman, you educate a nation” are old proverbs what convey the essence of girls’ education. Rena (2007) has referred to the statement says that there will be no educated people without educated women. In case one of the two sexes is preferred, women are to be prioritized because they possess the ability to pass education on to next generation. After lessons were learned from human history the world states came together to ensure dignity, equality and basic human rights for every member of this globe despite their sex, religion, ethnicity and geographical location.

The empowerment of a woman leads to empowerment of entire family. But unfortunately women have always been neglected lot in every field of life. They have been generally kept out of development in the country. Especially in tribal communities, the role of women is substantial and crucial. Women in a tribal society can play a vital role in their social, cultural, economic and religious ways of life and to be considered as an economic asset in their society. But they are still lagging far behind in the different walks of life like education, employment, good health and economic empowerment etc. The tribal women, as women in all social groups, are more illiterate than men. The low educational status is reflected in their lower literacy rate, lower enrolment rate and their presence in the school.

**Literature Review**

There exists a substantial amount of literature on the condition of tribal girls education in India. A brief review is worthwhile in order to highlight what has already been done in the field. Singh and Ohri (1993) opined in their study that the educational status of tribal’s should be improved. The study suggested improvement can be made on the basis of data related to education available from various sources, identifying tribal groups for initiating innovative educational programmes at the micro-level. The role of mass media also needs to be assessed in the educational
development of tribal’s. **Sandhya et al. (2011)** presented on ‘An analysis of tribal women’s education in India’. Education system should make an individual better suited to the needs of the ever changing dynamic world. The tribal communities all over India have been subjected to various forms of deprivation such as alienation from land and other resources. Especially the tribal women though they are away from the impact of socio-economic changes effecting the society in general. In this process of change, the tribal woman is forced to adhere to certain norms which may even take away her freedom, her control over the traditional productive system, her house, family and children and even her own life. It is also suggested to provide skill and vocational training programmes to tribal women living in rural areas. **Kumar & Sharma (2015)** studied the socio-economic status of tribal women in Jammu and Kashmir. The main findings of study were, the sex ratio among tribal’s is higher in all districts except district Srinagar and district Baramulla. The female literacy of tribal’s is very low in all districts of Jammu and Kashmir. It is as low as 11.26% in Kulgam district of Jammu and Kashmir. Whereas, the work participation rate of tribal women is higher than at national level among scheduled tribes in rural areas but it is very low in urban area. **Chowdhary (2014)** analysed the socio-economic conditions of Tribal Gujjar women. Gujjars form the third largest majority in terms of their ethnic identity after the Kashmiri Muslims and Dogra Hindus. They are nomadic, practice transhumance or seasonal migration with their livestock. The Gujjars mainly raise buffaloes and are pastoral in J&K. Gujar women of Jammu and Kashmir form a distinct category. They share the backwardness of the Gujjar community and yet at the same time they also share the deprivation from which women suffer in Jammu and Kashmir. The problem faced by tribal Gujar women are multifarious, the most crucial problems faced by them are overburdening them with work outside and within domestic sphere, gender discrimination, loopholes in educational and economic policy etc. various suggestions which are presented in this paper can go a long way in improving the socio-economic conditions of nomadic Gujar women. **Sharma (2014)** studied the education and women empowerment among Gujjars, Bakerwals and Gaddis in Jammu region of Jammu and Kashmir. The tribal community all over India has been subjected to various forms of deprivation such as alienation from land and other resources. Especially the tribal women, though they are away from the main stream of national life, but they are not kept away from the impact of socio-economic changes affecting the society in general. In this process of change, the tribal woman is forced to adhere to certain norms which may even take away her freedom, her control over the traditional production system, her house, family and children and even her own life. The fact remains that a large number of tribal women have missed education at different stages and in order to empower them there is a great need of providing opportunities so as to enable them to assume leadership qualities for economic self-reliance and even social transformation. However, in order to develop and raise their level of aspiration, adequate educational opportunities are to be provided so that they
get motivated to participate, support and also ultimately learn to initiate their own programs of development.

**Objectives of the Study:**

1. To identify the opportunities and schemes for education of tribe girls in Jammu and Kashmir.
2. To explore the problems and critical issues of tribal girls education in Jammu and Kashmir.

**Methodology**

The present study is mainly based on secondary data. The main sources of data are; the Census reports (2001 and 2011), Data of Registrar General of India, Reports on Selected Educational Statistics and Statistics Of School Education, Ministry of Human Resource Development (Government of India, New Delhi), Websites, Research Articles and Books.

**Results / Analysis**

Education for any person is not only a tool to enhance his understanding and knowledge of everything present and happening around him but is also an avenue for ensuring an all-round growth and development of his or her personality in all respects. Our country’s educational system should be so attuned and implemented so that the benefits of education reach one and all especially the most deprived sections of our society. The literacy rate in Jammu and Kashmir is 68.74 per cent as per census 2011. While the male literacy is 78.26 per cent, the female literacy is 58.01 per cent. The literacy rate of tribal population in J&K is 50.6 per cent which is far lower than the average literacy 59.0 per cent of tribal at national level. The literacy rate of male of tribals of J&K (60.6 percent) is much lower than the tribals at national level (68.5 per cent). Also the literacy rate of female tribals (39.7 per cent) of J&K is low in comparison to female tribals at National level 49.4 per cent (Census, 2011), as shown in Table II.

**Table II: Comparative Tribal Literacy Rates of Jammu and Kashmir and India**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Literacy Rate</th>
<th>2001</th>
<th>2011</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National</td>
<td>59.17</td>
<td>34.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>J&amp;K</td>
<td>48.2</td>
<td>25.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Literacy Gap</td>
<td>10.97</td>
<td>9.26</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Census Reports of India, 2001–2011.*

In Jammu & Kashmir the overall literacy rate of the STs as per the census 2011 is 50.6% which is much lower than the national average of 58.96% aggregated for all
STs. Male and female literacy rates 60.6% and 39.7% are much below if compared to those recorded by all STs at the national level (68.53% and 49.35 %). It can be further seen from the above table III that the State increased in the tribal literacy rate from 37.50% to 50.60% in the span of 10 years (2001 to 2011). The State tribal literacy is lower than the National average as per the recently concluded Census and also the literacy gap is (8.36). The analysis has brought this fact to the fore that the efforts put in by the Government through various tribal education schemes to reach to the far-flung areas and bring down literacy gap has materialized at ground level yet there is tremendous scope for bringing further improvements with focused attention.

**Table III: District wise information on very low ST literacy rate less than States average (50.6%) for ST population in Census 2011**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S. No.</th>
<th>Name of District</th>
<th>Female Literacy Rate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Jammu &amp; Kashmir</td>
<td>39.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Kishtwar</td>
<td>19.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Kulgam</td>
<td>21.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Pulwama</td>
<td>22.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Ramban</td>
<td>24.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Anantnag</td>
<td>25.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Shopian</td>
<td>28.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Baramulla</td>
<td>28.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Reasi</td>
<td>29.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Udhampur</td>
<td>31.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Doda</td>
<td>32.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Ganderbal</td>
<td>32.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Kupwara</td>
<td>33.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Kathua</td>
<td>33.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Badgam</td>
<td>33.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>Srinagar</td>
<td>34.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Census 2011

It is quite clear from table III that educational level among the tribal’s women of J&K is not impressive. The analysis shows that majority of the women are illiterate. As per the data, 15 districts of J&K having tribal women literacy rate less than the Stats average of tribal women literacy 39.7 percent.
Table IV: Gross Enrolment Ratio - Scheduled Tribes Girls

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Primary (Classes I-V)</th>
<th>Upper-Primary (Classes I-V)</th>
<th>Lower Secondary (Classes IX-X)</th>
<th>Higher Secondary (Classes XI-XII)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Jammu &amp; Kashmir</td>
<td>85.6</td>
<td>63.7</td>
<td>26.7</td>
<td>18.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Selected Educational Statistics, MHRD, 2013-14

As indicated in table IV the total enrolment ratio of tribal’s girls at, primary, upper-primary, lower-secondary and higher-secondary as a whole are 85.6, 63.7, 26.7 and 18.1 respectively. The data further shows that the proportion of tribal girls enrolment decline sharply in higher level of education. The above date also shows huge gender gap in enrolment among tribal’s at all stages of education as the recorded enrolment ratio of tribal girl is very low as compared to tribal boys.

Table V: Drop Out Rates of ST Girls (2013-14)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Primary (Classes I-V)</th>
<th>Elementary (Classes I-VIII)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Jammu &amp; Kashmir</td>
<td>31.9</td>
<td>68</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Statistics of School Education 2013-2014

It is unmistakable from the above table that there is a high dropout rate of scheduled tribal girls of J&K. It can be interpreted from the above table V that the dropout rate of tribal girls is increasing from lower-primary to elementary (31.9% to 68%). It can be further interpreted from the above table that there is high dropout rate among tribal girls than tribal boys at both the stages of education.

Table VI: Gender Parity Index of STs (2013-14)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Primary (Classes I-V)</th>
<th>Upper-Primary (Classes I-V)</th>
<th>Lower Secondary (Classes IX-X)</th>
<th>Higher Secondary (Classes XI-XII)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Jammu &amp; Kashmir</td>
<td>0.95</td>
<td>0.92</td>
<td>0.74</td>
<td>0.64</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Statistics of School Education 2013-2014

The above table VI shows the gender parity index of STs from primary to secondary. It can be interpreted that there is a continuous decrease in gender parity index from primary to secondary level of education (i.e. 0.95, 0.92, 0.74 and 0.64 respectively). It can further resulted from the above table that with higher stages of education GPI goes decreasing which is still a negative sign.
Opportunities for Promoting Tribal Girls Education

Education is precondition for removing the barriers of backwardness and marginalization of any society/community. Therefore, the education of Scheduled Tribe has been a priority for the Government of India. Here are the descriptions of some of the programs and schemes launched for the promotion of girls education among scheduled tribes.

1. **Beti Anmol:** The State Government rolled out Beti Anmol Scheme during 2011-12 with a view to arrest post-matric dropout rate of girl students belonging to Below Poverty Line (BPL) and enhancing their employment prospects. Under the scheme, an amount of Rs. 5000/- is to be given as incentive to the girl students of Educationally Backward Blocks, who pass their matriculation examination and get themselves enrolled in the 11th class. The incentive is given in the shape of a bank deposit the amount of which is en-cashable only after the students pass their 12th class examination. Beti Anmol scheme is presently catering to the girl students hailing from 97 educationally backward blocks of the state. The ultimate objective of this new initiative is to encourage the education of the girl students in the State. The Scheme is operative from academic session 2011-12 both for winter and summer zones. 5955 girl’s students were provided incentive during 2012-13, against the target coverage of 5962 beneficiaries, ending March, 2013.

2. **Post-Matric Scholarship Scheme:** This scheme has been in operational since 1944-45. The objective of this scheme is to provide financial assistance to the Scheduled Tribes students studying at post-matriculation or post-secondary levels to enable to complete their education. This scheme is open to all ST students whose parent’s annual income is Rs 1.08 lakh or less and the scholarships are awarded through the Government of the State/Union Territory where he/she is domiciled.

3. **Schemes for construction of hostels for ST Girls and Boys:** The scheme for construction of ST Girls’ Hostel was started during the Third Plan period. A separate scheme for construction of ST Boys was launched in 1989-90. Both schemes were merged into one scheme during 10th Five Year Plan. The objective of the scheme is to promote literacy among tribal students by providing hostel accommodation to such ST students who would otherwise have been unable to continue their education because of their poor economic condition, and the remote location of their villages.

4. **Schemes for the establishment of Ashram School in Tribal Sub-Plan Areas:** This scheme is operational in tribal sub plan 1990-91. The presence of boarding and lodging facilities has been found to be the factor of higher rate of
enrolment in schools (Ayadappanavar, 2003). The objective of this scheme is to promote and extend educational facilities to Scheduled Tribe students including PGTs. Ashram Schools provide education with residential facilities in an environment conducive to learning. This is a Centrally Sponsored Scheme on a cost sharing basis between the Centre and the States.

5. **Up gradation of merit:** This scheme which was operating earlier has in the tenth five year plan been merged into the scheme of Post –Matric scholarships. It is since been functioning only as sub-scheme of the PMS. The objective of this scheme is to upgrade the merit of Scheduled Tribe including PGTs students in classes 11th and 12th by providing them with facilities for all around development through education in residential schools so that they can compete with other students for admission to higher education courses and senior administrative and technical positions. Under this scheme a revised package grant of Rs 1900/-per student per year is provided from 2008-09 which includes honorarium to be paid to the Principal or Experts imparting coaching and also meet incidental charges.

6. **Book Bank:** In order to reduce the drop-out rates of the ST students from the professional institutes /universities, funds are provided for the purchase of books under this scheme. The central assistance to States /UT Administration for setting up Books Banks is limited to the following ceiling or actual cost of the set, whichever is less.

7. **Rajiv Gandhi National Fellowship:** The scheme has been launched from the year 2005-2006. The objective of this scheme is to provide fellowships in the form of financial assistance to students belonging to the STs to pursue higher studies such as M.Phil and Ph.D. This scheme covers all the Universities/Institutions recognized by the UGC under section 2(f) of the UGC Act. The rate of fellowship for Junior Research Fellow (JRF) and Senior Research Fellow (SRF) is at par with the UGC Fellowship as amended from time to time.

8. **Scheme of Top Class Education for ST student:** Ministry of Tribal Affairs has introduced a new scholarship scheme of Top Class Education for the ST students from the year 2007-2008. The objective of the scheme is to encourage meritorious ST students for pursuing studies at degree or post degree level in any of the selected lists of institutions, in which the scholarship scheme would be operative. There are 125 institutions approved under the scheme in both the Government and private sectors covering the field of management, medicine, engineering, law and commercial courses. Each institute has been allotted five awards with ceiling of total 625 scholarships per year.
9. Strengthening education among Scheduled Tribe girls in low literacy districts: It is a gender scheme of the Ministry of tribal affairs. The scheme aims to bridge the gap in literacy between the general female population and tribal women, through facilitating 100% enrolment of tribal girls in the identified districts or blocks, more particularly in the naxal affected areas and in the areas inhabited by the Primitive Tribal Groups (PGTs), and reducing drop-out rates at the elementary level by creating required ambience for education. The scheme covers 54 identified districts in 12 States and 1 Union Territory where the ST population is 25% or more, and ST female literacy is below 35% or its fraction as per census 2001. In addition, any other tribal block in a district, other than aforesaid 54 identified districts, which has scheduled tribal population 25% or above, tribal female literacy rate below 35% or its fraction, as per census, are also covered. The scheme is implemented by nongovernmental organizations and autonomous societies of the State Government/Union Territory.

10. Scheme to Upgrade Merit of Scheduled Tribe Students: The objective of the scheme is to upgrade the merit of ST students by providing them remedial and special coaching in classes IX to XII. While remedial coaching aims at removing deficiencies in various subjects, special coaching is provided with a view to prepare the students for competitive examinations for seeking entry into professional courses like Engineering and Medical disciplines. The scheme was revised from time to time. The last revisions in the Scheme were made during 2008-09. The State Government/UT Administration selects certain schools in different Districts/towns with hostel facilities which show excellence in performance of students from class IX to XII. While selecting the ST students the aim is to include at least 30% girl students and 3% disabled students. The scheme provides for 100% central assistance to the States/UT’s.

11. Central Sector Scholarship Scheme for Scheduled Tribe students: This is a Central Sector Scholarship Scheme for ST students introduced from the academic year 2007-08 with the objective of encouraging meritorious ST students for pursuing studies at Degree and Post Graduate level in any of the Institutes identified by the Ministry of Tribal Affairs for the purpose. It supports meritorious ST students who gain admission in 213 identified quality educational institutions. Scholarship once awarded will continue till completion of the course subject to satisfactory performance. Amount of Scholarship covers tuition fees, boarding and lodging expenses, book grant and a one time grant for purchase of a Computer along with its accessories. 100% funding is provided by the Ministry of Tribal Affairs according to the norms. Each identified Institute has been allocated 5 awards, however, it can be increased subject to an overall cap of 625 scholarships per year. Fund is released by the Ministry of Tribal Affairs to the concerned Institution directly.
12. National Scheme of Incentives to Girls for Secondary Education: To promote enrolment of girl child in the age group of 14-18 at secondary stage, especially those who passed Class VIII and to encourage the secondary education of such girls, the Centrally Sponsored Scheme. National Scheme of Incentives to Girls for Secondary Education was launched in May, 2008. All SC/ST girls who pass class VIII and girls, who pass class VIII examination from Kastrurba Gandhi Balika Vidyalayas (irrespective of whether they belong to Scheduled Castes or Tribes) and enroll for class IX in State/UT Government, Government-aided or local body schools in the academic year 2008-09 onwards. Girls should be below 16 years of age (as on 31st March) on joining class IX. Married girls, girls studying in private un-aided schools and enrolled in schools run by Central Government are excluded.

13. National Means-Cum-Merit Scholarship Scheme: The Centrally Sponsored Scheme “National Means-cum-Merit Scholarship Scheme (NMMSS)” was launched in May, 2008. The objective of the scheme is to award scholarships to meritorious students of economically weaker sections to arrest their drop out at class VIII and encourage them to continue the study at secondary stage. Scholarship of Rs.6000/- per annum (Rs.500/- per month) per student is awarded to selected students every year for study in classes from IX to XII in Government, Government aided and local body schools. There is quota of scholarships for different states/UTs. Students whose parental income from all sources is not more than Rs. 1,50,000/- are eligible to avail the scholarships. There is reservation as per State Government norms. The selection of students for the scholarships was being made though an examination conducted by the State Governments/UT administration along with the National Talent Search Examination (NTSE) first Stage-I examination. For academic year 2013-14 onward, separate examination for selection of students for NMMS Scholarships is being conducted by the State Governments. Scholarships are disbursed by the State Bank of India directly into the accounts of students on quarterly basis.

Problems of Tribal Girls Education

There are many critical issues and problems in the field of tribal girls education. They are as follows:

1. **Medium of language**: Language is one of the important constraints of tribal girl children which prevents them access to education.

2. **The Location of the Village**: The physical barriers create a hindrance for the girl children of a tribal village to attend the school in a neighbouring village.

3. **Economic Condition**: The economic condition of tribal people is so poor that they do not desire to spare their children or their labour power and allow them to attend schools.
4. **Attitude of the parents:** As education does not yield any immediate economic return, the tribal parents prefer to engage their children in remunerative employment which supplements the family income.

5. **Teacher Related Problems:** In the remote tribal areas the teacher absenteeism is a regular phenomenon and this affects largely the quality of education.

6. **Lack of Proper monitoring:** Proper monitoring is hindered by poor coordination between the Tribal Welfare Department and School Education Department.

7. **Child marriage:** Child marriage is a common practice in tribal community. Majority of the adolescent girls get marriage at early age (below 18 years).

8. **Lack of support from family:** In some cases, girls were interested in studying but there was a lack of support from family members to continue education. Lack of support was sometimes related to the fear of engaging in ‘love affairs’.

**Suggestions for Tribal Girls Education**

Some suggestions for improvement of tribal girl’s education are as follows:

1. **Literacy campaign:** Proper awareness campaign should be organized to create the awareness about the importance of girl’s education. Extensive literacy campaign in the tribal dominated districts may be undertaken on a priority basis to literate the tribal girls.

2. **Attitude of the tribal parents:** The attitude of the tribal parents toward their daughter’s education should be improved through proper counselling and guidance.

3. **Relevant study materials in local languages:** All study materials should be supplied in local languages of tribes.

4. **Appointment of Local teachers and female teachers:** It is suggested to appoint more tribal teachers and female teachers in the tribal areas. The ecological, cultural, psychological characteristics of tribal girl children should be considered carefully by the teachers in tribal areas.

5. **Stipends and various scholarships:** Since higher education among the tribal girls is less, special ST scholarships should be provided to the tribal girl students perusing higher education, particularly in medical, engineering, and other vocational streams.

6. **Residential schools:** More residential schools should be established in each states and districts and extended up to PG level in tribal areas.

7. **Social security:** Social security of students, especially of adolescent girls is of great concern in residential schools.
8. **Proper Monitoring:** Higher level officials should check the functioning of schools frequently relating to the teaching methods, working hours, and attendance registers.

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DEVELOPMENT AND STANDARIZATION OF HOLISTIC SCIENTIFIC ATTITUDE SCALE (H-SAC)

Sanjeev A. Sonawane*  
Swarna P. Gaikwad**

Abstract
The aim of this study was to develop and standardize ‘Holistic Scientific Attitude Scale’ with maximum components of scientific attitude. Therefore total 38 components were included in this scale. Initially 152 statements were prepared. Statements were checked by 25 experts and 80 statements were retained for which discrimination power and difficulty levels were calculated. Usability of the scale was found out and manual was prepared. Descriptive statistics was calculated. Scale is having reasonable spread of scores. Internal consistency of the scale is good and all the subscales are independent. The reliability and validity values are above 0.7. This scale is useful to measure the scientific attitude among secondary school students.

Key Words: Attitude, Scientific Attitude (SA), Holistic Scientific Attitude Scale (H-SAS).

Introduction
According to various education policies, inculcation of scientific temper is one of the most important objectives of our education system (Pratibha Pendake, 2007 and Ghormode, K.U. 2007). Only to transfer the science content is not the inculcation of scientific temper, but it is the development of scientific attitude (SA), scientific literacy, scientific approach and scientific thinking. All these terms are not distinct but they are complementary and supportive to each other. Therefore inculcation of scientific temper should be the important goal and ultimate product of the science
teaching. Attitude is the predisposition towards action. It is made up of cognitive, affective and psychomotor components. (Eagly and Shelly 1993). Therefore it is not easy to measure attitude like length or weight. S.A. is a very significant concern of the process of education. (Ediger, M and Rao B. 1996). According to Bhaskara Rao (1989) SA is really a composite of a number of mental habits, or of tendencies to react consistently in certain ways to a novel or problematic situation.

We must have a proper tool to measure SA. From the review of various literature and available scientific attitude scales, researcher collected thirty eight components of SA and it was found that very few components were covered in available scales. Therefore researcher developed a Holistic Scientific Attitude Scale (H-SAS) which covers maximum components of SA. This scale is useful to measure SA of secondary school students.

**Theoretical Background of the Study**

According to Mac Corquodale and Meehl (1948) attitude is one of the hypothetical constructs and is not directly observable but can be inferred from thoughts, actions and emotions of the person. Donald Campbell (1963) said attitude is a learned state, we can learn attitude from observations, experiences and imaginations. It becomes our tendency to respond in particular ways. According to Alice H. Eagly and Shelly Chaiken (1993), attitude is an evaluative state. It is the evaluation of any person, event or thing. These evaluative responses are those that express approval or disapproval, favor or disfavor, liking or disliking, approach or avoidance, attraction or aversion of similar reaction. According to Thurstone and Chave (1929), Likert (1932), Guttman (1944), Osgood, et. al. (1957) attitude can be measured. (Mathur, S.S. 2010, Henerson, et.al (1987). Thus though, we can’t observe attitude directly, we can interpret it from thoughts, emotions and actions. We can measure it by using proper technique. (Henerson, et. al. pg 9-11)

**Need and Significance of the Study**

Very few scales are available for the measurement of the SA. Earlier attempts were made by Curtis (1924), Noll (1935), Victor (1935), Jain (1967), Moore and Sutman (1970), Kozlow and Nay (1976), Fraser Barry J. (Australia 1978), and also by some Indian researchers. Indian authors' scales available to researcher are SAS by Dr. Gakhar and Dr.Kaur; Shailaja Bhagwat SAS; SAS by N.N. Srivastava; SAS by A. Grewal; and SAS by Dr. Kadalaskar.

Among these scales, in scientific attitude inventory of Moore and Sutman, authors' goal was to develop an instrument that measure one's attitude towards science. So, all the statements in their inventory are related to science. While the scale made by Dr. A. Grewal is also a science attitude scale (SAS), which is related to attitude towards the universe of science content. Remaining scales measures SA.
From the review of various literature and National Educational Policy (1986) there are many components of scientific attitude. Among which researcher focused on 38 components. Mainly these components are classified into 9 major components. Minor Components of SA can be measured under these 9 major components. Components of SA taking into account while measuring SA through above scales, many researchers focus on curiosity, open-mindedness, objectivity, aversion to superstition, cause and effect relationship, flexibility, rational outlook, suspended judgments etc. But some components like interest in newness, creativity, proper self-evaluation, correctness in thought and act, faith on development, confidence, faith on problem solving capacity, to accept defeat, unbiased decision making are not focused so much through these scales. So it becomes a motivation of the researcher to develop the scale for the measurement of SA, which can measure three aspects of SA i.e. affective, cognitive and psychomotor domain.

Also the available scales are for the age groups nearly 13 to 55. From the study, SA cannot transfer from one area to another i.e. if one person is having SA in social issue he may not have it in issues related to honesty. So the researcher decided to make the scale covering the small age group range. Selected sample is only secondary school students, i.e. age group 14-16. The age group is purposely selected because one of the objectives of this research is to give the information of SA of secondary school students to their teachers and parents, because this is the age in which students develops interest and attitudes (Piaget, 1920). Therefore, one can increase student's SA if found it low after its measurement. As standardized tools for measurement of SA are rarely available and even if they are available, they may not serve local purposes. Also it is found that the major objective of science teaching, i.e. 'inculcation of SA through content' is not taken into consideration in evaluation and teaching. So this is the attempt of researcher to make a very useful and holistic scientific attitude scale (H-SAS) for the measurement of SA of the secondary school students.

**Review of Related Literature**

Some scales studied by researcher are as follows

1. Science Attitude Scale (SAS) by Dr. Avinash Grewal (1990): The purpose of the study is to know attitude of students towards science. Students are from 11th or 12th standards.

2. Shailaja Bhagwat Scientific Attitude Scale (SBSAS) by Dr. Shailaja Bhagwat: Scale is for the age group of 17 to 55. Objectivity, Verification, Rational outlook, Aversion to superstitions, Flexibility, Critical approach, and Cause and effect relationship are some characteristics of scientific attitude that are taken into consideration in this scale.

3. Scientific Attitude Scale (SAS) by Dr. S. C. Gakhar and Dr. Amandeep Kaur: Scale is for eleventh class students. Components included in this scale are Curiosity, Open mindedness, Faith in scientific method, Cause and effect
relationship, Critical mindedness, Seek evidences, Objectivity, Suspended judgments, and Aversion to superstitions.

4. Scientific Attitude Scale' (SAS) by N. N. Srivastava: Scale is useful for 14 to 55 years person. Components of this scale are Rationality, Curiosity, Open mindedness, Aversion to superstitions, Objectivity, and Suspended judgments.

5. 'Scientific Attitude Scale' by Dr. Kadlaskar Sanyogita: Scale was pre-pared for the students of 8th, 9th and 10th standards. The components of SA taken into consideration are Empiricalness, Unprejudicedness, Openness, Critical mindedness, and Respect for evidences with its 15 minor components. (Deshpande, et.al.1994).

In case of available foreign scales, Curtis (1924) SAS has 4 components while SAS of Noll (1935) has 6 components. These components are Habitof accuracy, Habit of intellectual honesty, Habit of open-mindedness, Habit of suspended judgement, Habit of true cause and effect relationship, Habit of criticalness including self-criticism. Hoff A.G. included cause and effect, Curiosity, Habit of delayed response, Habit of weighing evidence, Respect for others view these five components. Moore and Sutman (1970), Mooreand Foy (1997) SAS measures scientific attitude towards science. Fraser Barry (Australia 1978) developed a scale for science related attitude. It also measures the attitude towards the science. Other literature studies were as follows _

1) Scientific Attitude Scale: 5 Indian and 4 Foreign studies
2) Attitude Scale construction: 14 Indian and 9 Foreign studies
3) Other Scale construction: 20 Indian and 3 Foreign studies

Literature study was done with the help of books, dissertations, articles, and internet websites.

Objectives of the Study

1. To analyze components of Scientific Attitude Scale in Indian context.
2. To find out scientific attitude components through literature analysis.
3. To develop the holistic scientific attitude scale (H-SAS) for secondary school students.
4. To standardize the H-SAS.

Hypothesis

Holistic Scientific attitude scale is valid for the measurement of scientific attitude.
Development and Standardization of Holistic Scientific Attitude Scale (H-Sas)

Methodology

[PHASE I] Development of the Scale: Study of related literature

Literature Analysis

- Identification of components to be focused through scale
- Preparation of statements
- Selection through experts
- Preparation of scale

Available scientific attitude scales and related literature were studied. 38 components were selected to include in scale among which nine components are major. These major components are search for evidences, empiricism, critical mindedness, unprejudicedness, open-mindedness, curiosity, observational ability, intellectual honesty and objectivity. Minor components under these major components are Respect for evidence, Tentatively, Respect for the view of others, Rationality, To keep away oneself from blind beliefs, Habit of reviewing data, Unbiased decision making ability, Ability to think logically, Ability to accept failure, Flexibility, Suspended judgement, Creativity, Willingness to change opinions, Persistent, Interest in newness, Enquiry, Desire for accurate knowledge, Belief in cause and effect, Social responsibility, Thoughtfulness, Accuracy in thought and action, Faith in development, Faith in problem solving, Ability to recognize self-limitations, Tolerance to uncertainty, Humility, Ability to identify difference between hypothesis and facts, Accurate representation of facts.

152 statements were prepared related to these components. These statements were checked by twenty five experts in various fields like psychology, philosophy, education, chemistry, biology, physic, mathematics etc. Classification and definitions of SA components were also checked by these experts. In front of 152 statements, three options given to them were essential, essential but not useful, not useful. Statements in final scale were selected from the opinions of these experts. Their suggestions like change the construction of the sentence, write another example, improve grammar of the statements were taken into consideration. Selection of 80 statements was done according to highest priorities given by experts. This scale was used for first try out. It was implemented on 60 students. From their responses, discrimination power and difficulty level were calculated. For difficulty level values less than and near to 0.25,
Some corrections were made in statements. It was again checked by experts and again implemented. Again difficulty level values and discrimination index were calculated.

[PHASE II] Standardization of the scale : (Eagly and Shelly 1993).

Finalization of draft of H-SAS

Calculation of Validity

Calculation of Reliability

Calculation of Difficulty Level

Calculation of Discriminating Power

To prepare manual and to define usability

- Discrimination Index and Difficulty Level- Scores of 60 students were arranged in descending order. Upper 27% and below 27% scores were considered as upper and lower scores for calculation. (Ebel and Frisbie 1991. P.227.) Values of difficulty level are in between 0.30 to 0.70 which is in the proper range. Discrimination index is above 0.20. It is positive satisfactory range of discrimination (Agarwal 1986).

- Reliability- The internal consistency reliability that is the extent to which items in a given scale measure the same attitude was estimated using Cronbach alpha coefficient. It is 0.78 for 9th standard and 0.82 for 10th standard. Test-Retest reliability is 0.85. When compared with other scales, it was found that reliability values of other scales are in between 0.66 to 0.94 and H-SAS is having reliability values in the range of 0.78 to 0.85.

- Validity- It is the degree to which a test or instrument measures what it purports to measure. Congruent validity of the scale was found to be 0.714, content validity was checked by 25 experts, discriminant validity was found to be negligible which shows that all the subscales are separate. Construct validity was found out with the help of internal consistency. It is in the range of 0.78 to 0.82.

- Norms- Grade wise and gender wise percentile norms were calculated. It indicates, for each raw score, percentage of standardization sample that falls below that raw score. It provides a basis for interpreting an individual’s score on a scale in terms of his own standing in a particular standardization sample.
Descriptive Statistics- The descriptive statistics of the total score was calculated. It is given in the following table.(Garrett H.E. 2008, Mulay, Umathe, 1977)

Table 1: Component wise Mean and Standard Deviation of the 9th and 10th standard scores.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Components</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>9th</td>
<td>10th</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Search for evidence</td>
<td>27.92</td>
<td>28.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Empiricism</td>
<td>31.96</td>
<td>32.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Critical Mindedness</td>
<td>28.16</td>
<td>28.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Free from Bias</td>
<td>27.59</td>
<td>27.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Open-mindedness</td>
<td>27.44</td>
<td>27.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Curiosity</td>
<td>29.27</td>
<td>29.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Observational ability</td>
<td>28.15</td>
<td>28.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intellectual honesty</td>
<td>34.20</td>
<td>34.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Objectivity</td>
<td>14.79</td>
<td>15.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean of nine scales</td>
<td>27.72</td>
<td>28.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2: Descriptive Statistics of the total scores.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Value</td>
<td>250.81</td>
<td>251</td>
<td>13.05</td>
<td>207</td>
<td>299</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>-0.11</td>
<td>0.265</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Interpretation of Descriptive Statistics:
1. Average of all the scores is found to be 250.81
2. Value of median is 251, which indicates that 50% students are having score below the point 251 while 50% students are having score above the point 251.
3. Value of standard deviation shows that scores are dispersed in the area of 13.05 distances from the mean.
4. Smallest score is 207 while highest one is 299, with the range of 92.
5. The total skewness of -0.11 and kurtosis of 0.265 shows the distribution is normal.
6. The mean of each student's total score is 250.81 with standard error of 0.32. This gives 99% confidence interval of 249.99 to 251.64 and 95% confidence interval of 250.19 to 251.44.
Major Findings

1. Mean of each component for 9th and 10th std were calculated. Overall mean was also calculated. The possible score range on each scale is from a minimum of 5 to a maximum 44. The mean score on each standard tended to be approximately similar.

2. The standard deviations of each scale and the mean of the nine scale standard deviations were calculated separately. These values indicate that scale is having reasonable spread of scores at each standard.

3. The internal consistency reliability was estimated by using Cronbach alpha coefficient. It ranges from 0.66 to 0.86. These values for the reliability coefficient are generally high. It indicates that scale is having good internal consistency. Test- Retest coefficients ranged from 0.797 to 0.918 indicating that all scales displayed quite good test-retest reliability. It indicates that scale has consistent reliability.

4. Inter correlations among attitude scales were calculated as indices of discriminant validity. It was found that inter correlations were generally fairly low and ranged from -0.05 to 0.02. It was considered justifiable to maintain all nine scales as separate dimensions. Thus all the scales are independent.

Conclusion:

1. In final Holistic Scientific Attitude Scale there are 80 items.
2. The reliability value of the scale is in between 0.7 to 0.9.
3. The validity of the scale is in between 0.7 to 0.8.

Discussion of Findings with Earlier Studies

Reliability and validity is found to be in the range as in other scales. Scientific Attitude Scale (SAS) of Dr. N. N. Srivastava is having reliability 0.86, 0.88 and validity 0.90. Scientific Attitude Scale (SAS) of Dr. Amandeep Kaur and Dr. Gakhar is having reliability 0.70 and validity was calculated as content validity by taking experts opinions. Reliability calculated by Dr. Shailaja Bhagwat in her Shailaja Bhagwat Scientific Attitude Scale (SB-SAS) was 0.94 and 0.87. Avinash Grewal SAS is having reliability 0.75 and 0.86 while validity was calculated as content validity by taking experts opinions. Scientific attitude scale by Dr. Kadalaskar is having reliability values from 0.66 to 0.76 while validity is 0.66 to 0.76. H-SAS is having different types of reliability in the range of 0.7 to 0.9 and validity 0.7 to 0.8. As compared to other scales, components covered in this scale are more.

In Scientific Attitude Scale (SAS) of Dr. N. N. Srivastava, components covered were 6. Scientific Attitude Scale (SAS) of Dr. Amandeep Kaur and Dr. Gakhar is having 5. Components covered in Shailaja Bhagwat Scientific Attitude Scale (SBSAS) were 7. SAS by Dr. Kadalaskar is having 5 major and 15 minor components. While in H-SAS total components covered were 38. Among these components, 9 are major
Development and Standardization of Holistic Scientific Attitude Scale (H-Sas)

while 29 are minor. Thus H-SAS is Holistic Scientific Attitude Scale as it contains maximum 38 components.

Significance of the Study

As scientific attitude plays very vital role in our life, this instrument will be useful to measure the SA in secondary school students. If teachers know the present situation of SA in their students, it will be possible for them to implement proper remedies to increase the SA of students.

Contribution of the Study to the Field of Education

Among all the available scales for the measurement of SA, this scale will measure three aspects of SA i.e. affective, cognitive and psychomotor domain. Some components of SA that are not considered in other scales are the part of this scale.

Thus one can get a clear idea about the scientific attitude of secondary school student after using this scale in the present age of science and technology. This scale will help students to face the orthodoxy and nonscientific practices and lead the society to innovative changes. This scale will be useful to society, teachers, government and parents in daily happenings with scientific vision.

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EDUCATION OF THE DEPRIVED SOCIAL GROUP WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO BPL HOUSEHOLDS IN HILL RURAL AREAS: A STUDY OF PAURI GARHWAL DISTRICT OF UTTARKHAND

Ajay Kumar Salgotra∗
Kumari Roma∗∗

Abstract
In our India after the 67th year of independence still the SC/ST, women and rural people were considered as socially deprived group of society. The Degree of education in a community is a good measure of its progress towards modernisation. The main concern of this paper is to study the level of education among BPL households in relation to their gender and caste status. The study was confined only to the rural areas of Pauri district with special reference to BPL households. The data were collected from Pauri Garhwal district of Uttarakhand by using stratified random sampling technique. A self-made questionnaire was used for the data collection. Through this paper the efforts have been made to explore problems of education of deprived sections of society and to suggest some recommendations with regard to them.

Keywords: Poverty, Below Poverty Line households, Caste Status, Literacy

Introduction
In our country, most of the areas are belong to rural locality. Most of the people of these areas are in a very deplorable condition they are still backwards and powerless not only socially but economically as well. There are so many causes which
makes the whole society backwards like poverty, ignorance, illiteracy etc. Caste group, tribes and women are considered the weakest part of our society and still these groups are always deprived social group from all the side. Education is the one of the only key source which meets the challenges to secure social equality, human development and helps in higher economical productivity.

In our country still the dropout rate at the secondary level is extremely high in the rural village areas due to poverty, ignorance and lack of awareness. Only few numbers of students has able to qualified their secondary education and taking admission in colleges for further studies.

Poverty is the main reason that parents cannot afford higher education. If parents of the children are not able to afford their higher education then all their previous study efforts has got wasted and status remain same. After completing just secondary education means earning sources remain same as earlier and struck in the process which have no end.

Education play a very important role to achieve the social justice among the deprived group. It’s the duty of educational institutions to equip children to the best of their ability for securing a meaningful place in society. However, a large number of children are still excluded from the educational system and hence cannot participate meaningfully in the economic, social, political and cultural life of their communities.

Some of the most social deprived groups in almost every society are:

1. **Women**: In our India still women belonging to lower castes, lower classes, illiterate and poorest region can be seen from their exclusion from certain jobs and occupations. They are still belonging to the deprived section of the society.

2. **Caste Groups**: In our India still the caste system is based on strict hierarchical social system. In India Brahmins are on the top of the hierarchy and Shudras or Dalits or the Scheduled Castes constitute the bottom of the hierarchy. Still the Literacy rates, purchasing power and poor housing conditions among SC are very low.

3. **Tribes**: The tribal population are also considered as socially and economically backward group. They face so many problems like poverty, low levels of education and poor access to health care services. *Shah, Manheret at (2006)* reveals that poverty with the tag of SCs provides inequality and social injustice so they recommended that constitutional mandate to remove inequality and promote social justice. *Sundharam and Dutt (2008)* stated that there are two factors for high incidence of poverty among rural labour households. Firstly, there is a considerable degree of unemployment and under employment among rural labourers. The second cause of rural poverty is the low asset base of the poor.
Education is a key indicator in the development of society. Literacy is one of the important aspects of human development, so efforts are being taken in recent years to attain the objective of education to all. In that respect, study of literacy or literacy rate cannot be neglected in the population studies (Bhakare-2010). Education and literacy is a superior input which enables our innate abilities for better understanding and experiences. Education is the important indicator for the overall development of child and its outcome in the form of better health, better economic condition, and population control and most important is better awareness.

Objective

The objective of this paper is to study the level of education among BPL households in relation to their gender and caste status.

Sampling method

Stratified random sampling method was adopted for the study. The stratified sampling was focus on including all the caste category households i.e. General, OBC’s, SC’s, ST’s living below the poverty line only in the hill rural areas of the district.

Sample number

For this study out of fifteen development blocks of district Pauri Garhwal randomly six (6) development blocks was selected. Out of each development block randomly four villages was selected for the study. Out of each village a minimum of 15 BPL households will be randomly selected. Total 360 households were taken as sample.

Data collection methods

A self-made questionnaire was used for the data collection.

Categorization of data

Table 1: Male Female literacy rate among BPL household members

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Education status</th>
<th>Males</th>
<th>Females</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Illiterate</td>
<td>100(16)</td>
<td>213(32.42)</td>
<td>313(24.41)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Read and Write to Upto 5th STD</td>
<td>124(19.04)</td>
<td>145(21.76)</td>
<td>269(20.43)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Upto 8th STD</td>
<td>129(20.64)</td>
<td>106(16.13)</td>
<td>235(18.33)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Upto 10th STD</td>
<td>153(24.48)</td>
<td>103(15.58)</td>
<td>256(19.97)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Upto 12th STD</td>
<td>97(15.52)</td>
<td>70(10.65)</td>
<td>167(13.02)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U.G</td>
<td>25(4)</td>
<td>20(3.04)</td>
<td>45(3.51)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P.G.</td>
<td>2(32)</td>
<td>2(30)</td>
<td>4(31)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>625</td>
<td>657</td>
<td>1282</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Survey 2014-15
The analysis of table 1 reveals that 24.41 percent BPL household members are illiterate. In which the strength of females in primary education is higher than the male in this hill region but in middle, high and higher secondary schools the strength of males is higher than the females. The cause of illiteracy and high dropout rate in this region is socio-economic background of their families. Sufficient support (scholarship) is provided to the children of these deprived sections which enable the enrolment rate among the poor children who leave their school to support their families directly or indirectly. Most of the females leave their school to participate in domestic work and agriculture and allied activities while males leave their school to provide financial support to their home.

**Figure 1: Male female literacy rate**

The figure 1 clearly depicted the level of education among the BPL household members. The share of females in primary education is higher than the males but in higher education literacy rate of males is higher than the females.

**Table 2: Educational Status and Caste status**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Education status</th>
<th>Caste category and Distribution of Males and Females</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>GEN</td>
<td>OBC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Illiterate</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Read and Write to Upto 5th STD</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Upto 8th STD</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Upto 10th STD</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Upto 12th STD</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U.G.</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P.G.</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Totals</td>
<td>329</td>
<td>257</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source:** Field Survey 2014-15
The analysis of table no 2 reveals the status of male and female in literacy rate on the basis of social category among BPL households in the surveyed villages. Literacy rate of Schedule Caste in this region is low in comparison to General Caste and Other Backward Classes. It is also observed in the study that Schedule Caste females are highly illiterate in comparison to other caste in this hill region. General and Other Backward Classes caste also shows poor education status but better in companion to Schedule Caste category. Thus low literacy rate prevails in this region because of isolation of this region from external influence and poor socio-economic condition and also meager non-agricultural activities which required educated labour but educational attainment is little functional in this region due to subsistence agriculture economy.

Table 3: Distribution of School Dropouts among BPL households

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Education level</th>
<th>No. of drop outs</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Males</td>
<td>Females</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Gen</td>
<td>OBC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drop out before and after 5th</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drop out after 8th</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drop out after 10th</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Survey 2014-15

The table 3 shows that 30.66 percent students leave their school before and after attaining their primary education. The dropout rate is increase as increase in the education levels. The dropout rate among schedule caste BPLs is high in comparison to general caste and other backward classes particularly gender wise.

Male literacy rate is high in comparison to female literacy rate in this hill region. In between the sub-category (General Caste, OBC and SC) Schedule Caste males and Schedule Caste females have low literacy rate in comparison to General caste and OBC (males and females) clearly depicted in the figure 2. This study also reflects the fact that low literacy rate among the BPL households is due to their poor socio-economic condition.
Figure 2: Caste wise distribution of Literacy rate

Recommendations

On behalf of this paper we want to suggest some recommendations. These recommendations cover only the topic discussed in this paper and are by no means exhaustive.

1. Many scholarships are given to SC student by State Government and central Government and different training program also lunch by State and Central Government which improve literacy and employment structure of the Schedule Caste. But these scholarships also should be given to the beneficiary poor people instead of SC and ST.

2. It is suggests that creation of more income generating opportunities in the hill rural areas which are able to enhance the level of earning and this further facilitate to reduce the level of dropout rate among BPL household members.

3. Poor economic conditions as well as regional disparities which leads the region to poor educational status so it is necessity to provide awareness regarding the education as an important source to reduce the poor economic condition and regional disparities and enhance the level of living in this hill rural region.

Conclusions

It is observed in the study that enrolment rate of females in primary education is higher than the males but lower in the higher education this indicates that the gender disparity in enrolment continues to exist in this region. Also females are more illiterate than the males in all the caste categories. This shows that women are still in socially deprived group as compare to their counters parts. The dropout rate among schedule caste BPLs is high in comparison to general caste and other backward classes particularly gender wise. This reveals that status of women, poverty and lack of awareness influencing directly on the literacy rate.

References

Baruah, R. (2013) ‘Education of The Deprived Social Group: With Special Reference to the Girl’s Education of Tinsukia District through KGBV (Kasturba Gandhi Balika
Education of the Deprived Social Group with Special Reference to BPL Households ….


A STUDY OF THE FACILITIES PROVIDED BY THE SPECIAL SCHOOLS FOR HEARING IMPAIRED STUDENTS

Hassen Taj*  
Nandini N**

Abstract  
The aim of this study is to investigate the facilities provided by the special schools for hearing impaired students. A descriptive approach incorporating quantitative and qualitative methods was adopted in the present study to collect data. To analyse the quantitative data, percentage analysis technique and descriptive analysis were used. A total of 100 hearing impaired students, 15 teachers teaching hearing impaired students and 15 parents having hearing impaired children were selected from nine special education schools in Bangalore city. Each subject was given the checklist. Thirty each voluntarily participated teachers and parents were interviewed. The results of the study revealed the fact that required facilities should be provided by the special schools to achieve the expected outcome from students with hearing impairment, appoint well trained, committed teachers by having lot of patience and finally parents also need counselling along with students to accept the fact that their children can do something better like other normal children even in spite of their impairment. This paper throws its light on the facilities provided by special schools, opinions of teachers teaching hearing impaired students and parents having hearing impaired children regarding their expectations on facilities to be provided from special schools for their children.

Key words: Hearing Impairment, special schools.

* Professor, Department of Education, Bangalore University  
** Research Scholar, Department of Education, Bangalore University
Introduction

Education is a lifelong and endless process which involves many planned and unplanned experiences that enable each and every one to develop knowledge, also learn many things through interaction with the society in which they live. It involves experiences at all stages of life, from infancy through childhood, adulthood to old age. Education also supports adaptations to society with all the combinations of life events that each person is subject to a unique set of learning and problem solving experiences that constitute an understanding of the world and the events that take place in it. So, in every context it’s clear that education is very important in life which links the individual to the main stream of development of society and nation as well. But, in our human society, there are some people who cannot access such general education for progress because of some difficulties. Their problems of accessibility comprise special talents in sensory, cognitive and physical areas of functioning. It requires special care and training for survival of such people and their contribution in mainstream headway. Education of such people is known as special education. The special schools meant especially for the disabled should be conscious regarding the classroom where they the children with special needs are taught which should include functional academics, language and communication skills, social skills, activities of daily living, prevocational and vocational skills for their survival in the society like other normal children. Apart from all these opportunity should also be given to attend computer classes. Among teachers, in comparison to general educators, special educators have been found to have higher burnout rates (Eichinger, 2000; Evers et al., 2004; Kokkinos & Panayiotou, 2005). According to the relevant literature on this topic, teachers working with the impaired are less creative and more impatient with their students, as they are depressed and lack of enthusiasm for their work (Weiskopf, 1980; Crane & Iwanicki, 1986; Croasmun et al., 1997). Since special needs children require more care and training as well as patience and sacrifice in comparison to their healthy peers, it is very stressful to work with students with special education needs. For all this to become successful it is required for the head of the school to formulate Individual Education Plan as per the need of individual child in the beginning of the academic year. Another most important part of the special schools is the assessment part which has to be done regularly and the reports should also be shared with the parents during Parent Teacher meetings. The main reason for sharing the progress of the child with their parents is that one of the last things that most parents want to hear is that their child has a disability and requires special education services. As per the need students should also be given speech and occupational therapy and also parents should also be involved in all the activities so that even they find it easy to communicate with their child. Therefore, the present study is attempted to investigate the facilities provided in special schools for hearing impaired students along with the opinion of teachers and parents are also considered regarding the facilities provided in special schools.
A Study of the Facilities Provided by the Special Schools for Hearing Impaired Students

**Purpose of the Study**

Purpose of the study was to examine the facilities provided by the special schools for hearing impaired students.

**Research Questions**

The following research question served as guiding principles for this study.

Q1: What are the facilities provided by the special schools for differently abled (Hearing impaired) students?

Q2: What parents and teachers of hearing impaired opine about the facilities in special schools?

Q3: What implications can help in enhancing the facilities of special schools.

**Methodology**

The study was qualitative and quantitative in nature (mixed method). The participants for the survey were drawn from special schools of Bengaluru city who were having hearing impairment along with the teachers teaching hearing impaired students and parents having hearing impaired child for collecting information on facilities required through interviews as part of the qualitative method of the study.

**Method**

The participants for the study were drawn from special schools of Bangalore city who were having hearing impairment. Unstructured interview to parents and teachers were conducted for further probing the information along with giving the checklist for students having hearing impairment. The informants provided information based on their experiences. The interviews were very much valuable to sort out the facilities required in the special schools.

**Sample**

Purposeful sampling is a technique widely used in qualitative research for the identification and selection of information-rich cases for the most effective use of limited resources (Patton, 2002). This involves identifying and selecting individuals or groups of individuals that are especially knowledgeable about or experienced with a phenomenon of interest (Cresswell & Plano Clark, 2011). In addition to knowledge and experience, Bernard (2002) and Spradley (1979) note the importance of availability and willingness to participate, and the ability to communicate experiences and opinions in an articulate, expressive, and reflective manner. This study was conducted with 100 students purposively drawn from different types of managements on the basis of their hearing impairment along with few teachers and parents who were interviewed.
Distribution of Sample

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Serial No</th>
<th>Type of School Management</th>
<th>Total Sample</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>01</td>
<td>Private Aided</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>02</td>
<td>Private Unaided</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>03</td>
<td>NGO</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>02</td>
<td>Boys</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>03</td>
<td>Girls</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>04</td>
<td>Boys</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>05</td>
<td>Girls</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>06</td>
<td>Boys</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>07</td>
<td>Girls</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Tools

The tool used for the present study was a validated questionnaire with the checklist on the facilities provided in special schools of hearing impaired. The checklist consisted of 48 statements with two response category scale developed by Smt. Nandini N and Dr. Haseen Taj (2015).

Analysis and Interpretation

Percentage analysis

The data collected from the samples were analysed using statistical techniques such as percentages and frequency. In this, the researcher analysed the facilities in special schools based on percentage analysis.

The main purpose of the study was to investigate the facilities provided by the special schools for hearing impaired students.

Table 1: Table shows the percentage analysis on facilities provided by the schools for hearing impaired students (Item 1 to 9).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item No.</th>
<th>Facilities provided by the Schools</th>
<th>f</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Is your class rooms quiet and free from distraction</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>74.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Are safety devices like fire and smoke alarms available in good working conditions in your Institution?</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>56.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Do you have appropriate space, ventilation and fresh air in your class room?</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>98.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Are your desks user friendly and accessible for working</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>84.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
A Study of the Facilities Provided by the Special Schools for Hearing Impaired Students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item No.</th>
<th>Facilities provided by the Schools</th>
<th>f</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>with teacher in a class room setting?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Do you have water purifier in your school?</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>18.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Is any audio system used in the class room to create clarity to hear the teacher better?</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>42.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>Is your classroom installed with a Sound field Amplification System to cut down/avoid background noise?</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>19.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>Is your chair provided with rubber tips to its legs to avoid its noise?</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>33.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>Does your teachers use blackboard frequently?</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>84.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From table 1 it can be seen that:

- 74.00% (74) hearing impaired students opined that their class rooms are quiet and free from distraction.
- 56.00% (56) hearing impaired students opined that their institutions are having safety devices like fire and smoke alarms available in good working conditions.
- 98.00% (98) hearing impaired students opined that they have appropriate space, ventilation and fresh air in their class rooms.
- 84.00% (84) hearing impaired students opined that their desks are user friendly and accessible for working with teacher in a class room setting.
- 18.00% (18) hearing impaired students opined that they have water purifier in their schools.
- 42.00% (42) hearing impaired students opined that audio systems are used in the class room to create clarity to hear the teacher better.
- 19.00% (19) hearing impaired students opined that their classrooms are installed with a Sound field Amplification System to cut down/avoid background noise.
- 33.00% (33) hearing impaired students opined that their chairs are provided with rubber tips to its legs to avoid its noise.
- 84.00% (84) hearing impaired students opined that their teachers use blackboard frequently.
Fig-1: Graph shows the percentage analysis on facilities provided by the schools for hearing impaired students (Item 1 to 9).

Table-2: Shows the percentage analysis on facilities provided by the schools for hearing impaired students (Item Nos. 10 to 18).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item No.</th>
<th>Facilities provided by the Schools</th>
<th>f</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>Does your teachers encourage participating in co-curricular activities?</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>92.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.</td>
<td>Can you hear your teacher from anywhere in the classroom?</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>61.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.</td>
<td>Is your teacher's instruction more clear to you?</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>85.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.</td>
<td>Do you use your hearing aid?</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>84.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14.</td>
<td>Do you feel tired at the end of the day?</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>51.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15.</td>
<td>Is your classroom equipped with sufficient electrical outlets like tape recorders, computers etc for operating program?</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>62.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16.</td>
<td>Do you have any class meant for discussion and group activities?</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>86.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17.</td>
<td>Are captioned videos/DVDs used?</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>64.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18.</td>
<td>Are printed copies of the examination announcements issued to you?</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>52.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
From table-2 it is clear that

- 92.00% (92) hearing impaired students opined that their teachers encourage participating in co-curricular activities.
- 61.00% (61) hearing impaired students opined that they can hear their teachers from anywhere in the classroom.
- 85.00% (85) hearing impaired students opined that their teacher’s instructions are clearer to them.
- 84.00% (84) hearing impaired students opined that they use hearing aid.
- 51.00% (54) hearing impaired students opined that they feel tired at the end of the day.
- 62.00% (62) hearing impaired students opined that their class rooms are equipped with sufficient electrical outlets like tape recorders, computers etc for operating programs
- 86.00% (86) hearing impaired students opined that they have classes meant for discussion and group activities
- 64.00% (64) hearing impaired students opined that captioned DVDs are used
- 52.00% (52) hearing impaired students opined that printed copies of the examination announcements are issued to them.

Fig-2: Bar graph shows the percentage analysis on facilities provided by the schools for hearing impaired students (Item Nos.10 to 18).
Table-3: Shows the percentage analysis on facilities provided by the schools for hearing impaired students (Item Nos.19 to 27).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item No.</th>
<th>Facilities provided by the Schools</th>
<th>f</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>19.</td>
<td>Do your teachers use sign language to communicate in class?</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>82.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20.</td>
<td>Do your teachers use oral communication in class?</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>97.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21.</td>
<td>Do you have direct interaction with your teacher?</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>97.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22.</td>
<td>Do you communicate with your classmates using sign language?</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>88.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23.</td>
<td>Does your school organize any events by inviting disabled resource persons to motivate you?</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>97.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24.</td>
<td>Are your teachers friendly towards you?</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>97.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25.</td>
<td>Do you experience any vocal problems while expressing in the class room settings?</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>34.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26.</td>
<td>Did your teacher punish you for not concentrating in the class room?</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>82.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27.</td>
<td>Do you have language pathologist in your school?</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>85.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From table-3 it is clear that:

- 82.00% (82) hearing impaired students opined that their teachers use sign language to communicate in class
- 97.00% (92) hearing impaired students opined that their teachers use oral communication in class
- 97.00% (92) hearing impaired students opined that they have direct interaction with their teachers
- 88.00% (88) hearing impaired students opined that they communicate with their classmates using sign language
- 97.00% (97) hearing impaired students opined that their schools organize events by inviting disabled resource persons to motivate them.
- 97.00% (97) hearing impaired students opined that their teachers are friendly towards them.
- 34.00% (34) hearing impaired students opined that they experience vocal problems while expressing in the class room settings.
- 82.00% (82) hearing impaired students opined that their teachers punish them for not concentrating in the class room.
A Study of the Facilities Provided by the Special Schools for Hearing Impaired Students

- 85.00% (85) hearing impaired students opined that they have language pathologist in their schools.

![Bar Graph showing percentage analysis on facilities provided by the schools for hearing impaired students (Item Nos. 19 to 27).](image)

Fig 3: Bar Graph shows the percentage analysis on facilities provided by the schools for hearing impaired students (Item Nos.19 to 27).

Table 4: Shows the percentage analysis on facilities provided by the schools for hearing impaired students (Item Nos.28 to 36).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item No.</th>
<th>Facilities provided by the Schools</th>
<th>f</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>28.</td>
<td>Do you have audiologist in your school?</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>29.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29.</td>
<td>Do you have counselors in your school?</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>64.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30.</td>
<td>Is your teacher clearly visible to you all the time?</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>97.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31.</td>
<td>Do your teachers keep her hands and other objects away from her face while speaking?</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>49.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32.</td>
<td>Do your teachers speak while facing the blackboard?</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>19.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33.</td>
<td>Do your teachers move around the class room while speaking?</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>44.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34.</td>
<td>Do your teachers communicate clearly by repeating, rephrasing whenever necessary and emphasizing on key words?</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>95.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35.</td>
<td>Does your teachers use focusing phrase like “listen to this question”?</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36.</td>
<td>Do your teachers check for understanding by asking to repeat what you have heard?</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>94.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
From Table-4.4 it is clear that

- 29.00% (29) hearing impaired students opined that they have audiologist in their schools.
- 64.00% (64) hearing impaired students opined that they have counsellors in their schools.
- 97.00% (97) hearing impaired students opined that their teachers are clearly visible to them all the time.
- 49.00% (49) hearing impaired students opined that their teachers keep their hands and other objects away from their face while speaking.
- 19.00% (19) hearing impaired students opined that their teachers speak while facing the blackboard.
- 44.00% (44) hearing impaired students opined that their teachers move around the class room while speaking.
- 95.00% (95) hearing impaired students opined that their teachers communicate clearly by repeating, rephrasing whenever necessary and emphasizing on key words.
- 100.00% (100) hearing impaired students opined that their teachers use focusing phrase like “listen to this question”.
- 94.00% (94) hearing impaired students opined that their teachers check for understanding by asking to repeat what they have heard.

Fig-4: Bar graph shows the percentage analysis on facilities provided by the schools for hearing impaired students (Item Nos.28 to 36).
Table-5: Shows the percentage analysis on facilities provided by the schools for hearing impaired students (Item Nos.37 to 45).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item No.</th>
<th>Facilities provided by the Schools</th>
<th>f</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>37.</td>
<td>Do your teachers give you some time to look at visual aids before talking about it?</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38.</td>
<td>Do you have opportunities to practice on the computer?</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>81.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>39.</td>
<td>Do you get first-aid treatment when you are injured?</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>89.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40.</td>
<td>Do you have transportation facility?</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>52.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41.</td>
<td>Do you get your health check-up done frequently from your school?</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>96.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>42.</td>
<td>Is there proper toilet facility in your school?</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>86.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>43.</td>
<td>Does your school provide facilities like smart boards to make the chapter clear?</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>57.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44.</td>
<td>Does your teacher perform live demonstrations and experiments during teaching-learning process?</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>97.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45.</td>
<td>Do you have battery tester in your school to check the hearing aid everyday?</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>86.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From table-5 it is clear that
- 100.00% (100) hearing impaired students opined that their teachers give them some time to look at visual aids before talking about it.
- 81.00% (81) hearing impaired students opined that they have opportunities to practice on the computer.
- 89.00% (89) hearing impaired students opined that they get first-aid treatment when they are injured.
- 52.00% (52) hearing impaired students opined that they have transportation facilities.
- 96.00% (96) hearing impaired students opined that they get their health check-up done frequently from their schools.
- 86.00% (86) hearing impaired students opined that they have proper toilet facilities in their schools.
- 57.00% (57) hearing impaired students opined that their schools provide facilities like smart boards to make the chapter clear.
- 97.00% (97) hearing impaired students opined that their teacher performs live demonstrations and experiments during teaching-learning process.
• 86.00% (86) hearing impaired students opined that they have battery tester in their schools to check the hearing aid every day.

Fig-5: Bar graph shows the percentage analysis on facilities provided by the schools for hearing impaired students (Item Nos.37 to 45).

Table-6: Shows the percentage analysis on facilities provided by the schools for hearing impaired students (Item 46 to 48).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item No.</th>
<th>Facilities provided by the Schools</th>
<th>f</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>46.</td>
<td>Do your teachers promote printed materials?</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>88.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>47.</td>
<td>Do your teachers praise you for achievements in appropriate ways?</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>96.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>48.</td>
<td>Does the teacher consult your parents if there are difficulties in instruction and behavior?</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>98.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From table-6 it is seen that
• 88.00% (88) hearing impaired students opined that their teachers promote printed materials.
• 96.00% (96) hearing impaired students opined that their teachers praise them for the achievements in appropriate ways
A Study of the Facilities Provided by the Special Schools for Hearing Impaired Students

- 98.00% (98) hearing impaired students opined that their teacher consults their parents if there are difficulties in instruction and behavior.

Fig-6: Bar graph shows the percentage analysis on facilities provided by the schools for hearing impaired students (Item Nos.46 to 48).

Interview questions for parents:

- How does their child manage with her/his routine work?
- What type of training should be given in schools?
- What are the extra facilities you have provided to your child?
- What are the facilities you expect from schools for your child?

From the responses given by the parents having hearing impaired child for the above questions, it was clear that their children were able to manage all the routine works independently but they were feeling dependent only when they were in crowd and were able to communicate to some extent on their own and used to ask for help when people communicate too fast. Few parents insisted that schools should appoint well trained teachers who should be committed to their profession. Maximum parents expected from schools to make their child independent by training all the required skills for their future life so that each and every member of the society should have empathetic feeling rather than sympathetic feeling towards their child. They also expected government to support them financially in giving treatment including cochlear implantation because maximum children were from poor background family and were not able to give treatment due to their financial problems.
Interview question for teachers:

Interview questions for the teachers teaching hearing impaired students included

- What facilities you expect from school to be provided to give justice for your students?
- What type of training will help them to be successful in their life?
- Which is the best method of teaching them?

Since teachers interact with students more they play a vital role in student’s life. Henceforth the responses given by them supports in knowing the facilities required for the success in the student’s life. Their responses highlighted that activity method would be the effective instructional strategy and also use of visuals, pictures, videos, demonstrations, models for making abstract concepts clear to them which would be impossible for them to understand. Teachers also suggested that students must be trained through speech therapy, verbal therapy for language development. Along with all this auditory training must also be given which helps them in hearing and distinguishing sounds. Most important information which every teacher included that they must be given vocational training in the field of computers, welding, machine operating like drilling etc.

**Educational Implications**

A child with hearing impairment will have lot of barriers in his/her life. In this regard school plays a very important role in making them to lead their life independently like other normal child. Henceforth each and every schools should take the responsibility in providing maximum facilities including placement services, vocational training courses in photography, printing, tailoring, cutting, soldering, turner, fitter, art, craft and etc.. Institutions should also providing, speech therapy, teach skills related to social interaction. Teachers should also take initiality in training and promoting sports and games for them. Apart from all this organisations must provide recreational facilities. Since many special schools are residential schools they should also conduct yoga regularly. All this to be successful the role of parents are very much important because without their support nothing will be possible. In this regard even parent education in how to handle their children should be given importance. Counselling for parents and students should be arranged. Some workshops and seminars for advocacy of the cause should be provided along with pre-vocational skills and referral services for children. Special schools for hearing impaired should also offer testing and diagnosis of hearing and speech disorders and arrangements should be made in providing hearing aids by detecting hearing problem at a young age itself.

Special schools should take initiality in appointing trained teachers who will be dedicated and committed to their profession. Teachers should have empathetic feeling while selecting teaching strategies for them.
When parents learn that their child has a disability, they begin a journey that takes them into a life that is often filled with strong emotions, difficult choices, interactions with many different professionals and specialists and an ongoing need for information and services. Initially they feel isolated and alone and not know where to begin their search for information, assistance, understanding and support. Since parental involvement is crucial in every step of the way many don’t know how to deal with their children’s disability and they tend to do everything for them which does more harm than good because children should not become completely dependent on them. Parents of hearing impaired child must converse on all the incidents and activities going around him to enhance the communication skills, give an opportunity to acquire language and do all their routines independently. Parents can also take the help of special teachers in planning activities for their child, have regular contact with the teachers so that they can also help their child in education at home by following the techniques used in class room teaching. Finally both teachers and parents must inculcate good values and develop a sound moral character in the child and allow them to express themselves freely.

**Conclusion**

By all this the researcher would like to conclude that parental adjustment appears to be unsatisfactory and also it was observers that it seem to be difficult for most of the parents with low educational level very poor families and to help their children in reading, writing and make use of time with them. From the responses of teachers it was also clear that acute shortage of special teaching techniques among them was an obstacle in many classroom activities. Classroom lessons were not supplemented with activities and experiences that develop language and general knowledge of hearing impaired students. Finally there is a need for support services and special equipments urgently for minimizing the problems of hearing impaired children in which even social integration should be made practical for hearing impaired child through such means as games, social clubs and plays of both the hearing and the hearing impaired within the school compound.

**References:**

Bernard HR. Research methods in anthropology: Qualitative and quantitative approaches. 3rd Alta Mira Press; Walnut Creek, CA: 2002.


PEACE EDUCATION AS MANIFESTED IN NCERT’S PRESCRIBED TEXTBOOK

Rita Arora*  
Shaini Varghese**

Abstract

The research paper presents the results of an investigation which has explored the presence of the core elements of peace education within the English language core textbook, i.e. ‘Flamingo’ of Standard XII. For the above mentioned objective, content analysis of the textbook was done. The elements of peace education were analyzed with the tool constructed and standardized later. The study revealed that amongst the peace elements, ‘Think positive’ has been the ‘key’ that unlocks all the other doors towards peace education. The concurrent position was bagged by the element ‘Develop critical thinking’.

Keywords: Integration, peace education, NCERT, Flamingo

Introduction

The concept of peace ranks amongst the most controversial of our time. Everyone wants to achieve peace and keeps on searching for it every now and then. Today, life has become more stressful due to the increase in tensions, traumas and other undue pressures resulting from competitions, challenges, conflicts, etc. - whether they pertain to our work places, homes or other immediate surroundings. When they erupt, they lead towards violent outbursts like suspicion, clashes, murders and even suicides. The daily newspapers are replete with news of such tragic happenings, e.g. rapes,

* Former Professor and Dean, Department of Education, University of Rajasthan.  
** Research Scholar, Department of Education, University of Rajasthan
abductions, murders, suicides, riots and many more. The statistical numbers of these crimes are increasing year after year.

The concept of peace can be understood underneath its two dimensions—Negative dimension (absence of violence) and Positive dimension (state of harmony). Peace has been redefined in the latter case. Instead of absence of war, it has been increasingly recognized as tolerance, understanding, respect for differences, health, contentment, social justice, dynamic participation and is a long term process based on universal values and everyday life practices. Hence, the linkages between negative and positive peace should be established to provide sustainable guidance on how to manage and resolve conflict, how to reduce violence and instead promote the values of harmony, justice and freedom.

‘Peace education’ conceptually means to nurture the knowledge, skills, attitudes and values that can form a culture of peace. Peace education has two fold purposes:

- To empower individuals to choose the way of peace rather than the way of violence in order to develop the sensitivity of a just and caring attitude.
- To enable them to be the producers of peace rather than consumers of peace because one can have peace only when it is given to others in the form of love, freedom, respect, etc.

Peace element is seen as one of the important four pillars of learning as enunciated within the UNESCO report, presented by Jacques Delores in ‘Learning: The treasure within’. The four pillars are—learn to know, learn to do, learn to live together and learn to be.

There is an urgent need to treat peace education holistically not fragmentarily. It is well stated in the National Curriculum Framework 2005 that alongside various subjects, curricular areas such as Work and Education, Art Education, Health and Physical Education and Education for Peace, need to be focused.

It is stated in position paper, ‘Education for Peace’, that peace oriented values should be promoted within all the subjects. It is important to remember that peace education need not be treated as an additional academic subject; instead it should be a general orientation that needs to be introduced in the existing subjects, text books and teaching discourses.

**Need for the Study**

For a large and diverse nation with the second highest population in the world, India badly needs secular ethics which are key elements of peace education. Today, we are facing multiple threats to peace resulting from road rages, hectic and busy life styles, students’ unrest, community unrests, structural and domestic violence, socio-cultural and day to day crimes resulting due to ineffective handling of conflicts. The ability to deal with conflict is important for building of peace in the society or for
Peace Education as manifested in NCERT’s prescribed Testbook

oneself. Thus it needs to be realized that if peace education is integrated in our learning materials, then proper progress can be made in this direction.

The textbook ‘Flamingo’ prescribed by the NCERT generally deals with the content part only and the language textbook focus mainly on communication skills, but other concerns like joy and inner harmony, removal of gender bias, respect for manual labour, physical, mental and emotional development and well-being, appreciation of cultural heritage, etc. are some more foci that have been implicitly or explicitly woven into the content of textbooks. The need of the hour is to identify them and internalize the knowledge, values, skills and attitudes showcased within the content part of the curriculum.

The researcher underwent the review of related literatures on peace concerns which were studies mainly conducted in foreign countries. Thus it was felt by the researcher that there is a need for conducting a study based on these parameters, within the Indian and localized context.

Objectives

- To explore the ten core elements of peace education as mentioned in the UNESCO Handbook on Peace Education with regard to the NCERT’s prescribed English Language textbook ‘Flamingo’.
- To find out which of the core elements of peace education are properly reflected in the NCERT’s prescribed English Language textbook ‘Flamingo’.

Assumption

The present study is based on the assumption that the prescribed English Language textbook of NCERT ‘Flamingo’ contains within its lessons, the peace elements as mentioned in the UNESCO Handbook on Peace Education.

Methodology

It was felt that an effective analysis of the contents of English Language textbook, ‘Flamingo’ with respect to peace elements, would require a qualitative research which includes Content Analysis as a tool.

Sample

The sample used for the present study is the NCERT English language Core textbook ‘Flamingo’ that was selected purposively.

Tool

The tool for the present study comprised of a tool kit used to analyze the core elements of peace education in the textbooks.

Findings

The research findings have been represented on the basis of coding categories i.e. Name of the Lesson, Introduction, Content Part, Visual Representation and
Exercises. The total frequency of the appearances of the ten peace elements, found during the analyses of 'Flamingo', was 74.

In Flamingo (as shown in Table No. 1), it was seen that peace element 'Think Positive' had the highest standing with 32.53%. As such, it can be safely concluded that the textbooks strive to inculcate within the students the attitude of thinking positive, probably because it is at the heart of peace education goals. The second leading peace element found was of peace element 'Develop critical thinking' at 21.62%. The least appearances were of peace elements viz. 'Be your true self' with 1.35% , and 'Be compassionate and do no harm', 'Build peace in community', 'Caring for the planet' with 2.70%. With regard to the least represented peace elements, one must also consider the fact that a supplementary reader is also prescribed and that there should be a gradual progression from XI to XII, keeping age specific concerns in mind.

Table 1: FLAMINGO- A Course Reader

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S. No.</th>
<th>Name of the Peace elements</th>
<th>Name of the Lesson</th>
<th>Introduction</th>
<th>Content Part</th>
<th>Visual Representation</th>
<th>Exercise</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Think Positive</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>32.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Be Compassionate and Do no Harm</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Discover Inner Peace</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>14.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Learning to Live Together</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Respect Human Dignity</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>9.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Be your True Self</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>Develop Critical Thinking</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>21.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>Resolve Conflict Non-Violently</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>Build Peace in Community</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>Caring for the Planet</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>74</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>%</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td>5.41</td>
<td>13.51</td>
<td>56.76</td>
<td>5.41</td>
<td>18.92</td>
<td></td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Peace Education as manifested in NCERT’s prescribed Testbook

When the analyses were done on the basis of ‘coding categories’, the following findings were revealed:

**Table 2: Peace elements vis-à-vis Coding Categories**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of the Lesson</th>
<th>Introduction</th>
<th>Content Part</th>
<th>Visual</th>
<th>Exercise</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>‘FLAMINGO’</td>
<td>5.41</td>
<td>56.76</td>
<td>18.92</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘Think Positive’</td>
<td>13.51</td>
<td>5.41</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Name of the Lesson: ‘FLAMINGO’ represents 5.41% of peace elements within the topics of its lessons. This can be attributed to the fact that course readers are meant for intensive reading and as such involving peace elements within the topics not only prepares the reader for the forthcoming content, but also paves the way for reflective thinking. A variety of peace elements have been identified within the names of the lessons, which have been mentioned below:

‘Think Positive’ has been seen in the name of the lesson in the *poetry lesson 2* – ‘An Elementary School Classroom in a Slum’ which deals with the positive concept of running a school in a slum area. The same peace element is reflected in the name of the *poetry lesson 4*, that identifies the above mentioned peace element within ‘A Thing of Beauty’ by Keats, which deals with the significance of positive outlook and appreciation. ‘Discover Inner Peace’ has been seen in the name of *poetry lesson 3* – ‘Keeping Quiet’ which signifies the importance of silence in order to develop peace and calming effect within oneself. ‘Respect Human Dignity’ element is observed in the name of the *poetry lesson 1* - ‘My Mother at Sixty-six’ by Kamala Das suggests an elderly mother looking for respect. ‘Develop Critical Thinking’ is seen in the name of the *prose lesson 2* - ‘Lost Spring’ which provokes a deep thinking towards the concept of spring, a season known for bringing peace from the heavens above but is juxtaposed against the feeling of 'lost' one. A peaceful and serene Kashmir as differentiated by the recent times.

To sum up, peace elements have been found in one out of eight topics of prose lessons and four out of six topics of the poetry lessons.

**Introduction:** In introduction wise analysis, the thought provoking questions or statements given in the introductory part of the lesson in ‘Flamingo’ were analyzed and was found to be 13.51% vis-à-vis their relevance with the peace elements. ‘Think positive’ has been stressed over here. For instance, in *poetry lesson 4* - ‘A Thing of
Beauty asks the students to probe about the aspects related to beauty that are eternal and time lasting. Hence, the appreciation for everlasting beauty is revealed:

How much true is it within the prevailing situation of Kashmir? A beautiful ‘thing’ bestowed by the Almighty, ravaged by stone-pelting, encounter deaths – all banal refusals to accept peace.

Content Part: The analysis of the content part delves with the presence of the peace elements both within narratives as well as dialogues. The peace elements were found in the maximum in the content part, i.e. 56.76%. Again the peace element of ‘Think positive’ acquires an upper hand. The positive concept also runs throughout in prose lesson 2 - ‘Lost Spring’, where hope remains paramount in the heart of children of slum areas. The lines:

all show their optimistic view point.

Visual Representation: The Visual Representation dealing with peace elements has been found in equal numbers as in name of the lesson. Both acquired only 5.41%. Here it must also be mentioned that the element of ‘Develop critical thinking’ was given prominence. For instance, it is seen in poetry lesson 3 - ‘Keeping Quiet’ which is about creating a feeling of mutual understanding among human beings. The visual representation portrays a man in the form of tree whose feet are shown rooted with the problems created by human beings themselves. The Man usually gets involved in self created problems and increases the tension and complexities of life.

Exercises: In exercises given at the end of the lessons, questions and activities have been analyzed with reference to the peace elements that infer a factual understanding and foster a healthy outlook towards the mentioned peace elements. They showcase a standing of 35% with a bias towards ‘Develop critical thinking’.

For example, in prose lesson 2 - ‘Lost Spring’, by asking our students to ponder on child labour and its moral and social implications, we want them to form an ‘over
Peace Education as manifested in NCERT’s prescribed Testbook

riding identity informed by caring concerns within the democratic polity of the country’ - one of the guiding principles of NCF-2005:

The prose lesson 5 - ‘Indigo’ is about the non violent agitation undertaken by Gandhiji for the Champaran indigo peasants, a poor section of our erstwhile society. The poignant aspect of this matter is that even after 68 years of independence, we are asking our students whether we are in a position to afford our poor ‘freedom from fear’ as in Talking about text – Q.1:

Thus, it was also noted that ‘Flamingo’ as a course reader vis-à-vis other course readers, provided the highest frequency of the peace elements i.e. 66.67%. This might be due to the fact that course readers are designed to act as the ‘basic’ books which need to be taught. But there is still a better scope for furthering the amount of peace elements.

Even a cursory glance at the statistics involved, shows that a conscious effort has been made to veer away from showcasing peace elements from the prose lessons towards the poetry lessons. The nature of the peace elements themselves stem from the development of aesthetic sensibilities and as such the genre of poetry suitably lends itself for the said purpose.

Suggestions for enhancement of peace

Nobody can deny that there is an urgent need to incorporate the elements of Peace Education within our lives. An important step in this regard would be to nurture them within the new generation, and how better than to do it within the ambit of school textbooks.

- ‘Think positive’, ‘Be your true self’ and ‘Discover inner peace’ are complementary in nature. This very fact should make us realize that these are the elements that need to be incorporated more often.
- ‘Caring for the planet’ and ‘Develop peace in community’ acquire subsidiary importance because of the fact that we, as a generation, are consuming the resources that Mother Earth has to offer, at a rapid pace. At the same time, since our society is of a multifarious nature, both these elements teach us the
value of jurisprudence, the need to make ourselves aware of the fact to behave judiciously and with concern towards others. As it is rightly stated, ‘We have not inherited this Earth from our forefathers; we are merely trustees to our children.’

> Being compassionate towards others will help us to learn to live together, respect human dignity, and develop critical thinking and to resolve conflicts non-violently.

**References**


Abstract

Enrolment and retention are the two most important dimensions of elementary education in the perspective of Right of Children to Free and Compulsory Education Act, 2009. In this regard present research focuses on the changing scenario of elementary education mainly and also attempts to compare the above mentioned dimensions between Muslim minority and other community children of the rural areas of South 24 Parganas district of West Bengal. Data collected from 250 Muslim and 100 from other community families selected by applying multi-stage random sampling technique using self-made household survey schedule containing 50 items. The study covered three phases, i.e. Phase I, (2015, after five years of implementation of RTE Act, 2009), Phase II (2007, before implementation of RTE Act, 2009), and Phase III (1999, before implementation of Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan) and phase wise analysis was done both qualitatively and quantitatively.

The study found that although the target of 100% enrolment and retention in elementary education was not achieved even after 5 years of enactment of RTE Act, 2009 but percentages of non-enrolment at elementary level decreased from Phase III to Phase I i.e. Net Enrolment Ratio (NER) has increased. The NER of Muslim
children increased quite prominently from phase III to phase II than from phase II to phase I. So, the effect of Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan Programme was found to be quite remarkable. But in case of retention at elementary level of education it was found that significant difference exists between Muslim and other community children. The increase in the rate of retention from phase II to phase I indicate that the impact of Right to Education Act, 2009 was positive.

Key Words: Right to Education Act 2009, Muslim children, elementary education, Net Enrolment Ratio (NER), retention.

Introduction

The right to education requires a commitment to ensuring universal access, including taking all necessary measures to reach the most marginalized children. Making schools accessible and available is an important first step in fulfilling this right, but not sufficient to ensure its realization. Equality of opportunity can only be achieved by removing barriers in the community and in schools.

The landmark passing of the Rights of Children to Free and Compulsory Education Act (RTE), 2009 by Indian Parliament on 04.08.2009 marks a historic moment for the children of India. For the first time in India’s history, children are guaranteed their right to quality elementary education by the state with the help of families and communities. According to this act, all children between the age group 6-14 years shall have the right to free and compulsory elementary education at a neighbourhood school irrespective of caste, creed, colour and religion. There is no direct (school fees) or indirect costs (uniforms, textbooks, mid-day meals, transportation etc) to be borne by the child or their parents to obtain elementary education. The objective of the act is to enable every child to get free and compulsory admission (enrolment) that is 100% enrolment, attendance, and completion of elementary education in a neighbourhood school. The act makes provisions for a non-admitted child within age group 6 to 14 years to be admitted to an age appropriate class along with getting special training. The government will provide schooling free of cost until a child’s elementary education is completed. The act ensures that the child belonging to weaker section and the child belonging to disadvantaged group are not discriminated against and prevented from pursuing and completing elementary education on any ground. It came into effect in the whole of India except the state of Jammu and Kashmir from 01.04.2010 and India became one of the 135 countries to make education a fundamental right for every child.

Muslims are the principal minority community and second religious community after the Hindus in India, in general and in West Bengal in particular. According to Census of India 2011, they constitute 14.64% and 27.0% of total population in India and in West Bengal respectively. They are educationally most backward, economically poor and politically a powerless community. They are also socially disadvantaged and excluded group in terms of physical and infrastructural
facilities even where they constitute the majority population of a district (Census Report, 2011; 124-125).

According to various high level committee and commissions of government, which were set up for the study of minority and socio-economically backward groups, Muslims are very poor whether it is in urban area or in rural area in comparison to SC/STs and other socio-religious communities and Other Backward Classes (OBCs) in India. Their improvement on some indicators such as literacy, employment, health, etc. is still marginal and lower than SC/STs in India. It has been observed in social and anthropological study of Muslims by different scholars that the Muslims have experienced discrimination and injustice in case of both targeted violence during communal riots as well as participation in the development process of the country as a whole. They are unequally treated in several streams of social life. They are the victims of prejudice, discrimination, exploitation and subjugation. This has been observed in the government response to the implementation of various development schemes, programmes and making policy and planning (Parvez, Ayesha. 2011; 1-6). According to the Human Development Report 2011 of Planning Commission of India, urban literacy in general has increased from 69.8% (1999-2000) to 75.1% (2007-08) and rural literacy from 52.1% to63.5%. However, the rate of increase of literacy amongst Muslims in comparison to other socio-religious groups is also lowest. Urban literacy in the SC group has increased by 8.7 points and among the ST group by 8 points. Among Muslims, it has increased only by 5.3 points.

It is important to note that the enrolment of Muslim children in elementary education is lower than their share in the population across the country. It is also significant that the share of Muslim boys’ enrolment is less at the upper primary level as compared to the primary level. Muslim children, by their socio-cultural circumstances, including the occupation of their parents are quite vulnerable to early drop out. This is particularly so in the semi-urban and urban areas where the attraction of work as against schooling is enhanced due to increased availability of work options. The enrolment of Muslim girls in KGBVs is also a cause for concern. In addition, the lack of opportunity of studying Urdu as an optional language at the elementary school level is also known to push Muslim students out of the schooling system.

Emergence of the problem

While the Sachar Committee Report agrees that the widespread perception of discrimination among the Muslim community needs to be addressed, nonetheless it admits that there are hardly any empirical studies that establish discrimination (SCR, 239). The term, when associated particularly with the Muslim community, is fraught with negative meanings, imageries and ideas that may trigger further speculation. Most of the previous researches did not treat the Muslim community as a separate socio-religious group. While data for SC/STs and on gaps in development exist, the
absence of focus on the Muslim community does not bring to the forefront their specific socio-economic status. The advantage of focusing on the conditions of minorities in terms of standard socioeconomic indices is to clearly highlight their condition, which would have been glossed over if the research were conducted by focusing on the SC/STs only. The purpose of this study is to help the policy makers to draw an action plan for educational, socio-economical, and infrastructural development of the minorities for improving the quality of life of the people and reducing the imbalances among the communities and to perpetuate wider social awareness, among the common people thereby constructively sustaining ongoing discussions and dialogues on this delicate issue. In doing so, it urges the larger society to think through issues of discrimination and the like such as casteism, groupism, etc—the social hurdles which seemingly appear to play little to no direct role in addressing and reducing developmental deficits, are nonetheless inextricably linked to the overall growth and advancement of the country.

Objectives of the Study

The following objectives were taken for the present study.

- To study the present scenario of enrolment and retention of Muslim Children at elementary level of education.
- To compare the present status of enrolment and retention between Muslim boys and Muslim girls children.
- To compare the enrolment and retention of Muslim children before and after implementation of the RTE Act, 2009.
- To compare the enrolment and retention between Muslim community and other community children.

Research hypotheses

In the present study the following hypotheses have been formulated:

- H₀₁: There is no significant difference in NER between Muslim boys and Muslim girls children.
- H₀₂: There is no significant difference in NER of Muslim children before and after implementation of the RTE Act, 2009.
- H₀₃: There is no significant difference in NER between Muslim and Other Community children.
- H₀₄: There is no significant difference in retention between Muslim boys and Muslim girls children.
- H₀₅: There is no significant difference in retention of Muslim children before and after implementation of the RTE Act, 2009.
- H₀₆: There is no significant difference in retention between Muslim and Other Community children.
Elementary Education of Muslims: Enrolment and Retention

Methodology

Sampling Techniques and Sample Size

Multistage stratified random sampling technique was adopted for selecting the sample. The South 24 Parganas district is a highly Muslim concentrated comprising 35.6% of minority Muslim population (Census 2011). The Muslim population was scattered through the five sub-divisions with varying level of educational standards and practices. Five (5) backward and Muslim concentrated villages from five sub-divisions (one each from five sub-division) and one village adjacent to one of such village which was primarily non-Muslim concentrated were identified from the district with the help of Census, 2011 data. From among these villages, only those families which had children of the age group 6 to 14 years were identified. Among them, fifty (50) Muslim families from each such village and fifty (50) non-Muslim families from two villages of the said district were selected randomly for the purpose of the present study. Thus, 50x5=250 (Two hundred and fifty) Muslim families and 50x2=100 (One hundred) non-Muslim families i.e. altogether (250+100) =350 (three hundred and fifty) families were taken as the sample.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Villages</th>
<th>Muslim</th>
<th>Non-Muslim</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>V1(Rasapunja)</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V2(Gobindabati &amp; Durbarati)</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V3(Kanthalberia)</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V4(Fatepur)</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V5(Narayanpur)</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>250</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Tool

Household survey schedule was used. It was prepared by the researchers and finalized on the basis of experts’ opinion and results of the Pilot Study.

Findings and discussion

Enrolment of children at elementary schools

Right to Education Act, 2009 came into effect in the whole of India except the state of Jammu and Kashmir from 01/04/2010. It was brought into force with a speech of the Prime Minister of India, who stated that, “we are committed to ensure all children, irrespective of gender and social category have access to education.” The target age group for the present study was children belonging to 6 to 14 years. In order to make a comparative study of Net Enrolment Ratio (NER) before and after the
implementation of RTE Act, 2009, children were divided into three age groups, viz, 1) 6-14 years, 2) 14-22 years, and 3) 22-30 years respectively. The year denoted for Phase I, Phase II, and Phase III are 2015, 2007 and 1999 respectively. The researcher conducted the survey during 2015. The details of the three phases are described in the following table.

Table 2: Three Phases

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Phase</th>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Importance of the timing</th>
<th>Phase wise Age</th>
<th>Age in 2015</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Phase I</td>
<td>2015</td>
<td>After implementation of RTE Act, 2009</td>
<td>6-14 years</td>
<td>6-14 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phase II</td>
<td>2007</td>
<td>Before implementation of RTE Act, 2009</td>
<td>6-14 years</td>
<td>14-22 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phase III</td>
<td>1999</td>
<td>Before implementation of Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan</td>
<td>6-14 years</td>
<td>22-30 years</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

During the year 1999 those children who did not avail the benefit of Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan (SSA) programme as it was not implemented at that time were found to belong to the age group 22-30 years when data were collected by the researcher (2015-16) for the present study. Those who belonged to the age group 14-22 years when data were collected they could avail the benefits of SSA programme but could not avail the benefits of the RTE Act, 2009. Children of age group 6-14 years were particularly focused in order to access the impact of the RTE Act, 2009, five years after the enactment of the act in our country.

Table 3: Phase-wise, community-wise, and gender-wise Net Enrolment Ratio (NER)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Phase</th>
<th>Community</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Number</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Number</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phase I</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Muslim</td>
<td>190(202)</td>
<td>94.1</td>
<td>200(206)</td>
<td>97.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>59(61)</td>
<td>96.7</td>
<td>51(51)</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phase II</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Muslim</td>
<td>150(163)</td>
<td>92.0</td>
<td>156(164)</td>
<td>95.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>52(53)</td>
<td>98.1</td>
<td>42(44)</td>
<td>95.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phase III</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Muslim</td>
<td>60(75)</td>
<td>80.0</td>
<td>62(83)</td>
<td>74.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Numbers of total children are given in the brackets.

It was observed from the above table that although the target of 100% enrolment in elementary education was not achieved even after 5 years of enactment of RTE Act, 2009 but it is no doubt about the fact that percentages of non-enrolment at elementary level has definitely decreased from Phase III to Phase I i.e. Net Enrolment Ratio (NER) has increased (table 3). The NER of Muslim children was 77.2%, 93.6%,
and 95.6% in Phase III, in Phase II, and in Phase I respectively and for other community it was 86.8%, 96.9%, and 98.2% respectively.

**Table-4: Comparison of gender-wise enrolment of Muslim children**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Phase</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Total children</th>
<th>Enrolled Children</th>
<th>Proportion</th>
<th>Z-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Phase I</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>202</td>
<td>190</td>
<td>0.94</td>
<td>1.49_{ns}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>206</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>0.97</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phase II</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>163</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>0.92</td>
<td>1.14_{ns}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>164</td>
<td>156</td>
<td>0.95</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phase III</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>0.80</td>
<td>0.79_{ns}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>0.75</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Z_{0.05}=1.64 | s = significant, ns = not significant |

The Z-values for comparison of gender wise enrolment of Muslim children are presented in the above table. It shows that the Z-values in Phase I (1.49), in phase II (1.14) and in phase III (0.79) are not significant. So, the null hypothesis, “\(H_0: \text{There is no significant difference in NER between Muslim boys and Muslim girls children}\)” is accepted here.

The results indicate that in phase III enrolment of male children (80%) was higher than that of female children (74.7%), but in phase II and in phase I the enrolment of female children (95.1% and 97.1%) were higher than that of male children (92% and 94.1%). This is because; the attitude of guardians towards the education of girl child has been changed by this time mainly due to small family size. Average number of family members for both Muslims and non Muslims was almost same 5% and 4.5% respectively. According to Pande (2001), gender discrimination is declining due to adoption of small family size norm. In comparison to all India trend, we can see a similar picture. The enrolment rate of both the gender category in lower primary (class I- class IV) and upper primary classes (class V- class VIII) increased impressively.

**Table 5: Comparison of phase-wise enrolment of Muslim children**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Phase</th>
<th>Total Children</th>
<th>Enrolled Children</th>
<th>Proportion</th>
<th>Z-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Phase I</td>
<td>408</td>
<td>390</td>
<td>0.96</td>
<td>1.21_{ns}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phase II</td>
<td>327</td>
<td>306</td>
<td>0.94</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phase II</td>
<td>327</td>
<td>306</td>
<td>0.94</td>
<td>5.24_{s}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phase III</td>
<td>158</td>
<td>122</td>
<td>0.77</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phase I</td>
<td>408</td>
<td>390</td>
<td>0.96</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phase III</td>
<td>158</td>
<td>122</td>
<td>0.77</td>
<td>6.67_{s}</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Z_{0.05}=1.64 | s = significant, ns = not significant |
The Z-values for comparison of phase wise enrolment of Muslim children are presented in the above table. It shows that the Z-values between Phase II & Phase III (5.24) and Phase I & Phase III (6.67) are significant, but the Z-value (1.21) between Phase I and Phase II is not significant. So, the null hypothesis H_{02} “there is no significant difference in Net Enrolment Ratio of Muslim minority children before and after implementation of Right to Education Act, 2009” is accepted here.

The study results indicate that the enrolment of Muslim children in elementary education increased from phase III to phase II and from phase II to phase I. But the increase in enrolment from phase III to phase II was more than that from phase II to phase I. The probable cause of higher rate of increase in enrolment of Muslim children in phase III to phase II may be because of the effect of implementation of Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan Programme. According to the research findings of Sil, N.C. (2013), the NER improved in West Tripura district after implementation of Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan Programme. DISE data also shows similar results.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Phase</th>
<th>Community</th>
<th>Total children</th>
<th>Enrolled children</th>
<th>Proportion</th>
<th>Z-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Phase I</td>
<td>Muslim</td>
<td>408</td>
<td>390</td>
<td>0.96</td>
<td>1.28_{ns}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>other</td>
<td>112</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>0.98</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phase II</td>
<td>Muslim</td>
<td>327</td>
<td>306</td>
<td>0.94</td>
<td>1.25_{ns}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>other</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>0.97</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phase III</td>
<td>Muslim</td>
<td>158</td>
<td>122</td>
<td>0.77</td>
<td>1.31_{ns}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>other</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>0.87</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Z-values for comparison of community wise enrolment of elementary children in three phases are presented in the above table. It shows that the Z-values in phase I (1.28), in phase II (1.25) and in phase III (1.31) are not significant. So, the null hypothesis H_{03} “there is no significant difference in Net Enrolment Ratio between Muslim minority and other community children” is accepted here.

Retention in elementary education

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Phase</th>
<th>Community</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Phase I</td>
<td>Muslim</td>
<td>159(190)</td>
<td>78.7</td>
<td>196(200)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Other</td>
<td>58(59)</td>
<td>95.1</td>
<td>50(51)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phase II</td>
<td>Muslim</td>
<td>68(150)</td>
<td>41.7</td>
<td>111(156)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Other</td>
<td>43(52)</td>
<td>81.1</td>
<td>41(42)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phase III</td>
<td>Muslim</td>
<td>5(60)</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>6(62)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Other</td>
<td>0(9)</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>2(24)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Numbers of total children are given in the brackets.
Elementary Education of Muslims: Enrolment and Retention

**Fig 2:** Bar-diagram of phase wise and community wise retention of children belonging to 6-14 years age group

It was observed from the above table and bar-diagram that the rate of retention of Muslim children was approximately 9%, 55%, and 87% during Phase III, Phase II, and Phase I respectively and for other community it was 5%, 87%, and 96%. It is remarkable that before SSA the rate of retention was very low in both the Muslims and other community. But after SSA the retention rate increased very sharply in both the communities though the increase was more among other community. The rate of retention further increased significantly from phase II to phase I in both the communities and as a result the dropout rate decreased vice versa. From the above table and bar-diagram we also noticed that though the retention rate increased more among Muslims from 54.7% (phase II) to 87% (phase III), yet the rate of retention was maximum among other community in phase I (96.4%). So we may mention that both the SSA and RTE Act, 2009 had influenced significantly to increase the rate of retention and there was a bigger jump in retention after SSA than after implementation of RTE Act, 2009.

**Table 8: Comparison of gender-wise retention of Muslim children**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Phase</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Total children</th>
<th>No. of retention</th>
<th>Proportion</th>
<th>Z-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Phase I</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>190</td>
<td>159</td>
<td>0.84</td>
<td>4.94&lt;sub&gt;s&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>196</td>
<td>0.98</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phase II</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>0.45</td>
<td>4.58&lt;sub&gt;s&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>156</td>
<td>111</td>
<td>0.71</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phase III</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>0.26&lt;sub&gt;ns&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<sub>Z<sub>0.05=1.64</sub> s = significant, ns = not significant</sub>

The Z-values for comparison of gender wise retention of Muslim children in three phases are presented in the above table. It shows that the Z-values between male
and female children in Phase I (4.94) and in Phase II (4.58) are significant, but in Phase III (0.26) it is not significant. The negative values of Z indicate that, in all the three phases the rate of retention of female children was higher than that of male children. So, the null hypothesis, “H₀: There is no significant difference in retention between Muslim boys and Muslim girls children” is rejected here.

The findings of Sil, N.C. (2013) showed that there was no difference of dropout rate in primary education between boys and girls. This supports findings of Nayar (1995), who observed that gender disparities have reduced considerably. Srivastav (1990) also observed that the gender gap has narrowed. But, Tilak (1996), Sudharshan (2000), Halder (2002), Srivastav (2010) found that girls’ dropout rate is higher than that of boys, which is not similar with the findings of the present study. It was found that 31 out of 190 male children and 3 out of 200 female children of Muslim minority community in the age group 6-14 years dropped out in phase I. The higher rate of drop out among male children than that of female children was found particularly in the age group of 11-14 years. Perhaps this is mainly because in this age group some of the male members of Muslim families started working as child labour willingly or unwillingly by their guardians to compensate the burden of family expenditure. Some male children were even sent to other states for earning a living as child labour like jewellery worker, readymade garments worker etc. After some months or years they return home with huge amount of money, golden jewellery, and other valuable assets which attract the other male children and guardians of the community to send more children for earning resulting in the increase in the number of drop out. On the other hand, there is no scope for female children to go to other state or even outside their house for engaging in child labour like male children mainly because of the security reason. At the same time, the female children seek social freedom in school environment apart from their restricted boundary of four walled house. Some female children also get relaxed and rest at school because if they would remain at home they were bound to do household works, cooking, nursing the younger brother or sisters, washing clothes etc. So, more number of female children wanted to continue and complete elementary education than their male counterpart.

Table 9: Comparison of phase-wise retention of Muslim children

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Phase</th>
<th>Total children</th>
<th>No. of retention</th>
<th>Proportion</th>
<th>Z-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Phase I</td>
<td>390</td>
<td>355</td>
<td>0.91</td>
<td>10.08(s)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phase II</td>
<td>306</td>
<td>179</td>
<td>0.58</td>
<td>9.30(s)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phase III</td>
<td>122</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>17.51(s)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(Z_{0.05}=1.64\)  \(s = \text{significant}, \ ns = \text{not significant} \)
The Z-values for comparison of phase wise retention of Muslim children are presented in the above table. It shows that all the Z-values between Phase I and Phase II (10.08), Phase II & Phase III (9.30) and Phase I & Phase III (17.51) are significant. The results indicate that, the rate of retention of Muslim children in elementary education increased from phase III to phase II and from phase II to phase I. So, the null hypothesis H₀₅, “there is no significant difference in retention of Muslim minority children before and after implementation of Right to Education Act, 2009” is rejected here.

The probable cause for higher rate of enrolment of Muslim children from phase III to phase II may be because of the effect of implementation of Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan Programme and from phase II to phase I may be because of the effect of implementation of Right to Education Act, 2009. The null hypothesis H₀₆, “there is no significant difference in retention of Muslim minority children before and after implementation of the Right to Education Act, 2009” is rejected here. So, the impact of the Right to Education Act, 2009 in case of increasing rate of retention of Muslim minority children in elementary education is positive.

Table 10: Comparison of community-wise retention of elementary children

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Phase</th>
<th>Community</th>
<th>Total children</th>
<th>Enrolled children</th>
<th>Proportion</th>
<th>Z-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Phase I</td>
<td>Muslim</td>
<td>390</td>
<td>355</td>
<td>0.91</td>
<td>2.53ₙₛ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>other</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>108</td>
<td>0.98</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phase II</td>
<td>Muslim</td>
<td>306</td>
<td>179</td>
<td>0.58</td>
<td>5.52ₙₛ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>other</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>0.89</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phase III</td>
<td>Muslim</td>
<td>122</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>0.54ₙₛ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>other</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Z₀.₀₅=1.64 s = significant, ns = not significant

The Z-values for comparison of community wise retention of elementary children in all three phases are presented in the above table. It shows that the Z-values between Muslim and other community children in Phase I (2.53), and in Phase II (5.52) are significant, but in Phase III (0.54) it is not significant. According to the result of phase I, the null hypothesis H₀₅, “there is no significant difference in retention in elementary education between Muslim minority and other community children” is rejected here. Therefore, the impact of the Right to Education Act, 2009 on retention of Muslim children is noticeably remarkable. Some Muslim children and their guardians and parents firmly believed that the expenses made for admitting and continuing education is an utter wastage of time and money, because there is a very limited scope for job opportunity for Muslim youths after completion of education. During the survey these group of parents mentioned the examples of very low representation of Muslims in government jobs even in the police services, group-C, group-D services,
where higher educational qualification is not mandatory. So, these Muslim parents prefer to send their children to earn money for better living rather than sending them to schools for getting education.

It was found that twelve (12) out of 202 male and six (6) out of 206 female children of Muslim community in the age group 6-14 years were not admitted into school. It was noted that besides child labour, non-conducive social environment for availing formal education, indifferent attitude and lack of awareness of guardians towards education, poor home environment, and severe physical disability were the main causes for non-enrolment.

During the household survey, most of the parents and guardians expressed their strong desire to provide at least elementary education to their children as they felt that such basic education would help their children to be more equipped to handle daily life affairs with more efficiency. The central government, state government, local bodies, three tier Panchayet system have also actively involved themselves with the expansion of elementary education. Several government projects like Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan Programme, mid-day meal programme, free textbook distribution, school uniform distribution, school shoes distribution, Kanyashree project, Sabuj Sathi project, different types of scholarships and funds for needy, meritorious and disadvantaged sections of children, and various developmental projects taken by central government, state government and local bodies have increased the rate of enrolment and number of school going children in elementary education. Governments and local bodies also look after and provide financial grants to school management committee for maintenance and improvement of infrastructure of school building.

**Conclusion**

The study found that although the target of 100% enrolment and retention in elementary education was not achieved even after 5 years of enactment of RTE Act, 2009 but percentages of non-enrolment at elementary level decreased from Phase III to Phase I i.e. Net Enrolment Ratio (NER) has increased. The NER of Muslim children increased quite prominently from phase III to phase II than from phase II to phase I. No significant difference in NER between Muslim boys and Muslim girls and between Muslim minority and other community children also found in phase I. So, the effect of Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan Programme was found to be quite remarkable than the effect of Right to Education Act, 2009.

In case of retention at elementary level of education it was found that significant difference exists between Muslim and other community children and between Muslim boys and Muslim girls in phase I. The significant increase in the rate of retention of Muslim children from phase II to phase I indicate that the impact of Right to Education Act, 2009 was positive.
References


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EVALUATIVE STUDY OF VALUE ORIENTATION OF POST-GRADUATE STUDENTS OF UNIVERSITY OF KASHMIR

Tasleema Jan∗
Rizwan Roomi∗∗

Abstract
The study was conducted with an objective to study and compare the value orientation of Post graduate Students of University of Kashmir. The sample comprised of 480 post graduate university students. The data was collected by using Value Orientation Scale by N.Y. Reddy. Mean, S.D. and t-test was used to analyse the data. The overall results revealed that Post Graduate Students of faculty of Arts are having more aesthetic, social and religious value as compared to Post Graduate students of Faculty of Education.

Key Words: Value Orientation, Post Graduate Students, Kashmir.

Background
Value crisis is a global phenomenon of our times. Rapid scientific growth and technological advancements resulting in industrialization have threatened our age-old moral standards. This atmosphere of valueless-ness is leading to disintegration, though we notice at the same time best of progress in certain other fields. Nietzsche rightly remarked, "When a tree grows up to heaven, its roots reach down to hell". We must realize that this process of value deterioration will prove disastrous and lead to disintegration of the society. It is the right time therefore for us to rise to action and make conscious efforts to reverse the trend and lead to the right direction.

Since time immemorial it has been recognized that education is necessarily a process of inculcating values to help the learner to lead a good life that is satisfying to

∗ Associate Professor, Department of Education, University of Kashmir
∗∗ Research Scholar, Department of Education, University of Kashmir
the individual in accordance with the cherished values and ideals of the society.
Philosophers, spiritual leaders and educationists have emphasised the role of education for character development, bringing out the latent potentialities and inherent qualities and developing integrated personality for the well-being of the individual and the society at large, highlighting the need for value orientation of education. The first step in the direction of changing the world is to take the needed steps for radical change in the human consciousness. One of the most important means to achieve this end is value orientation of education. This will help human beings to conduct themselves in the more desirable directions, and to shape their life patterns by strengthening their beliefs and by integrating facts, ideas, attitudes and actions. This will also help to clarify their aims in life as well as the process to achieve them. In the modern context of our commitment to secularism and other such related Constitutional provisions, value education is considered much wider so as to transcend the boundaries of religions and encompass ethical, social, aesthetic, cultural and spiritual values. This broadened concept has many implications for value education programmes at the school stage. Unfortunately value education has received merely lip service so far, though without an effective value-oriented education the country will face crisis of character, adversely affecting the quality of life and relationship, in turn leading to tensions and strife’s. The economy and development of the country also stand to lose. With a view to equipping children of today, who will be the citizens of tomorrow, education has to be reoriented and revamped altogether. What a sculptor is to a block of marble, education is to the human soul. The philosopher, the saint, the hero, the wise and the good or the great, very often lie hidden and concealed in the sand of anonymity, which a proper education might have brought to life. The fact that all good education is, in essence a process of developing the human personality in all its dimensions, is undisputed and universally accepted. Good education is inconceivable if it fails to inculcate values which are essential to good life and social well being. Great thinkers of recorded history have devoted much attention to understand the significance of character and values in life and the role of various agencies of education in promoting these values

Objectives
The following objectives were formulated for the present study:
1. To compare Post Graduate Students of faculty of Arts and faculty of Education on different values
2. To compare Post Graduate Students of Faculty of Science and Faculty of Education on different values
3. To compare Post Graduate Students of Faculty of Social Science and Faculty of Education.
4. To compare Post Graduate Students of Faculty of Science and Social Science on different value
5. To compare Post Graduate Students of Faculty of Arts and Faculty of Science on different value

**Methodology and Procedure**

**Selection of the Sample**

The sample selected for the current investigation consisted of 480 P G Students selected from various faculties of university of Kashmir, Hazratbal, Srinagar. Random sampling strategy was followed to draw the sample for the study. The list of these faculties is as under:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S.No</th>
<th>Name of the faculties</th>
<th>Sample Taken</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Faculty of Science</td>
<td>120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Faculty of Arts</td>
<td>120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Faculty of Social Science</td>
<td>120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Faculty of Education</td>
<td>120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>480</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Tool Used**

Value Orientation Scale constructed by N.Y. Reddy was administered on sample subjects for the purpose of data collection.

**Statistical Treatment**

In order to accomplish the objectives of the present study and also with the purpose of testing the hypothesis, the data collected through Value Orientation Scale was pooled together and statistically analyzed by applying mean, S.D. and t-test.

**Analysis and Interpretation**

Post Graduate Students of Faculty of Arts and Post Graduate Students of faculty of Education have been compared in order to find out the significance of difference between mean score on six values of value orientation scale.

A perusal of the table clearly indicates that there is significant difference between Post Graduate Students of Faculty of Arts and Post Graduate Students of faculty of Education on theoretical value (t-value 6.16 P>0.01) and economic value (t-value 3.49 P>0.01). The result plotted in this table indicates that the Post Graduate Students of Faculty of Arts and Post Graduate University Education Students (PGUES) differ significantly on aesthetic value (t-value 3.66 P>0.01) and social value (t-value 2.71 P>0.01).

The table further reveals that the two groups differ significantly in case of political value (12.37 P> 0.01) and religion value (7.50 P>0.01). Thus, the difference between the Post Graduate Students of Faculty of Arts and Post Graduate Students of faculty of Education have been found to be significant on the total score of the value orientation scale (t-value 2.10 P>0.05).
Table 1.0: Showing significance of mean difference between Post Graduate students of faculty of Arts and faculty of Education on six values of value orientation scale (N=120 each)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S. No</th>
<th>Dimension</th>
<th>Faculty</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>t-Value</th>
<th>Level of Significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>01</td>
<td>Theoretical</td>
<td>PGSFA</td>
<td>34.68</td>
<td>5.65</td>
<td>6.16</td>
<td>Significant at 0.01 level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>PGSFE</td>
<td>38.87</td>
<td>5.03</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>02</td>
<td>Economic</td>
<td>PGSFA</td>
<td>36.10</td>
<td>5.39</td>
<td>3.49</td>
<td>Significant at 0.01 level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>PGSFE</td>
<td>38.23</td>
<td>4.18</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>03</td>
<td>Aesthetic</td>
<td>PGSFA</td>
<td>43.54</td>
<td>6.34</td>
<td>3.66</td>
<td>Significant at 0.01 level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>PGSFE</td>
<td>40.83</td>
<td>5.29</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>04</td>
<td>Social</td>
<td>PGSFA</td>
<td>42.05</td>
<td>4.44</td>
<td>2.71</td>
<td>Significant at 0.01 level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>PGSFE</td>
<td>40.12</td>
<td>6.49</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>05</td>
<td>Political</td>
<td>PGSFA</td>
<td>33.08</td>
<td>3.53</td>
<td>12.37</td>
<td>Significant at 0.01 level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>PGSFE</td>
<td>40.75</td>
<td>5.97</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>06</td>
<td>Religious</td>
<td>PGSFA</td>
<td>45.55</td>
<td>5.71</td>
<td>7.50</td>
<td>Significant at 0.01 level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>PGSFE</td>
<td>40.74</td>
<td>4.37</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

PGSFA: Post Graduate Students of Faculty of Arts
PGSFE: Post Graduate Students of faculty of Education

Table 1.1: Showing significance of mean difference between Post Graduate Students of faculty of science (N=120) and Post Graduate students of faculty of Education (N=120) on six values of value orientation scale.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S. No</th>
<th>Dimension</th>
<th>Faculty</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>t-Value</th>
<th>Level of Significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>01</td>
<td>Theoretical</td>
<td>PGSFS</td>
<td>38.90</td>
<td>4.63</td>
<td>0.49</td>
<td>Insignificant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>PGSFE</td>
<td>38.87</td>
<td>5.03</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>02</td>
<td>Economic</td>
<td>PGSFS</td>
<td>34.73</td>
<td>6.13</td>
<td>5.22</td>
<td>Significant at 0.01 level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>PGSFE</td>
<td>38.23</td>
<td>4.18</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>03</td>
<td>Aesthetic</td>
<td>PGSFS</td>
<td>43.65</td>
<td>7.65</td>
<td>3.35</td>
<td>Significant at 0.01 level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>PGSFE</td>
<td>40.83</td>
<td>5.29</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>04</td>
<td>Social</td>
<td>PGSFS</td>
<td>40.95</td>
<td>5.97</td>
<td>1.03</td>
<td>Insignificant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>PGSFE</td>
<td>40.12</td>
<td>6.49</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>05</td>
<td>Political</td>
<td>PGSFS</td>
<td>34.56</td>
<td>3.15</td>
<td>10.31</td>
<td>Significant at 0.01 level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>PGSFE</td>
<td>40.75</td>
<td>5.97</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>06</td>
<td>Religious</td>
<td>PGSFS</td>
<td>40.74</td>
<td>6.07</td>
<td>3.91</td>
<td>Significant at 0.01 level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>PGSFE</td>
<td>43.36</td>
<td>4.37</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

PGSFS: Post Graduate Students of faculty of Science
PGSFE: Post Graduate Students of faculty of education
Evaluative Study of Value Orientation of Post-graduate Students of University of Kashmir

Data displayed in table 1.1 gives an account of means, SD's and t-value of Post Graduate Students of faculty of Science and Post Graduate Students of faculty of education on six values of value orientation scale.

A perusal of above table clearly indicates that Post Graduate Students of faculty of Science and Post Graduate Students of faculty of education do not differ significantly on theoretical (t-value 0.49) and social value (t-value 1.03).

A quick glance of table 1.4 reveals that on economic value (t-value 5.22 P>0.01) and aesthetic value (t-value 3.35 P>0.01) the two groups show significant difference. The table further reveals that there is significant difference between the Post Graduate Students of faculty of Science and Post Graduate Students of faculty of education on political value (t-value 10.31 P>0.01) and religious value (t-value 3.91 P>0.01). On the total score of value orientation scale, the difference has been found insignificant (t-value-1.73).

Table 1.2: Showing significance of mean difference between Post Graduate Students of faculty of social science (N=120) and Post Graduate students of faculty of Education (N=120) on six values of value orientation scale.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S. No</th>
<th>Dimension</th>
<th>Faculty</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>t-Value</th>
<th>Level of Significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>01</td>
<td>Theoretical</td>
<td>PGSFSS</td>
<td>40.44</td>
<td>5.83</td>
<td>2.24</td>
<td>Significant at 0.05.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>PGSFE</td>
<td>38.87</td>
<td>5.03</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>02</td>
<td>Economic</td>
<td>PGSFSS</td>
<td>40.69</td>
<td>6.19</td>
<td>3.67</td>
<td>Significant at 0.01.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>PGSFE</td>
<td>38.23</td>
<td>4.18</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>03</td>
<td>Aesthetic</td>
<td>PGSFSS</td>
<td>40.50</td>
<td>5.99</td>
<td>0.45</td>
<td>Insignificant.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>PGSFE</td>
<td>40.83</td>
<td>5.29</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>04</td>
<td>Social</td>
<td>PGSFSS</td>
<td>45.47</td>
<td>5.12</td>
<td>7.22</td>
<td>Significant at 0.01.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>PGSFE</td>
<td>40.12</td>
<td>6.49</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>05</td>
<td>Political</td>
<td>PGSFSS</td>
<td>41.28</td>
<td>6.82</td>
<td>0.65</td>
<td>Insignificant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>PGSFE</td>
<td>40.75</td>
<td>5.97</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>06</td>
<td>Religious</td>
<td>PGSFSS</td>
<td>40.74</td>
<td>4.37</td>
<td>0.82</td>
<td>Insignificant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>PGSFE</td>
<td>40.26</td>
<td>4.84</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

PGSFSS: Post Graduate students of faculty of Social Science
PGSFE: Post Graduate students of faculty of Education

Data displayed in table 1.3 gives an account of mean's, SD's and t-value of Post Graduate students of faculty of Social Science and Post Graduate Students of faculty of Education on six values of value orientation scale.
A perusal of above table clearly indicates that the Post Graduate students of faculty of Social Science and Post Graduate students of faculty of Education differ significantly on theoretical value ($t$-value 2.24 $P>0.05$) and economic value ($t$-value 3.67 $P>0.01$).

A quick glance of this table reveals that on aesthetic value ($t$-value 0.45), political value ($t$-value 0.65) and religious value ($t$-value 0.82), the two groups show insignificant difference. The table further reveals that there is significant difference between Post Graduate students of faculty of Social Science and Post Graduate students of faculty of Education on social value ($t$-value 7.22). Thus on the total score of value orientation scale, the difference has been significant ($t$-value 4.11 $P>0.01$).

Table 1.3: Showing significance of mean difference between Post Graduate Students of faculty of science (N=120) and Post Graduate Students of faculty of social science (N=120) on six values of value orientation scale.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S. No</th>
<th>Dimension</th>
<th>Faculty</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>$t$-Value</th>
<th>Level of Significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>01</td>
<td>Theoretical</td>
<td>PGSFS</td>
<td>38.90</td>
<td>4.63</td>
<td>2.29</td>
<td>Significant at 0.05 level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>PGSFSS</td>
<td>40.44</td>
<td>5.83</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>02</td>
<td>Economic</td>
<td>PGSFS</td>
<td>34.73</td>
<td>6.13</td>
<td>7.64</td>
<td>Significant at 0.01 level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>PGSFSS</td>
<td>40.69</td>
<td>6.19</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>03</td>
<td>Aesthetic</td>
<td>PGSFS</td>
<td>40.50</td>
<td>5.99</td>
<td>3.62</td>
<td>Significant at 0.01 level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>PGSFSS</td>
<td>43.65</td>
<td>7.65</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>04</td>
<td>Social</td>
<td>PGSFS</td>
<td>40.95</td>
<td>5.97</td>
<td>6.45</td>
<td>Significant at 0.01 level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>PGSFSS</td>
<td>45.47</td>
<td>5.12</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>05</td>
<td>Political</td>
<td>PGSFS</td>
<td>34.56</td>
<td>3.15</td>
<td>10.1</td>
<td>Significant at 0.01 level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>PGSFSS</td>
<td>41.28</td>
<td>6.82</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>06</td>
<td>Religious</td>
<td>PGSFS</td>
<td>40.74</td>
<td>4.37</td>
<td>0.82</td>
<td>Insignificant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>PGSFSS</td>
<td>40.26</td>
<td>4.84</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

PGSFS: Post Graduate Students of faculty of science
PGUSSS: Post Graduate Students of faculty of Social Science

Table 1.3 gives the comparison of Post Graduate Students of faculty of science and Post Graduate Students of faculty of social science on six values of value orientation scale.

A perusal of the table clearly indicates that there is significant difference Post Graduate Students of faculty of science and Post Graduate Students of faculty of Social Science on theoretical value ($t$-value 2.29 $P>0.05$), economic value ($t$-value 7.64 $P>0.01$) and aesthetic value ($t$-value 3.62 $P>0.01$).
The result plotted in this table clearly indicates that Post Graduate Students of faculty of science and Post Graduate Students of faculty of Social Science differ significantly on social value (t-value 6.45 P>0.01) and political value (t-value 10.1 P>0.01).

The table further reveals that there is no significant difference between Post Graduate Students of faculty of science and Post Graduate Students of faculty of Social Science on religious value (t-value 0.82). Thus on the total score of value orientation scale, the difference has been significant (t value 4.45P>0.01).

**Table 1.4: Showing significance of mean difference between Post Graduate Students of Faculty of Arts (N=120) and Post Graduate Students of Faculty of Science (N=120) on six values of value orientation scale.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S. No</th>
<th>Dimension</th>
<th>Faculty</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>t-Value</th>
<th>Level of Significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>01</td>
<td>Theoretical</td>
<td>PGSFA</td>
<td>34.68</td>
<td>5.65</td>
<td>6.49</td>
<td>Significant at 0.01 level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>PGSFS</td>
<td>38.90</td>
<td>4.63</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>02</td>
<td>Economic</td>
<td>PGSFA</td>
<td>36.10</td>
<td>5.39</td>
<td>1.85</td>
<td>Insignificant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>PGSFS</td>
<td>34.73</td>
<td>6.13</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>03</td>
<td>Aesthetic</td>
<td>PGSFA</td>
<td>43.54</td>
<td>6.34</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>Insignificant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>PGSFS</td>
<td>43.65</td>
<td>7.65</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>04</td>
<td>Social</td>
<td>PGSFA</td>
<td>42.05</td>
<td>4.44</td>
<td>1.64</td>
<td>Insignificant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>PGSFS</td>
<td>40.95</td>
<td>5.97</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>05</td>
<td>Political</td>
<td>PGSFA</td>
<td>33.08</td>
<td>3.53</td>
<td>3.52</td>
<td>Significant at 0.01 level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>PGSFS</td>
<td>34.56</td>
<td>3.15</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>06</td>
<td>Religious</td>
<td>PGSFA</td>
<td>45.55</td>
<td>5.71</td>
<td>3.84</td>
<td>Significant at 0.01 level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>PGSFS</td>
<td>43.36</td>
<td>6.07</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

PGSFA: Post Graduate Students of faculty of Arts  
PGSFS: Post Graduate Students of faculty of science

Table 1.4 gives the comparison of two groups of students i.e., Post Graduate Students of faculty of Arts and Post Graduate Students of faculty of science on six values of value orientation scale.

A quick glance of above table clearly indicates that the Post Graduate Students of faculty of Arts and Post Graduate Students of faculty of science differ significantly on theoretical value (t-value 6.49 P>0.01). The table reveals that the Post Graduate Students of faculty of Arts and differ significantly on political value (t-value 3.52 P>0.01) and religious value (t-value 3.84 P>0.01). The table further reveals that there is no significant
difference between Post Graduate Students of faculty of Arts and Post Graduate Students of faculty of science on aesthetic value (t-value 0.12) economic value (t-value 1.85) and social value (t-value 1.64) The two groups however, do not differ significantly on total score (t-value 0.22).

**Educational Implications**

1. Value education should be provided to students from primary to University level so that society will function in constructive direction.
2. Various seminars, workshops, conferences should be organized in institutions of excellence to bring awareness regarding different social, political and religious values.
3. A Value Orientation Cell (VOC) should be established in different educational institutions which will direct and guide students from time to time regarding the inculcation of different values. This cell will also help them in developing a desirable attitude towards society.
4. Teachers should inculcate values among students by relating topics to different religions.
5. Value education should be introduced as a core paper for social science students at University level and as an optional paper for science students.

**References**


Evaluative Study of Value Orientation of Post-graduate Students of University of Kashmir


CAREER PREFERENCES OF SECONDARY SCHOOL STUDENTS WITH SPECIAL NEDS

Nazima∗
Mohammad Iqbal Mattoo**

Abstract
The investigation study was carried out on career preferences, study habits and academic achievement of secondary school students with special needs (Orthopedic Impairment and Hearing Impairment). A sample of 200 students was drawn randomly from government schools of Kashmir division. The Chatterji's Non-Language Preference Record was used to collect the data from the subjects of ages above 14 years. The data so obtained is subjected to the calculation of Mean, SD and test of significance to find out the differences between the mean scores of the subjects on career preferences. The results based on above mathematical tools revealed significant mean differences between two groups under investigation.

Key words: Career Preferences, Student with Special needs.

Introduction
A systematic and properly designed system of education plays vital role in laying down the well designed structural foundation of child’s cultural, emotional, ethical, intellectual, moral, physical, social and spiritual development. Education prepares child to enter life. Inclusive education is a new educational philosophy which emphasizes the rights of all children to attend their local school and is common throughout the globe. In developing countries like India, the inclusive education is achieved when the educational environment of children who have a disability cannot be distinguished from those of others in the school community. In long range of

∗ Research Scholar, Department of Education, University of Kashmir
** Professor and Head, Department of Education, University of Kashmir
spectrum few students in a classroom have special disabilities, which lead them to different states of decision making. Career preferences are one of important decision in every person’s life. Inadequate choices lead to a failure and the accurate ones have promising returns. Career preferences are modifiable; therefore, while developing interests in several vocations every precaution is to be taken which leads to us a steady state progress of a person and intern leads him/her to a state of prosperity. Hence, research in this area can be of tremendous help to the students for placing them on right jobs.

In the age of modern technology 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 discussed before, 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; Yasmeen, 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.

To find and compare the career preferences of secondary school students with special needs (i) Orthopedically impaired, and ii) Hearing impaired

Hypothesis

The study aims to test the following hypothesis:

There shall be a significant difference between the mean scores of secondary school students with special needs on Career preferences, viz. (i) Orthopedically impaired, and ii) Hearing 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 Chatterji’s Non-Language Preference Record as a tool to collect the required data. 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.

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:
Career Preferences of Secondary School Students with Special Needs

Table No.1: Predominant Career preferences of secondary school students with Special Needs (Hearing and Orthopedic Impairment)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>FA</th>
<th>LT</th>
<th>SC</th>
<th>MD</th>
<th>AG</th>
<th>TC</th>
<th>CR</th>
<th>OD</th>
<th>SP</th>
<th>HH</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SwHI</td>
<td>22%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>Nil</td>
<td>27%</td>
<td>28%</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SwOI</td>
<td>14%</td>
<td>18%</td>
<td>13%</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>26%</td>
<td>13%</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Acronyms:
SwHI: Students with Hearing Impairment, SwOI: Students with Orthopedic Impairment, SS: Statistical Sign

Table No. 2: Showing the significance of Difference between the Mean Scores of students with Special Needs (Orthopedic Impairment and Hearing Impairment) in Career Preferences (N=100 Each)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>SwHI Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>SwOI Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>&quot;t&quot; value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>FA</td>
<td>18.7</td>
<td>4.62</td>
<td>16.82</td>
<td>3.75</td>
<td>2.44**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LT</td>
<td>14.19</td>
<td>3.57</td>
<td>15.88</td>
<td>5.09</td>
<td>2.14**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SC</td>
<td>15.92</td>
<td>3.78</td>
<td>16.02</td>
<td>4.99</td>
<td>0.12*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MD</td>
<td>15.75</td>
<td>3.87</td>
<td>15.38</td>
<td>3.91</td>
<td>0.49*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AG</td>
<td>14.82</td>
<td>3.03</td>
<td>14.65</td>
<td>3.24</td>
<td>0.25*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TC</td>
<td>15.69</td>
<td>3.99</td>
<td>14.71</td>
<td>3.70</td>
<td>1.33*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CR</td>
<td>14.02</td>
<td>3.56</td>
<td>13.25</td>
<td>3.46</td>
<td>1.08*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OD</td>
<td>19.18</td>
<td>4.08</td>
<td>18.12</td>
<td>3.41</td>
<td>1.45*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SP</td>
<td>19.97</td>
<td>4.05</td>
<td>16.72</td>
<td>3.79</td>
<td>4.38***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HH</td>
<td>15.09</td>
<td>3.33</td>
<td>13.86</td>
<td>3.18</td>
<td>1.94**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note *- not significant; **- significant at0.05 level; ***- significant at 0.01 level.

Acronyms:
SwHI: Students with Hearing Impairment, SwOI: Students with Orthopedic Impairment, SS: Statistical Sign

Interpretation and Discussion:

The data collected from the students with Special Needs (Hearing and Orthopedic Impaired) on Chatterji’s Non-Language Preference Record (in ten career preference areas) was subjected to statistical analysis by calculating percentages, mean, S.D and finally ‘t’ values. A perusal of Table No.1 reveals that on the basis of predominant career preferences of each individual students, the pattern of career interests of students with Special Needs (Hearing Impaired) emerged to be as under:-Sports-28%; Outdoor-27%; Fine Arts- 22%; Medical-10%; Scientific-6%; Literary-2%;
However, in case of students with Special Needs (Orthopedic Impaired), the pattern of a career interest is as under: - Out-door - 26%; Literary - 18%; Fine arts - 14%; Scientific - 13%; Sports - 13%; Medicine - 5%; Crafts - 4%; Agriculture - 3%; Household - 3% and Technical - 1%.

Table 2.00 gives us the information about mean and SD scores of children with special needs (Orthopedic impairment and Hearing impairment) on ten areas of Career preferences. These scores in case of children with Hearing impairment: Fine Arts - 18.7 and 4.62; Literary - 14.19 and 3.57; Scientific - 15.92 and 3.78; Medical - 15.75 and 3.87; Agriculture - 14.82 and 3.03; Technical - 15.69 and 3.99; Crafts - 14.02 and 3.76; Outdoor - 19.18 and 4.08; Sports - 19.97 and 4.05; Household - 15.09 and 3.33. In case of children with Orthopedic impairment the results are: 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. This table also gives us the information about ‘t’ values of secondary school students with special needs (Orthopedic impairment and Hearing impairment) on ten areas of career preferences. These ‘t’ values are: Fine Arts - 2.44; Literary - 2.14; Scientific - 0.12; Medical - 0.49; Agriculture - 0.25; Technical - 1.33; Crafts - 1.08; Outdoor - 1.45; Sports - 4.38; Household - 1.94. It means the areas like Fine Arts; Literary; Sports and Household are significant whereas the areas like Scientific; Medical; Agriculture; Technical; Craft and Outdoor are not significant at any level. The results further reveal that:

1. Students belonging to Hearing impaired category were found to have higher inclination towards Fine Arts area like: to be a Dancer, Singer, Musician, Magician, Fashion designer, Furniture designer, Jewelry designer, Beautician, Painter, Advertising director, Exhibition designer, Footwear designer, Interior decorator, Graphic designer, and Industry designer than the students with Orthopedic impairment.

2. It has been found that students belonging to orthopedically impaired category had leaning towards the Literary area like reading and studying books than the Hearing impaired students.

3. Both the groups of students (Hearing and Orthopedic Impaired) were equally interested towards the scientific interest like: electronic engineer, electric engineer, chemical engineer, computer engineer, software programmer, food technologist, astronomer, agricultural engineer, architect, microbiologist, automobile engineer, marine engineer, environmental engineer, aeronautical engineer, petroleum engineer, and mathematician. Interest in Physics, Chemistry, Lab. work, Astronomy including both studying and teaching science and Medical interest like: physicians, Psychiatrists, cardiologists, Pediatricians, neurosurgeons, gynecologists, physiotherapists, gastrontologists, dentists, anesthiests, radiologists,
surgeons, dermatologists, pathologists, pharmacists, and urologists.

4. It has been found that students belonging to both the groups i.e. Hearing and Orthopedically Impaired have similar inclination towards the Agriculture like: are poultry farmers, gardeners, plant breeders, fishing scientists, mineral specialists, agro teachers, rural managers, food inspector, agricultural scientist, veterinary doctor, dairy farmer, fertilizer shopkeeper and agricultural researcher, Technical area like: repairing mechanical and electrical apparatus, working in factories or scientific laboratories, medical sector and even in daily life and Craft interest like: Interest in working with one’s own hands, mixing and fixing things.

5. Hearing and Orthopedically Impaired students have been found similar on outdoor activities. People when fed up from daily routine want to go for outing in different picnic spot, excursion, tours, hunting, tracking, mountaineering etc; so that they participate in their active life.

6. Hearing impaired students have been observed with higher inclination towards the sports activities like: cricket, hokey, table tense, volleyball, badminton, chess, cards, polo, wwf, wrestling, khokho, khabadi, etc and in leading an active life than the Orthopedic Impaired students.

7. Students with Hearing Impairment were seen with greater inclination towards household activities like decorating and creative activities such as knitting, stitching, washing utensils and clothes, cooking and serving meals to family members and guests. i.e., showing interest in hospitality than the Orthopedically Impaired students.

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Career Preferences of Secondary School Students with Special Needs


JOB SATISFACTION OF SECONDARY SCHOOL
HEADMASTERS WITH REFERENCE TO THEIR GENDER
AND LENGTH OF SERVICE

Hakeem Sayar Ahmad Shah*
Mahmood Ahmad Khan**
Muzaffar Ahmad Khan***

Abstract
This main focus of this study was to examine the level of job satisfaction between male & female, senior & junior secondary school headmasters. Sample for the study comprised of 300 secondary school headmasters from Kashmir valley. Data was collected by using standardized tool developed by Singh & Sharma (1999) to measure the level of job satisfaction. The collected data was analyzed by using calculating mean, S.D., &‘t’-test. The results of the study revealed that there exists no significant difference between male & female secondary school headmasters on job satisfaction. Significant difference was found between senior & junior headmasters on job abstract factor & composite score of job satisfaction scale. It was also revealed that senior headmasters agree that their colleagues are cooperative & helpful. They derive pleasure from their job & rate their job higher as compared to other jobs.

Keywords: Headmaster, senior & junior & job satisfaction.

Introduction
Headmasters play a very important and significant role. As school administrators headmasters face various issues on a daily basis. In terms of school management, the role that headmaster plays as leader is pivotal to overcoming the many existing problems, role in enhancing the school capacity, in improving teachers’ capabilities,
and in making conducive environment for teaching learning process. The smooth running of any school or organization is based on the fundamentals of administration and management. Headmasters take the task of organization on their shoulders to make the institution flourishing. As per (Gupta, 1987) the head of the institution occupies a very key position in educational pyramid. The fate of an institution depends mostly upon the head of the institution. Headmaster 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. Leaders do not belittle people or make them feel that they have nothing to contribute. Leaders don’t hide in their offices to overlook problems. They have to be visible; they have to convey a sense of oneness. In 1935, Hoppock, who was among the first to report job satisfaction level of teachers concluded that job satisfaction is related to mental health. The progress towards human relations sheds extra light on the significance of the morale & development of the work conditions for the employees of organizations & institutions. The significance of job satisfaction among the staff of organization & institutions goes back to the second half of the 20th century, with the emergence of Maslow’s theory (1956). Since then, researchers have shown profound consideration to the issue & different logical studies have been undertaken. The job satisfaction of workforce in any organization, as Conley et al. (1989) have stated as a main component of the work environment & one of the main factors determining organizational climate. Job satisfaction is a multivariate human attitude defined as employees’ feelings about their jobs in general (Morrison, Jones, & Fuller, 1997). Blum & Naylor, (1968) stated that job satisfaction is regarded as a generally favourable or unfavourable attitude resulting from specific work areas, such as job factors and individual characteristics. According to Frank, (1986) job satisfaction as a combination of psychological, physiological & environmental circumstances that cause a person to be truly satisfied with his or her job. Hoy & Miskel (1987) stated that job satisfaction is viewed as a crucial factor as to the general efficiency of an organization. It is believed that research into job satisfaction started in the field of industry & business administration with a particular importance being laid on the working classes. Later this research moved towards the field of education, with extra focus being placed on the teaching area. As Thompson et al. (1997) stated that synthesis of research findings regarding job satisfaction in educational organizations, job satisfaction has been as the criterion variable of interest, as one of a collection of criterion variables, or as a predictor variable in regard to another criterion of interest. According to (Blood, et al. 2002) Job satisfaction is one of the most widely researched topics in the areas of organizational behaviour and education. As Ali, et al. (2012) revealed that most of the head teachers at elementary level were slightly satisfied with respect to their promotion, formulation, awareness & implementation of education policy & salary packages. They also found that head teachers were satisfied with respect to factors of job i.e. ability utilization,
achievement from job, administrative activities, authority, creativity, independence in administration and teaching, moral values and other factors. Nguyen et al. (2013) found positive relationship between reward & recognition, satisfaction with supervision & job characteristics. Raza, et al. (2015) in their study revealed a positive relationship between four intrinsic facets of job satisfaction that is creativity, job security, responsibility & achievement with job satisfaction.

Job satisfaction has been as the criterion variable of interest, as one of a collection of criterion variables or as a predictor variable in regard to another criterion of interest. Further, only few studies have explored job satisfaction of school teachers, university administrators, and bank employees. But no such study has been conducted on job satisfaction of secondary school headmasters with reference to gender and length. It seemed more appropriate with reference to our state. No such study has been conducted in the state of Jammu & Kashmir on the selected variable. Hence the researcher thought there is great need to probe into job satisfaction of headmasters in relation to selected important variable.

Objectives of the Study:
1. To study and compare the job satisfaction of secondary school headmasters on the basis of gender.
2. To study and compare the job satisfaction of senior and junior secondary school headmasters.

Null Hypotheses:
1. There is no significant difference between the mean scores of male and female Secondary school headmasters on various factors of job satisfaction.
2. There is no significant difference between the mean scores of male and female Secondary school headmasters on composite score of job satisfaction.
3. There is no significant difference between the mean scores of senior and junior Secondary school headmasters on various areas of job satisfaction.
4. There is no significant difference between the mean scores of senior and junior Secondary school headmasters on composite score of job satisfaction.

Operational definition of Variable:
Job satisfaction: Job satisfaction as a combination of psychological, physiological, and environmental circumstances that cause a person to be truly satisfied with his or her job (Frank, 1986). Job satisfaction in the present investigation refers to the dominant set of scores obtained by the sample subjects on the job satisfaction Scale developed by Amar. Singh and T.R. Sharma.

Length of service: Length of Service in the present investigation referred to the number of years put in the service by the sample subjects as headmaster. Subjects with more than 8 years and less than 5 years of field experience are considered as senior and junior headmasters respectively.
Design of the Study

Sample:

The sample for the present investigation was drawn from the high schools of Kashmir valley. Presently there are 820 high schools in Kashmir Valley run by the government. In the present study 300 secondary school headmasters were randomly selected from these high schools (820). The procedure for drawing the sample was adopted as per the following breakup.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Length of Service</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Senior</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>150</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Junior</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>150</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>300</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Data Gathering Tool:

The data for the present study was collected with the help of following standardized tool:

**Job Satisfaction Scale (JSS):** This scale is developed by Singh and Sharma. It measures the job satisfaction of everybody & it contains 30 items.

Statistical Treatment of Data

The collected data was put to statistical treatment by applying Mean, S.D., & ‘t’-test. Besides, graphical figures are also drawn in order to make the results transparent.

Statistical analysis:

Table 1: Showing the Significance of difference between the Mean scores of Male and Female secondary School Headmasters on various factors of Job Satisfaction Scale (N= 150, each).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
<th>‘t’ Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>JCF</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>16.65</td>
<td>2.13</td>
<td>0.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>16.52</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JAF</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>18.29</td>
<td>2.88</td>
<td>0.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>18.03</td>
<td>2.78</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SPF</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>21.72</td>
<td>2.37</td>
<td>0.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>21.65</td>
<td>2.38</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EF</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>11.99</td>
<td>1.50</td>
<td>0.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>11.90</td>
<td>1.42</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CNGF</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>15.39</td>
<td>2.17</td>
<td>0.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>15.21</td>
<td>2.22</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CMSC</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>84.01</td>
<td>5.09</td>
<td>1.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>83.32</td>
<td>4.88</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Acronyms:** JCF- Job Concrete factor, JAF- job-abstract factor, SPF- Psycho-social, EF- Economic factor, CNGF- Community/national growth, CMSC-Composite score.
Discussion & Interpretation of results on the basis of gender on various factors of Job Satisfaction scale:

The results presented in the table no.1 highlights the significance of mean difference between male & female secondary school headmasters on Job Concrete Factor of Job Satisfaction. The mean scores of male headmasters & female headmasters were found to be (16.65) & (16.52) respectively. The obtained ‘t’ value was found to be 0.55 which is not significant. On Job-Abstract factor the mean scores of male and female secondary school headmasters was found to be (18.29) & (18.03) respectively. The obtained ‘t’ value came out to be 0.79 which is statistically not significant. On Psycho-Social factor the mean scores of male & female headmasters were found to be (21.72) & (21.65) respectively. The calculated ‘t’ value was found to be 0.24, which is not significant. On Economic factor the mean scores of male & female headmasters were found to be (11.99) & (11.90) respectively. The obtained ‘t’ value was found to be 0.51 which is not significant. On Community/National growth factor the obtained mean scores of male groups of headmasters was found to be (15.39) & for female headmasters (15.21). The calculated ‘t’ value has been found to be 0.70 which is not significant. As the mean difference is not significant, no conclusive discussion can be drawn between male & female secondary school headmasters in respect to job concrete, job abstract, psycho-social, economic & community & national growth factors of job satisfaction.

Table 1 shows the mean scores of male & female secondary school headmasters on Composite score of job satisfaction. The mean score of male headmasters was found to be (84.01) as compared to female headmasters (83.32). The obtained ‘t’ value was found to be 1.19 which is statistically not significant. It has been
found that there exists no significant difference between male & female secondary school headmasters on composite score of job satisfaction scale. It may be inferred that both the groups of headmasters are on same platform so for the composite score of job satisfaction is concerned. Therefore, no conclusive discussion can be drawn between male & female secondary school headmasters on composite score of job satisfaction scale.

The above discussed findings are in line with some of the earlier researchers in the field (Mumtaz, Suleman & Ahmad, 2016; Glicorovic, 2014; Annierah & Kamarulzaman, 2013; Beri, 2013; Sofal, 2013; Ali et al, 2012; Webb, 2012; Menon & Reppa, 2010; Nayeem, 2008; Eckman, 2004; Crane & Scott, 2006; Lombardo, 2005).

Mumtaz, Suleman & Ahmad (2016) in their study concluded no significant difference between male & female higher secondary school heads satisfaction with regard to intrinsic & extrinsic dimensions of their job position. Glicorovic (2014) in his study on job satisfaction & gender difference in teachers did not reveal any significant difference between male & female teachers. Beri (2013) could not found any significant difference between male & female primary teachers. Sofal (2013) while comparing male & female educational administrators on job satisfaction did not found any significant difference. Ali et al, (2012) stated that head teachers were slightly satisfied with the basic three dimensions of job, i.e. advancement, education policies & compensation. Menon & Reppa (2010) found no significant difference between genders on all dimensions of job satisfaction, pointing in absence of a relation between gender & job satisfaction. Eckman (2004) reported that there is no significant difference between male & female high school principals on job satisfaction.

Table 2: Showing the Significance of mean difference between Senior and Junior secondary School Headmasters on various factors of Job Satisfaction Scale (N=150, each).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
<th>‘t’ Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>JCF</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>16.71</td>
<td>2.06</td>
<td>1.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>16.37</td>
<td>2.20</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JAF</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>17.87</td>
<td>2.88</td>
<td>2.47*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>17.16</td>
<td>2.73</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SPF</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>21.59</td>
<td>2.38</td>
<td>1.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>21.25</td>
<td>2.46</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EF</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>11.61</td>
<td>1.58</td>
<td>1.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>11.22</td>
<td>1.97</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CNGF</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>15.13</td>
<td>2.13</td>
<td>0.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>15.13</td>
<td>2.23</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CMSC</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>82.91</td>
<td>4.62</td>
<td>3.44**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>81.02</td>
<td>4.88</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Significant at 0.05 level, **Significant at 0.01 level
Fig. II: Showing the mean comparison of senior & junior secondary school headmasters on various factors of Job Satisfaction Scale

Discussion & Interpretation of results on the basis of length of service on various factors of Job Satisfaction Scale:

The results reported in the table 2 shows the significance of mean difference between senior & junior secondary school headmasters on Job Concrete Factor of Job Satisfaction scale. The mean scores of senior headmasters & junior headmasters were found to be (16.71) & (16.37) respectively. The obtained ‘t’ value was found to be 1.35 which is not significant. On Psycho-Social factor the obtained mean scores of senior & junior secondary school headmasters was found to be (21.59) & (21.25) respectively. The calculated ‘t’ value has been found to be 1.19 which is not significant. It may be inferred that senior & junior headmasters are similar on psycho-social factor. On Economic factor the mean scores of senior & junior headmasters was found to be (11.61) & (11.22) respectively. The obtained ‘t’ value has been found to be 1.87 which is not significant. The results indicate that both the groups under investigation are on same platform as far as the economic factor is concerned. On Community/National growth factor the obtained mean scores of senior & junior headmasters were found to be (15.13) & (15.06) respectively. The calculated ‘t’ value has been found to be 0.30 which is significant not significant. On the basis of the results, it may be inferred that senior & junior headmasters have similar view community & national growth factor. Since, there is no mean difference in above mentioned factors. Therefore, no conclusive discussion can be drawn between senior & junior secondary school headmasters on job concrete factor, Psycho-Social factor, Economic factor & Community/National growth factors of job satisfaction scale.
A perusal of table no.2 reveals the significance of mean difference between senior & junior headmasters on Job-Abstract factor of job satisfaction scale. The mean scores of senior & junior secondary school headmasters were found to be (17.87) & (17.16) respectively. The obtained ‘t’ value has been found to be 2.47 which is statistically significant at 0.05 level of significance. The results reveal that senior headmasters are higher on job-abstract factor as compared to junior headmasters. Senior headmasters agree that their colleagues are cooperative, helpful & sincere in work. The results also reveal that senior headmasters rate their job as democratic functioning. They derive pleasure from their job & rate their job superior as compared to other jobs. Thus, results indicate that experience seems to have some impact on job abstract factor as senior headmasters were found to be higher on this factor as compared to junior headmasters.

Table 4 reveals the significance of mean difference between senior & junior secondary school headmasters on Composite score of job satisfaction scale. The mean score of senior headmasters is reported to be higher (M=82.91) as compared to junior headmasters which is (M=81.02). The obtained ‘t’ value was found to be 3.44 which is statistically significant at 0.01 level. The mean difference favours senior group, thus clearly indicating that senior group of headmasters are higher on composite score of job satisfaction scale as compared to junior secondary school headmasters.

The above mentioned findings are in line with some of the previous researchers in the field (Mumtaz, Suleman & Ahmad, 2016; Menon & Reppa, 2010; Bryant, 2007; Monroe & Jon, 2007; Crane & Scott, 2006; Lombardo, 2005; Bhuyan & Choudhury, 2002; Abraham, 1997; Thaker, 1996; Badhuri, 1994; Nongrum & Medalin, 1992).

Menon & Reppa (2010) revealed that experienced were found significantly higher on job satisfaction on two dimensions (key stakeholders & participation in school management). Bryant (2007) studied the factors influencing job satisfaction of principals & found that educational level & experience were not related to general job satisfaction for principals from either school performance group. Monroe & Jon (2007) concluded that there was no significant difference between job stress & job satisfaction levels of inexperienced & experienced high school principals. Crane & Scott (2006) indicated that Idaho superintendents’ were generally, intrinsically & extrinsically satisfied with their job. Lombardo (2005) in his study explored the relationship between general job satisfaction & ten demographic variables. The results revealed that only one demographic variable (age) had an effect on the general job satisfaction levels of high school principals’. Bhuyan & Choudhury (2002) in one of their findings found no association between the levels of job satisfaction & experience of college teachers. Abraham (1997) found insignificant relation between job satisfaction & length of service. Thaker (1996) carried out a study on job among the principals of secondary schools of Saurashtra & concluded that gender, age, educational
Job Satisfaction of Secondary School Headmasters with reference to their Gender & Length of qualification, marital status & geographical area has no effect on principals job satisfaction. Badhuri (1994) in his one of the findings could not found any significant difference in the job satisfaction levels of Govt. & private school heads with more or less experience. Nongrum & Medalin (1992) found no significant difference on job satisfaction between teachers with more or less length of experience.

Conclusions:

1. It has been found that there exists no significant difference between male & female secondary school headmasters on any of the factors including composite score of job satisfaction scale. Thus, results indicate that both male & female secondary school headmasters rate their job in a similar way.

2. It has been revealed that there is no significant difference between senior & junior on job concrete factor, psycho-social factor, Economic factor & community & national growth factors of job satisfaction.

3. It has been found that there is significant difference between senior headmasters on job-abstract factor. Senior headmasters agree that their colleagues are cooperative, helpful & sincere in work. The results also reveal that senior headmasters rate their job as democratic functioning.

4. It has been revealed that there is significant difference between senior & junior headmasters on composite score. Senior headmasters agree that their colleagues are cooperative, helpful & sincere in work. The results also reveal that senior headmasters rate their job as democratic functioning.

Inferential Suggestions

Sensitization programmes should be arranged for junior headmasters were in they will be provided inputs on teaching as a profession. So that they will feel satisfaction of job as senior headmasters.

1. Refresher courses & workshops should also be organized for junior headmasters so that they will be made aware that their job is service to society.

2. The study revealed that satisfaction of job is essential for successful administration. Satisfaction of job for headmasters is necessary in every educational institution so as to increase the effectiveness of these institutions.

References:


Job Satisfaction of Secondary School Headmasters with reference to their Gender & Length of...


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MENTAL HEALTH OF ORPHAN AND NON-ORPHAN ADOLESCENTS – A COMPARATIVE STUDY

Aasia Maqbool* 

Abstract
The present study was undertaken to study and compare the orphan and non orphan adolescents on various dimensions of Mental Health. 100 orphan and 100 non orphan adolescents were selected randomly for the present investigation. Alpna and Sen Gupta’s Mental Health Battery (English Translation by Gulnaz) was used for data collection. The collected data was analyzed by some statistical techniques. The conclusion from the present study reflects a significant mean difference between orphan and non orphan adolescents.

Key word: Mental Health, Orphan, Non Orphan, Adolescents

Introduction
All stages are important in man’s life whether it is infancy, childhood, adolescence or adulthood but most sensitive stage of man’s life is adolescence, which starts from 13 and ends approximately at 19 years. Adolescence is the most crucial period in the life of a human being. It is the stage when the urge of life reaches its highest peak. The family and the society play an essential role in the life and development of child. It lays the foundation for the development of the individual. The period of adolescence not only brings physical change but psychological changes that make the child a qualitatively different person. Adolescence is an important period of physical, social, psychological and cognitive growth (Stagman, Schwarz, and Powers, 2011). The changes affect the mental health and the personality of the individual as a whole. Adolescents are most assets of our nation but helpless and insecure. However, because

* Assistant Professor, Department of Education, University of Kashmir
of the reasons like being left by parents, lost of parents, family disintegration etc children become orphan and live in orphanages (Anonium, 2009; Jacobi, 2009).

According to the encyclopedia Britannica and the Median–Webster dictionary, an orphan is; 1) A child deprived by death of one or usually both parents: 2) A young animal that has lost his mother. 3) One deprived of some protection or advantage e.g. orphans of the conflict. Most accepted definition of orphan is a child who has lost both parents through death this definition is extended in most of the groups including the loss of parents through desertion or the parents are unable or unwilling to provide care (Skinner, 2004).

The death of a parent or marginal gap between the children and parents leaves children in a state of trauma and the most common problems faced by orphans include loss of home, high dropout rate from school, lack of health care and problems with immunization, social downfall, child labour and drug abuse (Naheeda Vaida, 2012). Accidents, Natural death and conflicts are creating generations of orphaned children. In addition the loss of a parent, orphaned children may face many hardships during their adolescents including decline in health, nutrition and psychological wellbeing. The number of children estimated to be orphaned due to all causes is estimated to be between 143 million and 210 million (UNICEF, 2012). Kashmir is the northern most state of India. The Kashmir conflict, which killed near one lakh people since 1989, has made a generation of children bereaved of parents they grow up in no man’s land between politics and war. Dabla, (2001) an impact of conflict situation on women and children in Kashmir shows that most crucial problem that the children face after the death of their father is economic hardship. Empirical studies on children in an armed conflict show the determinat effects on children’s mental health and well being. About 30-50% show post traumatic stress disorder (PTSD). The reports that population of orphans in J&K is 2,14,000 and 37 percent of them were orphaned due to the armed conflict (save the Children 2012). Orphan-hood is frequently accompanied with multidimensional problems including prejudice, school services, inadequate food, and others that can further expose children’s prospects of completing school. Moreover, the death of one or both parents has a profound and lifelong impact on the psychological well-being of adolescents. Orphan is at increased risk of losing opportunities for school, health care, growth, development, nutrition and shelter. Moreover, with the death of a parent, children experience profound grief, anxiety, fear, and hopelessness with long term consequences such as psychosomatic disorder, mental health disorders. Moreover, they often show lack of hope of future and have low self esteem (Kedića, 2006). Orphan reflected in the degree of unhappiness, worry low level of patience, fatigue, depression and feeling of hopelessness and pessimism psychological distress, psychological problems that can affect their present and future life (Hiwot, Fentie, Lakew and Wondoesn, 2011). In general the long term effects of orphan-hood are to be negative and mental health as well as being at risk for stigmatization and exploitation and also orphans are at a risk, many orphans are
forced to drop out of school for financial reasons that would hinder their future opportunities for job and economic growth in addition they also lead to low educational achievement and productivity and delayed intellectual development (Brown and Sittitrai, 2005; UNICEF, 2008).

As from above evidences; to date, research on orphan is focused on the social development, emotional intelligence, life skills, etc. The status of the Mental Health of orphan and non orphan adolescents is not explored, if so but meager way and in abroad, not in Kashmir and too with other variables like adjustment, poverty, coping strategy, aspiration and family size. Therefore; the focus of present study is fill this gap in research.

Mental Health is an index which shows the extent to which the person has been able to meet his environmental demands- social, emotional, or physical. Mental health, as such, represents a psychic condition, which is characterized by mental peace, harmony and content. It is identified by the absence of disabling and debilitating symptoms, both mental and somatic in the person (Schneider, 1964). Adolescents face an intense turmoil because of their cognitive, biological and social changes taking place in this period. Maintaining mental health over time is extremely important however, risk factor exists for mental illness. The adolescent mental health is the capacity to achieve optimal psychological functioning and well-being. It is directly to the level reached and competence achieved in psychological and social functioning (WHO, 2005). Compton, et al. (1996) believes that mental health is divided into three areas; personal growth, subjective wellbeing, and the stress- resistance personality. Personal growth refers to the development of a person’s psychological quality and potentials. Subjective wellbeing refers to positive emotions and the outlook one has on life.

Need and Importance

Adolescents have emerged as the most suffering group in the conflict situation throughout the world. The armed conflict in the Kashmir valley started in 1989 as per conservative estimates more than one lakh people have been killed and more than this number have been injured. Among the suffering people the most significant groups are adolescents who have become orphans. As a result of death of their father’s (who were the sole bread earners in their families) life conditions of destitute adolescents have become worst and deteriorate day by day. It is felt that there is an extreme difference in the situation in the family environment (especially related to adolescents) which was provided before the death of the father. Psychologists agree that children with secure attachment to parents have better chance to develop into happy, successful and well adjusted adults. A child who does not experience the warmth of love and sympathy of parent feels that he/she is unwanted and tends to develop behavioral problems. Such a child leads to behave indifferently and develops isolation, non adjustment, excessive crying anger and fears. He thinks he is unwanted element.
Besides, orphans have several personal, social, psychological and educational problems. The death and destruction have taken a heavy toll on the mental health of the people of Kashmir. Research in this area is important because the death of the parent is a risk factor for the development of psycho-social issues in children (Bauman & Germann, 2005). In fact, children whom experience the death of a parent are at twice the risk of suffering from a psychiatric disorder, mental health disturbance than children who have two live parents (Rutter, 1996). Studies in the area of mental health as related with adjustment, depression, poverty; Nese, E. (2009), noticed that preventive programmes are essential to support the families as orphans have high need of mental health service. Rabia, T. et al. (2010), found that mental health of orphans living in orphanages was satisfactory. Rakshanda, A. et al. (2010), found that orphans live in depression and have less emotional stability than non orphans. Lucice, et al. (2008), found that orphans need love and care. Alice, B.(2008), found that orphans need guidance and material support.

Normally there should have been a dependable mechanism to address the gigantic problems of orphan adolescents and its accompanying miseries. But primarily due to absence of necessary commitment, determination and partly because of the lack of the sort or resources provided by the state. It is against this background that during the last few years a number of voluntary charitable and political organizations have come forward to take care of orphan adolescents in the valley. Since the voluntary organizations have been actually engaged in looking after the orphan adolescents in orphanages for the last many years in Kashmir valley there is a tremendous need to assess these students on the basis of mental health and to compare them with non orphan adolescents.

The purpose of the present investigation was to examine the differences in Mental Health of orphan and non orphan adolescents. The study adds the literature and will become a guideline for researchers, educationists, administrators and counselors to guide the students in a proper way and to frame the suitable educational environment where they would be accommodated and their Mental Health may improve.

Objectives

1. To identify Orphan and Non Orphan adolescents.
2. To study Mental Health of Orphan and Non orphan adolescents.
3. To compare Orphan and Non Orphan adolescents on Emotional stability dimension of Mental Health Battery.
4. To compare Orphan and Non Orphan adolescents on overall Adjustment dimension of Mental Health Battery.
5. To compare Orphan and Non Orphan adolescents on Autonomy dimension of Mental Health Battery.
Mental Health of Orphan and Non-Orphan Adolescents – A Comparative Study

6. To compare Orphan and Non Orphan adolescents on Security/Insecurity dimension of Mental Health Battery.
7. To compare Orphan and Non Orphan adolescents on Self concept dimension of Mental Health Battery.
8. To compare Orphan and Non Orphan adolescents on General Intelligence dimension of Mental Health Battery.
9. To compare Orphan and Non Orphan adolescents on composite Score of Mental Health Battery.

Hypotheses
1. Orphan and non orphan adolescents differ significantly on Emotional stability dimension of Mental Health Battery.
2. Orphan and non orphan adolescents differ significantly on Overall Adjustment dimension of Mental Health Battery.
3. Orphan and non orphan adolescents differ significantly on Autonomy dimension of Mental Health Battery.
4. Orphan and non orphan adolescents differ significantly on Security/Insecurity dimension of Mental Health Battery.
5. Orphan and non orphan adolescents differ significantly on Self concept dimension of Mental Health Battery.
6. Orphan and non orphan adolescents differ significantly on General intelligence dimension of Mental Health Battery.
7. Orphan and non orphan adolescents differ significantly on composite Score of Mental Health Battery.

Operational Definitions of the terms and Variables

Mental health
Mental health for the present study refers to the scores obtained by students on A.K. Singh and Alpana Sen. Gupta’s Battery of Mental Health, translated into English by Gulnaz. It has six dimensions such as:-

- Emotional stability
- Overall adjustment
- Autonomy
- Security insecurity
- Self concepts
- General intelligence
Adolescents

Adolescents for the present study refers to school going adolescents falling in the age group of 16-17.

Orphan

Orphan for the present study refer to those adolescents who have lost their fathers during 1996 (turmoil) and onwards

Non Orphan

Non orphan for present study refer to those adolescents whose parents are alive.

Method and Design

The method employed for the purpose study descriptive method of research. This method has been the most popular and widely used method of research in social sciences and education. Through this method the study is designed to obtain the pertinent and precise information concerning the current status of phenomena and also to draw valid conclusions from the facts discovered.

Sample

The sample for the present investigation consists of 200 students (100 orphan and 100 non orphan adolescents) taken from the 10th grade of various secondary schools and two orphanages institutions of four districts of Kashmir viz, Srinagar, Ganderbal, Pulwama and Budgum. The orphan students were identified on the basis of information obtained from the offices. The list of government orphanages was taken from office of the Director social welfare Department and the list of Non Government orphanages was taken from registration office for NGO press colony Srinagar. The non orphan students were selected with the help of random sampling technique.

Tool

1. Mental Health Battery by A.K Sing and Sen Gupta (original Hindi Version; translated by Mrs Gulnaz in English Version).

Statistical Analysis

The data has been analyzed by applying mean, S.D and t-test

Analysis and Interpretation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>Level of significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Orphan</td>
<td>7.33</td>
<td>2.03</td>
<td>17.14</td>
<td>Significant at 0.01 level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non orphan</td>
<td>11.17</td>
<td>1.26</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Mental Health of Orphan and Non-Orphan Adolescents – A Comparative Study

A glimpse of table 1.0 shows the mean comparison of orphan and non orphan adolescents on Emotional stability dimension of Mental Health battery. The table reveals that the two groups of adolescents *viz.*, orphan and non orphan differ significantly on Emotional stability dimension of Mental Health battery as calculated *t*-value (17.14) is greater than the tabulated *t*-value (2.58) at 0.01 level of significance. The mean difference favours non orphan adolescents, which confirms that the non orphan adolescents have stable feeling and are emotionally stable than the orphan adolescents. Thus from the confirmation of the results from the above table the hypotheses No.1 which reads as, “orphan and non orphan adolescents differ significantly on Emotional Stability dimension of Mental Health Battery” stands accepted.

**Table 1.1: Mean comparison of orphan and non orphan adolescents on Overall Adjustment dimension of Mental Health battery. (N = 100 in each group)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D</th>
<th><em>t</em>-value</th>
<th>Level of significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Orphan</td>
<td>22.58</td>
<td>3.94</td>
<td>6.00</td>
<td>Significant at 0.01 level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non orphan</td>
<td>26.03</td>
<td>1.26</td>
<td>4.25</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The perusal of table 1.1 shows the mean comparison of orphan and non orphan adolescent on Overall Adjustment dimension of Mental Health Battery. The table reveals that the two groups of adolescents *viz.*, orphan and non orphan differ significantly on Overall adjustment dimension of Mental Health battery as calculated *t*-value (6.00) is greater than tabulated *t*-value (2.58) at 0.01 level of significance. The mean difference favours non orphan adolescents, which confirms that the non orphan adolescents have overall balance between the demands of various aspect of environment on one hand and cognition on other hand than the orphan adolescents. Thus from the confirmation of the results from the above table the hypotheses No.2 which reads as, “orphan and non orphan adolescents differ significantly on Overall Adjustment dimension of Mental Health Battery” stands accepted.

**Table 1.2: Mean comparison of orphan and non orphan adolescents on Autonomy dimension of Mental Health Battery. (N = 100 in each group)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D</th>
<th><em>t</em>-value</th>
<th>Level of significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Orphan</td>
<td>8.98</td>
<td>1.99</td>
<td>9.32</td>
<td>Significant at 0.01 level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non orphan</td>
<td>11.03</td>
<td>1.45</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The glimpse on table 1.2 shows the mean comparison of orphan and non orphan adolescents on Autonomy dimension of Mental Health Battery. The table reveals that the two groups of adolescents *viz.*, orphan and non orphan differ significantly on Autonomy dimension of Mental Health battery as calculated *t*-value (9.32) is greater than tabulated *t*-value (2.58) at 0.01 level of significance. The mean
difference favours non orphan adolescents, which confirms that the non orphan adolescents are Autonomous, having independence and self determination in thinking than the orphan adolescents. Thus from the confirmation of the results from the above table the hypotheses No.3 which reads as, “orphan and non orphan adolescents differ significantly on Autonomy dimension of Mental Health Battery” stands accepted.

Table 1.3: Mean comparison of orphan and non orphan adolescents on Security/insecurity dimensions of mental health battery. (N = 100 in each group)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>Level of significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Orphan</td>
<td>8.98</td>
<td>1.90</td>
<td>13.69</td>
<td>Significant at 0.01 level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non orphan</td>
<td>12.13</td>
<td>1.37</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The table 1.3 shows the mean comparison of orphan and non orphan adolescents on Security/insecurity dimension of Mental Health Battery. The table reveals that the two groups of adolescents viz., orphan and non orphan differ significantly on Security/insecurity dimension of Mental Health Battery as calculated t-value (13.69) is greater than tabulated t- value (2.58) at 0.01 level of significance. The mean difference favours non orphan adolescents which confirm that the non orphan adolescents are secure, confident and free from fear than orphan adolescents. Thus from the confirmation of the results from the above table the hypotheses No.4 which reads as, “ orphan and non orphan adolescents differ significantly on Security Insecurity dimension of Mental Health Battery” stands accepted.

Table 1.4: Mean comparison of orphan and non orphan adolescents on Self Concept dimensions of Mental Health Battery. (N = 100 in each group)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>Level of significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Orphan</td>
<td>9.16</td>
<td>1.68</td>
<td>10.83</td>
<td>Significant at 0.01 level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non orphan</td>
<td>11.65</td>
<td>1.57</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The glimpse of table 1.4 shows the mean comparison of orphan and non orphan adolescents on Self Concept dimension of Mental Health Battery. The table reveals that the two groups of adolescents viz., orphan and non orphan differ significantly on Self Concept dimension of Mental Health battery as calculated t-value (10.83) is greater than tabulated t- value (2.58) at 0.01 level of significance. The mean difference favours non orphan adolescents which conforms that non orphan adolescents have higher personal attitude and knowledge of themselves and evaluation of their achievement than the orphan adolescents. Thus from the confirmation of the results from the above table the hypotheses No.5 which reads as,
Mental Health of Orphan and Non-Orphan Adolescents – A Comparative Study

“orphan and non orphan adolescents differ significantly on Self Concept dimension of Mental Health Battery” stands accepted.

Table 1.5: Mean comparison of orphan and non orphan adolescents on General Intelligence dimensions of Mental Health Battery. (N = 100 in each group)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>Level of significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Orphan</td>
<td>16.35</td>
<td>3.24</td>
<td>4.37</td>
<td>Significant at 0.01 level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non orphan</td>
<td>18.11</td>
<td>2.39</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A quick look on table 1.5 shows the mean comparison of orphan and non orphan adolescents on General Intelligence dimension of Mental Health Battery. The table reveals that the two groups of adolescents viz., orphan and non orphan differ significantly on General Intelligence dimension of Mental Health Battery as calculated t- value (4.37) is greater than tabulated t- value (2.58) at 0.01 level of significance. The mean difference favours non orphan adolescents which confirm that the non orphan adolescents think rationally, behave purposefully and are intelligent than orphan adolescents. Thus from the confirmation of the results from the above table the hypotheses No.6 which reads as, “orphan and non orphan adolescents differ significantly on General Intelligence dimension of Mental Health Battery” stands accepted.

Table 1.6: Mean comparison of orphan and non orphan adolescents on composite Score of Mental Health Battery. (N = 100 in each group)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D</th>
<th>t- value</th>
<th>Level of significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Orphan</td>
<td>73.38</td>
<td>14.78</td>
<td>9.62</td>
<td>Significant at 0.01 level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non orphan</td>
<td>90.12</td>
<td>9.3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The table 1.6 shows the mean comparison of orphan and non orphan adolescents on composite score of Mental Health Battery. The table reveals that the two groups of adolescents viz., orphan and non orphan differ significantly on composite score of Mental Health Battery as calculated t- value (9.62) is greater than tabulated t- value (2.58) at 0.01 level of significance. The mean difference favours non orphan adolescents which confirm that the non orphan adolescents are emotionally stable, have better overall Adjustment, reflect autonomy, self determination, are confident, free from fear, think rationally, behave purposefully and are intelligent than orphan adolescents. Thus from the confirmation of the results from the above table the hypotheses No.7 which reads as, “orphan and non orphan adolescents differ significantly on composite score of Mental Health Battery” stands accepted.
Conclusion

The main purpose of the study was to compare Mental health of orphan and non orphan adolescents in Kashmir. The sample for the present investigation consists of 200 students (100 orphan and 100 non orphan adolescents) taken from the 10th grade of various secondary schools and two orphanages institutions of four districts of Kashmir viz., Srinagar, Ganderbal, Pulwama and Budgam. The orphan students were identified on the basis of information obtained from the said offices. The list of government orphanages was taken from office of the Director social welfare Department and the list of Non Government orphanages was taken from registration office for NGO press colony Srinagar. The non orphan students were selected with the help of random sampling technique. Mental Health Battery by A.K. Singh and Alpana Sen Gupta English version by Gulnaz were administered to measure Mental Health of orphan and non orphan adolescents in Kashmir. Various statistical methods, including mean, S.D and t-test were applied to analyze the data. Therefore the main conclusions of the study are as under:

1. Non orphan adolescents in comparison to orphan adolescents are emotionally stable, have stable feeling than orphan.
2. Non orphan adolescents in comparison to orphan adolescents have overall harmonious balance between the demands of various aspects of environment than orphan.
3. Non orphan adolescents in comparison to orphan adolescents are independent, autonomous and self determined than orphan.
4. Non orphan adolescents in comparison to orphan adolescents are secure, confident and free from fear than orphan.
5. Non orphan adolescents in comparison to orphan adolescents have better self concept, have better attitudes, are committed and satisfied, have higher level of self evaluation and higher aspiration than orphan.
6. Non orphan adolescents in comparison to orphan adolescents think rationally, behave purposefully than orphan.
7. Non orphan adolescents in comparison to orphan adolescents are emotionally stable, have overall harmonious balance between the various demands of environment, are independent, secure, have better self concept and general intelligence than orphan.

References


Mental Health of Orphan and Non-Orphan Adolescents – A Comparative Study


MENTAL HEALTH AND SCHOLASTIC ACHIEVEMENT OF HIGHER SECONDARY SCHOOL STUDENTS

Sabahat Aslam*  
Shabir Ahmad Bhat**

Abstract
The present research was taken up with broad objective to study the Mental Health and scholastic achievement of higher secondary school students in relation to their gender and Rural/Urban Dichotomy. The sample comprised of 800 higher secondary school students (400 Rural and 400 Urban students, out of which 200 were male and 200 were female). The sample for the study was selected randomly from the different schools of Srinagar (as urban district) and Ganderbal (as rural district). The sample was selected in such a way to ensure that every unit of the population could get equal chance to be selected in the sample. Mental Health Battery developed by A.K.Singh and Alpana Sen Gupta (Hindi Version) and translated into English by Gulnaz was used for studying Mental Health and scholastic Achievement was obtained from the previous two years performance records of the sample subjects. Result findings suggest significant mean difference between male and female students on overall scores of mental health and Female students were found to have better mental health than the male higher secondary school students. Result Findings also suggest significant mean difference between rural and urban higher secondary school student’s on Mental Health and Urban students were found to have high mental health than the rural higher secondary school students. The results also suggest significant mean difference between rural and urban students on their Scholastic Achievement and urban student’s have higher Scholastic Achievement as compared to

* Research Scholar, Department of Education, University of Kashmir  
** Assistant Professor, Department of Education, University of Kashmir
rural higher secondary school students. And the results also suggest that there is significant difference between male and female higher secondary students on Social Intelligence and females were found to have higher Scholastic achievement than male students.

**Key Words:** Mental Health, Scholastic Achievement, Higher Secondary School Students

**Introduction**

Mental Health is the person’s condition with respect to their psychological and emotional well being. After leaving school and entering further for higher education, much stress is created in the minds of young adults. And to cope up with that stress many studies have been conducted into how well universities and higher educational institutes are responding to mental health problems among their students. Mental Health has been defined as positive but relative quality of life. It is a condition of an average person who works hard to meet the demands of life on the basis of his capacities and abilities. Mental Health is the complete and harmonious functioning of the whole personality. Media reports also reflect growing concern over students’ mental health and adjustment issues.

Scholastic Achievement or Scholastic performance is the outcome of education, the extent to which a student, teacher or institution has achieved their educational goals. Scholastic Achievement is commonly measured by examinations or continuous assessment but there is no general agreement on how it is best tested or which aspects are most important - procedural knowledge such as skills or declarative knowledge such as facts. Scholastic Achievement concerns with the development, motives, capabilities, interests and behavior that have to do with performance in evaluative situations. The issue of student’s achievement has become the plus of many Psychological and educational studies and numerous research works have linked it to adolescence. It is important to note that Scholastic Achievement and subsequent plans and decisions of any sort, made especially during adolescence, are believed to have important implications on an individual’s later endeavour, and hence influence future success, field of career, job prestige, earnings, life styles, identity, economic functioning and subsequently psychological development.

**Objectives**

The following objectives were formulated for the present Investigation:

- To compare Rural and Urban higher Secondary School Students on Mental Health.
- To compare Male and Female higher secondary school students on Mental Health.
- To compare Rural and Urban higher Secondary School Students on Scholastic Achievement.
- To compare male and female higher secondary school students on Scholastic Achievement.
Mental Health and Scholastic Achievement of Higher Secondary School Students

Hypotheses
The following hypotheses were formulated for the present study:

- There is significant difference between Rural and Urban higher Secondary School Students on Mental Health.
- There is significant difference between Male and Female higher secondary school students on Mental Health.
- There is significant difference between Rural and Urban higher secondary school students on Scholastic Achievement.
- There is significant difference between Male and Female higher secondary school students on Scholastic Achievement.

Operational Definition of Variables
The following operational definitions were been formulated for the present study:

1. Mental Health: For the present study, Mental Health was been operationally defined as the scores obtained by administered A.K. Singh and Alpana Sen Gupta's, “Mental Health Battery”.

2. Scholastic Achievement: For the present study, scholastic achievement was been operationally defined as the scores obtained by the sample subjects in their previous two examinations.

Methodology
The descriptive method was used for the present study. The descriptive study describes and interprets what is - it is concerned with conditions or relationships that exist, opinions that are held, processes that are going on, effects that are evident, or trends that are developing. It is primarily concerned with present, although it often considers past events and influences as they relate to current conditions.

Sample
The sample for the study consisted of 800 Higher secondary school students in which 400 were rural higher secondary school students 400 were urban higher secondary school students and out of which 200 were male rural and female rural higher secondary school students and 200 were male urban and female urban higher secondary school students. The sample for the present study was selected from district Srinagar (Urban) and district Ganderbal (Rural), which were selected randomly from ten districts of Kashmir. The sample for the study was selected randomly to ensure that every unit of the population gets equal chance of being selected. The researcher ensured that discretions of the researcher should not get involved in the selection of the sample from the population.

Selection and Description of Tools
The tools for the present study were selected in a manner to achieve an optimum level of confidence by the investigator for the objectives of the study. Since
the study principally contained two variables namely Mental Health and Scholastic Achievement. Therefore, such tools were decided to be chosen as could validly and reliably measure these variables. The investigator after screening a number of available tests finally selected the following tools to collect the data.

1. Mental Health Battery developed by A.K.Singh and Alpana Sen Gupta (Hindi Version) and translated into English by Gulnaz.
2. Scholastic Achievement of the sample subjects were assessed by checking the previous two year Scholastic performance record of the sample subjects.

Analysis and Interpretation

A) Mental Health Battery

Mental Health Battery was employed to measure the mental health status of higher secondary school students in Kashmir division. The tool is valid and reliable tool measuring the mental health of the sample subjects in six dimension viz., emotional stability, overall adjustment, autonomy, security-insecurity, self concept and general intelligence.

Table 1.1: Showing the mean comparison between male and female higher secondary school students on ‘Emotional Stability’ component of Mental Health Battery.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>Level of Significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>400</td>
<td>8.85</td>
<td>2.821</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>Insignificant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>400</td>
<td>9.01</td>
<td>2.91</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The above table reveals that there is mean difference between male and female students on ‘Emotional Stability’ of mental health. The statistical data reveals that there is no significant mean difference between the two groups on ‘emotional stability’ dimension which confirms that both male and female have almost equal emotional stability.

Table 1.2: Showing the mean comparison between male and female higher secondary school students on ‘Overall Adjustment’ dimension of mental health battery (N=800).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>Level of Significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>400</td>
<td>19.93</td>
<td>2.366</td>
<td>4.287</td>
<td>Significant at 0.01 level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>400</td>
<td>20.66</td>
<td>2.449</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The perusal of the table shows mean comparison between male and female higher secondary school students on ‘Overall Adjustment’ dimension of social intelligence. The statistical data reveals that there is significant mean difference between rural and urban higher secondary school students on ‘Overall Adjustment’
dimension and the difference was found to be significant at 0.01 level. As the mean
difference favours the male students which confirm that male higher secondary school
students are having better overall adjustment than the female higher secondary school
students.

Table 1.3: Showing the mean comparison between male and female higher
secondary school students on ‘Autonomy’ dimension of mental health
battery (N=800).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>Level of significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>400</td>
<td>10.54</td>
<td>1.793</td>
<td>6.485</td>
<td>Significant at 0.01 level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>400</td>
<td>9.65</td>
<td>2.078</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The perusal of the above table shows the mean difference between male and
female higher secondary school students on ‘Autonomy’ dimension of mental health.
The data reveals that there is significant difference between the two groups on
‘Autonomy’ dimension of mental health as the calculated t-value exceeds the tabulated
t-value at 0.01 level of significance. As the mean difference favours the male higher
secondary school students which conclude that male students enjoy more autonomy
than the female higher secondary school students.

Table 1.4: Showing the mean comparison between male and female higher
secondary school students on ‘Security-Insecurity’ dimension of mental
health battery (N=400 each)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>Level of significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>400</td>
<td>9.03</td>
<td>1.843</td>
<td>1.395</td>
<td>Insignificant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>400</td>
<td>8.84</td>
<td>2.006</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The above table shows the mean comparison between male and female higher
secondary school students on ‘Security-Insecurity’ dimension of mental health battery.
The statistical data shows that there is no significant mean difference between the two
groups on security-insecurity dimension which confirms that both male and female
feel equally secure in the society.

Table 1.5: Showing the mean comparison between male and female higher
secondary school students on ‘Self Concept’ dimension of mental health
battery (N=800).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>Level of significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>400</td>
<td>8.51</td>
<td>1.567</td>
<td>4.001</td>
<td>Significant at 0.01 level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>400</td>
<td>8.96</td>
<td>1.614</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The above table depicts that there is mean comparison between male and female higher secondary school students on ‘self-concept’ dimension of mental health. The statistical data reveals that there is significant mean comparison between male and female higher secondary school students on ‘self-concept’ dimension and the difference was found to be significant at 0.01 level. As the mean difference favours the female students which confirm that female higher secondary school students are having better ‘Self Concept’ than the male higher secondary school students.

**Table 1.6: Showing the mean comparison between male and female higher secondary school students on General Intelligence component of mental health battery (N=400 each).**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>Level of significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>400</td>
<td>9.62</td>
<td>3.802</td>
<td>0.613</td>
<td>Insignificant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>400</td>
<td>9.77</td>
<td>3.085</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The above table depicts that there is mean comparison between male and female students on General Intelligence dimension of mental health battery. The statistical data shows that there is no significant difference between the two groups on General Intelligence dimension which confirms that both male and female have almost similar general mental ability.

**Table 1.7: Showing the mean comparison between male and female higher secondary school students on Overall dimensions of Mental Health (N=800 each).**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>Level of significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>400</td>
<td>66.48</td>
<td>5.434</td>
<td>2.013</td>
<td>Significant at 0.05 level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>400</td>
<td>67.18</td>
<td>4.339</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The perusal of the above table shows the mean difference between male and female higher secondary school students on overall dimensions of mental health and the data reveals that there is significant mean difference between the two groups and the difference was found to be significant at 0.05 level. As the mean difference favours the female students which confirm that female higher secondary school students are having strong mental health than the male higher secondary school students.

**Table 1.8: Showing the mean comparison between rural and urban higher secondary school students on ‘Emotional Stability’ of Mental Health Battery (N=800).**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>Level of significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rural</td>
<td>400</td>
<td>8.57</td>
<td>1.793</td>
<td>4.694</td>
<td>Significant at 0.01 level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urban</td>
<td>400</td>
<td>9.15</td>
<td>1.701</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The above table shows the mean comparison between rural and urban school students on ‘Emotional Stability’ dimension of mental health. The statistical data reveals that the significant difference between rural and urban higher secondary school students on ‘Emotional stability’ dimension of mental health and the difference was found to be significant at 0.01 level. As the mean difference favours the urban students which confirm that urban higher secondary school students are having high emotional stability than the rural higher secondary school students.

**Table 1.9: Showing the mean comparison between rural and urban higher secondary school students on ‘Overall Adjustment’ dimension of mental health battery (N=800).**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>Level of significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rural</td>
<td>400</td>
<td>20.11</td>
<td>2.411</td>
<td>2.154</td>
<td>Significant at 0.05 level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urban</td>
<td>400</td>
<td>20.48</td>
<td>2.446</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The above table depicts the mean comparison between the rural and urban students on Overall adjustment dimension of mental health. The statistical data reveals that there is significant mean difference between rural and urban higher secondary school students on ‘Overall adjustment’ dimension and the difference was found to be significant at 0.05 level. As the mean difference favours the urban student which confirms that urban higher secondary school students are having high adjustment than the rural higher secondary school students.

**Table 1.10: Showing the mean comparison between rural and urban higher secondary school students on ‘Autonomy’ dimension of mental health battery (N=800).**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>Level of significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rural</td>
<td>400</td>
<td>9.92</td>
<td>1.960</td>
<td>2.495</td>
<td>Significant at 0.05 level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urban</td>
<td>400</td>
<td>10.27</td>
<td>2.007</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The above table depicts the mean comparison between rural and urban higher secondary school students on ‘Autonomy’ dimension of mental health. The statistical data reveals that there is significant mean difference between rural and urban higher secondary school students on ‘autonomy’ dimension of mental health and the difference was found to be significant at 0.05 level. As the mean difference favours the urban students, which confirms that urban higher secondary school students are more autonomous than the rural higher secondary school students.
Table 1.11: Showing the mean comparison between rural and urban higher secondary school students on ‘Security-Insecurity’ dimension of Mental Health Battery (N=800).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>Level of significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rural</td>
<td>400</td>
<td>8.67</td>
<td>1.931</td>
<td>3.923</td>
<td>Significant at 0.01 level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urban</td>
<td>400</td>
<td>9.20</td>
<td>1.889</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The above table reveals mean comparison between rural and urban students on Security-Insecurity dimension of mental health. The statistical data reveals that there is significant difference between rural and urban higher secondary school students on ‘Security-Insecurity’ dimension and the difference was found to be significant at 0.01 level. As the mean difference favours the urban students which confirm that urban higher secondary school students feel more secure than the rural higher secondary school students.

Table 1.12: Showing the mean comparison between rural and urban higher secondary school students on ‘Self concept’ dimension of Mental Health Battery (N=800).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>Level of significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rural</td>
<td>400</td>
<td>8.89</td>
<td>1.681</td>
<td>2.742</td>
<td>Significant at 0.01 level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urban</td>
<td>400</td>
<td>8.58</td>
<td>1.513</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The perusal of the above table shows the mean comparison between the rural and urban higher secondary school students on ‘Self Concept’ dimension of mental health. The statistical data reveals that there is significant difference between rural and urban higher secondary school students on ‘Self Concept’ dimension and the difference was found to be significant at 0.01 level. As the mean difference favours the rural students which confirm that rural higher secondary school students have better concept of self than the urban higher secondary school students.

Table 1.13: Showing the mean comparison between rural and urban higher secondary school students on ‘General Intelligence’ component of Mental Health Battery (N=800).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>Level of significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rural</td>
<td>400</td>
<td>9.74</td>
<td>2.781</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>Insignificant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urban</td>
<td>400</td>
<td>9.75</td>
<td>2.107</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The above table shows the mean comparison between rural and urban students on General Intelligence dimension of mental health battery. The statistical data reveals that there is no significant difference between the two groups on General Intelligence dimension which confirms that both rural and urban have almost equal general mental ability.

Table 1.14: Showing the mean comparison between rural and urban higher secondary school students on Composite score of Mental Health Battery (N=800).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>Level of significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rural</td>
<td>400</td>
<td>65.90</td>
<td>7.301</td>
<td>2.90</td>
<td>Significant at 0.01 level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urban</td>
<td>400</td>
<td>67.43</td>
<td>7.606</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The table shows the mean comparison between rural and urban higher secondary school students on overall dimensions of mental health. The statistical data reveals that there is significant mean difference between rural and urban students on overall dimensions of mental health and the difference was found to be significant at 0.01 level. As the mean difference favours the urban students which confirm that urban higher secondary school students are high on mental health than the rural higher secondary school students.

B) Scholastic Achievement of Higher Secondary School Students

The scholastic achievement of the sample subjects were assessed by consulting the previous two years academic performance of the sample subjects. The aggregate marks of the two years were taken as indicators of academic performance of the sample subjects.

Table 1.15: Showing the mean comparison between male and female higher secondary school students on Scholastic Achievement.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>Level of significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>400</td>
<td>65.82</td>
<td>5.842</td>
<td>7.755</td>
<td>Significant at 0.01 level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>400</td>
<td>69.98</td>
<td>8.999</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The above table reveals that there is significant mean difference between male and female higher secondary school students on scholastic achievement. The data depicts that there is a significant mean difference between the two groups and the difference was found to be significant at 0.01 level. As the mean difference favours the female students which reveal that female students are higher on academic achievement than male students.
In the light of the above evidences, the hypothesis which reads as,

**Table 1.16:** Showing the mean comparison between rural and urban higher secondary school students on Scholastic Achievement.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>Level of significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rural</td>
<td>400</td>
<td>69.22</td>
<td>2.907</td>
<td>11.34</td>
<td>Significant at 0.01 level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urban</td>
<td>400</td>
<td>73.58</td>
<td>7.117</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The above table shows the mean comparison between rural and urban students on Scholastic Achievement. The data depicts that there is significant mean difference between the two groups and the difference was found to be significant at 0.01 level as the calculated t-value exceeds the tabulated t-value at 0.01 level. The observed difference favours the urban higher secondary school student which confirms that urban higher secondary school students are high on academic achievement than the rural higher secondary school students.

**Inferential Suggestions:**

1. A very high percentage (91%) of the higher secondary school students was found to have average mental health. Therefore, timely guidance and counseling should be given to the students so that students will have high emotional stability and good adjustment in the society. Rural higher secondary school students were found to have low mental health. Therefore, efforts should be made to involve rural higher secondary students in non academic activities like sports, social services etc besides academic activities so that their mental health will be developed. Female were found to have better mental health than their male higher secondary school students. Therefore, efforts should be made to involve the male higher secondary school students in different non academic activities so that mental health of the male students will be developed.

2. Females were found to have better academic achievement than the males. Therefore, proper motivation, remedial classes, career counseling should be organized for the male higher secondary school students to enhance their academic achievement. A good attractive school climate should be ensured in the educational institutions so that male students will excel in their academic career. Urban higher secondary school students were found to have better academic performance than the rural higher secondary schools students. Therefore, it is recommended that the infrastructural facilities in the rural higher secondary schools should be upgraded so that the children of the rural school will get maximum benefit out of the education in order
to motivate best minds in the rural schools. Incentives should also be given
to the teachers who are voluntarily willing to serve in the rural areas.

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ANALYSIS OF VARIOUS FACTORS OF LIFE STYLE AND ATTITUDE TOWARDS RESEARCH AMONG INTERNET NON-USERS: A FACTOR ANALYTICAL STUDY ON POST-GRADUATE STUDENTS

Syed Noor-ul-Amin∗

Abstract

The present study has been carried out to uncover the dominant set of factors of Internet non-users on various dimensions of Lifestyle and Attitude towards Research. A sample of 300 post graduate students (Internet non-users) were selected through random sampling technique from various departments of three faculties i.e. (faculty of Science, faculty of Social science and faculty of Arts)100 students from each faculty of University of Kashmir, (J&K) India. Lifestyle Scale by S. K. Bawa and S. Kaur, Attitude Scale towards Research Scale by Vishal Sood and Y. K. Sharma were used to collect the data. Moreover, Information Blank developed by the investigator to ascertain the Internet non-users. The obtained data was analyzed by using the Principal Component Factor Analysis (PCFA with SPSS 20). The results indicate the emergence of three factors in case of Internet non-users with 76 % of the total variation in data. First factor is designated as “Socio-familial Involvement and Professional Interest.”. This is more influential among the Internet non-users group with high factor loadings. The Second factor that loaded is designated as “Health Efficacy with Research Perception”. This is the second influential factor. The variables that loaded on the Third factor labelled as “Research Acquaintance for Existence”. This is the least influential factor among Internet non-users. It is to be recorded that first and second factor exhibited a greatest variability and last identified factor emerged exhibits low variability among Internet non-users.

∗ Assistant Professor (Contractual), Department of Education, University of Kashmir
Key words: Life style, Attitude, Research, Internet non-users, Factor Analytical, Post Graduate Students

Introduction

The recent decades have witnessed a dramatic increase in the use of the Internet and computer technologies which become a common instrument in our daily living and have a significant influence on quality of life (Israel, 2000). 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. 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. 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 not beneficial under every circumstance and situation. Hicks (2002) revealed Internet as a double-edged sword; some accept it as a panacea while others are appealing its negative growth.

Researchers revealed that there is a group of students interested in and are competent with technology and also a group of students not interested in and not very competent with this technology (Minks 2000). Some students prefer to reference only traditional print materials, despite the increasing prevalence of electronic sources (Large & Beheshti, 2000). Students report that they don’t copy from the Web or that they are less likely to copy from the Web than from traditional print sources. However, students are still reliant on their library as a physical space for the discovery of research content (Nicholas & Rowlands 2008). The benefit from the huge resources that exist on the Internet, students must necessarily have information technology literacy. Every year thousands of young students register at universities. It becomes clear that not all of them have the necessary skills to work with all of the ICT resources available to them. The gap in Internet usage is labelled as ‘the digital divide’. Indeed, upon closer inspection many of the studies actually convey a sense that not all students are as inclined to integrate Internet use in their studies as might be assumed. As is usually the case in educational debate, blame for this disparity has been most frequently attributed to deficits of skills, motivation and know-how on the part of students, For example, some researchers have reasoned that university students’ (non) engagement with the Internet is influenced by perceptions of usefulness, ease-of-use and other psychological attitudes towards both technology and learning (Cheung & Huang,
Peter & Valkenburg (2006) advocate a ‘digital differentiation’ approach to replace the digital divide. Cushman & Klecun (2006) suggest replacing the term ‘digital divide’ with that of ‘digital exclusion’, to better assess the complex nature of the processes involved in understanding the use and non-use of ICT. A new type of digital exclusion is emerging due to this variation of usage and appropriation. Brotoorne (2005) says use or not to use the Internet was not always due to a disadvantage but ‘more due to matters of “digital choice”’ rather than “digital divide”. On the other hand, Hinson & Amidu (2005) analysed that lack of electronic literacy skills among the university students was a great obstacle in using Internet resources. This paints a gloomy picture of low levels of Internet skills and literacy because the natural assumption is that university students should be at the forefront of development and must be skilled in how to use the Internet. Ngulube et al. (2009) found that there was limited use of the Internet due to the students’ poor level of network literacy. Luambano & Nawe (2004) reported that majority of university students were not using the Internet due to the inadequacy of computers and lack of skill in Internet use. Horrigan (2009) claimed that the main reason behind the student’s Internet Non-use was a lack of interest in using the Internet, as they considered it irrelevant to their daily lives. Other criteria included cost, availability and usability. In this way, Internet Non-use may be explained by a negative attitude towards ICT, as well as the perceived lack of pleasure or ‘behavioural control’ that reflects a desire to control the use of certain technological tools. The prevailing understanding is that they are students who, for one reason or another, have not yet gained access to the benefits that a technical application has to offer.

Over the last 15 to 20 years research has focussed on the use of the Internet by various sectors of society. These researches have considered a wide range of subjects. The impact of Internet use is being investigated increasingly, and researchers addressed greater number of related issues. There is a large body of research spanning several domains, disciplines, and approaches that has investigated’ use of technology, but no work has focused on studying the Internet non-use among higher education students. With the surge in the use of information and communication technology, Internet non-users can be considered to be more than just a simple anomaly. Therefore, there is a critical need to have standardized and more reliable research in this area as a way of advancing the non-use of Internet and providing an insight to determine the various dimensions of Lifestyle and attitude towards research among post graduate students in Kashmir (J&K).

**Objectives of the Study**

The following objectives have been formulated for the present investigation:

1. To identify Internet non-users.
2. To find out the dominant set of factors of Internet non-users on various dimensions Lifestyle and Attitude towards Research.
Hypothesis

Following hypothesis has been framed for the proposed investigation:

1. The dominant set of factors extracted from Internet non-users on various dimensions of Lifestyle and Attitude towards Research bear Variance.

Methodology and Procedure

Descriptive study was conducted in University of Kashmir. The study population comprised students from three fields of study namely Sciences, Social sciences and Arts. Random sampling was implemented to find out the dominant set of factors of Internet-users on Lifestyle and Attitude towards Research.

Sample

A sample of 300 post graduate students (Internet non-users) were selected through random sampling technique from various departments of three faculties i.e. (from faculty of Science, faculty of Social science and faculty of Arts 100 from each faculty) of University of Kashmir, (J&K) India. It needs to be mentioned that the subjects (Internet non-users) reading in 3rd and 4th semester has been considered the sample for the present study.

Collection of data

Tools

1. Information Blank: Self constructed Information blank developed by investigator with the purpose to ascertain the Internet-users. In the present study Internet-non-users have been considered those university students who lack a direct access to the worldwide network and have not their own exposure and skill to use Internet.

2. Attitude Scale towards Research: In the present study, Attitude towards Research refers to the dominant set of scores as measured by Attitude Scale towards Research by Vishal Sood and Y. K. Sharma (ASTR–SVSY). The scale consists 42 items with Four Dimension- I. General Aspects of Research and Research Process, II. Usefulness of Research in Professional Career, III. Relevance of Research in Personal-Social Life, IV. Difficulties in Research and Research Anxiety.

3. Lifestyle Scale: In the present study, Lifestyle assessed by the dominant set of scores as measured by Lifestyle Scale by S. K. Bawa and S. Kaur (LSS–BK). This scale consists 60 items (43 positive and 17 negative items) to measure the lifestyle of the students in six different dimensions: I. Health Conscious Life Style, II. Academic Oriented Lifestyle, III. Career Oriented Lifestyle, IV. Socially Oriented Lifestyle, V. Trend Seeking Lifestyle, and VI. Family Oriented Lifestyle.

4. Statistical analysis and Interpretation: The data was put to suitable statistical analysis by using the Principal Components method of Factor Analysis (PCFA).
Analysis of Various Factors of the Life Style and Attitude towards Research among Internet ...

Table 1: KMO Measure of Sampling Adequacy and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity (Group Internet non-users)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy</th>
<th>Bartlett's Test of Sphericity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Approx. Chi-Square</td>
<td>1945.063</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>df</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig.</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1 shows the information of two tests that were used to verify if the PCFA employed in testing the hypothesis is appropriate. The two main tests in the table are: a) the KMO and b) Bartlett's Tests. The KMO value (0.772). It shows that the degree of common variance among the variables is quite high. The KMO index ranges from 0 to 1 and the sample can be considered suitable for PCFA if this index is equal or higher than 0.600 in the light of a high significance of the Bartlett's test of Sphericity (Chi-Square=1945.063, p=.000). Therefore, the results presented in the same table reveal that the data used is adequate enough to conduct the Principal Components Factor Analysis (PCFA).

Table 2: Showing the Total Variance Explained of Internet non-users on various dimensions of Lifestyle and Attitude towards Research (N=300).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Communalities</th>
<th>Initial Eigenvalues</th>
<th>Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings</th>
<th>Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Initial</td>
<td>Extracti on</td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>% of Variance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HOLS</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>.829</td>
<td>3.746</td>
<td>37.463</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AOLS</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>.785</td>
<td>2.316</td>
<td>23.160</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COLS</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>.774</td>
<td>1.541</td>
<td>15.410</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SOLS</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>.769</td>
<td>.920</td>
<td>9.196</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOLS</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>.787</td>
<td>.370</td>
<td>3.700</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FOLS</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>.918</td>
<td>.342</td>
<td>3.421</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AGARRP</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>.798</td>
<td>.263</td>
<td>2.629</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AURPC</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>.899</td>
<td>.223</td>
<td>2.227</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ARRPSL</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>.845</td>
<td>.210</td>
<td>2.096</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ADRRA</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>.200</td>
<td>.070</td>
<td>.698</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2 indicated that the 1st part of the table shows communalities which indicate the amount of variance in each variable that is accounted for. Initial communalities are estimates of the variance in each variable accounted for by all
Factors (or components). Extraction communalities are estimates of the variance in each variable accounted for by the factors (or components) in the factor solution. The 2nd part of the table showing the Initial Eigenvalues and percentage of variance explained by each successive factor. Table shows the Eigenvalues and percentage of variance explained for just the three factors of the initial solution that are regarded as important. Third part of the table in the section labelled Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings which contains two important pieces of information. First, in the column marked ‘% of variance’ SPSS tells us how much variance is explained by each of the Factors identified, in order from the greatest amount of variance to the least amount of variance. This Factor analysis is based on three Factors, because these three Factors have Eigenvalues greater than one. So, here the first Factor accounts for 37.463% of the variance in the total scenario with very large amount, while the second Factor identified accounts for only 23.160% and the third Factor 15.410% of the total variance - a much lower amount of explanatory power. Each Factor is unrelated to each other, and so the amount of variance in each Factor is unrelated, due to their independent nature with each other. The results observed that how much variance in the total picture is explained by each Factor and which Factors possess the most and least explanatory power to explain the total scenario of 10 variables. Second, SPSS keeps a score of the cumulative amount of explanatory power of the 3 Factors identified. In the column ‘Cumulative %’ tells us that in total 76.033% of the overall picture (of the 10 variables) are accounted for explained by the 3 Factors. On the other hand, ‘Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings’ (the fuller power of Factor analysis) is tapped thereby identifying more clearly the grouping of variables into Factors, and separating each Factor from the other much more clearly. With the Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings, the percentage of variance explained by each Factor is altered, even though the total cumulative percentage 76.033% remains the same. The first Factor in the rotated solution no longer accounts for 37.463% as in the Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings, but 33.074% of the variance, and that Factor 2, which accounted for 23.160% of the variance in the Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings now accounts for 23.084% of the variance in the Rotated Sums of Squared Loadings. Factors 3 accounted for only just 15.410% of the variance in the Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings and now account for 19.875% of the variance in the Rotated Sums of Squared Loadings. The Factor matrix contains Factor loadings for each variable on each Factor. In computing the un-rotated Factor matrix, the researcher is simply interested in the best linear combination of variables-best in the sense that the particular combination of original variables accounts for more of the variance in the data as a whole than any other linear combination of variables.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Initial Eigenvalues and Percentage of Variance Explained</th>
<th>Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings</th>
<th>Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Factor 1: 37.463%</td>
<td>Factor 2: 23.160%</td>
<td>Factor 3: 15.410%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factor 2: 23.160%</td>
<td>Factor 2: 23.084%</td>
<td>Factor 3: 19.875%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factor 3: 15.410%</td>
<td>Factor 3: 15.410%</td>
<td>Factor 3: 15.410%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Factor matrix contains Factor loadings for each variable on each Factor. In computing the un-rotated Factor matrix, the researcher is simply interested in the best linear combination of variables-best in the sense that the particular combination of original variables accounts for more of the variance in the data as a whole than any other linear combination of variables.
### Table 3: Showing the Un-rotated and Rotated Factor Matrix of Internet non-users on various dimensions of Lifestyle and Attitude towards Research (N=300)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Un-rotated Factor Matrix</th>
<th>Rotated Factor Matrix</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FOLS</td>
<td>.925</td>
<td>-.137</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AURPC</td>
<td>.923</td>
<td>-.139</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SOLS</td>
<td>.785</td>
<td>-.013</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOLS</td>
<td>.651</td>
<td>.030</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AOLS</td>
<td>.586</td>
<td>.530</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AGARRP</td>
<td>-.263</td>
<td>.850</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HOLS</td>
<td>.105</td>
<td>.744</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COLS</td>
<td>.491</td>
<td>.724</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ARRPSL</td>
<td>.565</td>
<td>-.434</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ADRRA</td>
<td>.120</td>
<td>.085</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


The table 3 shows the Factor loading/correlations for a rotated Factor solution. Comparing the graphs for the rotated and un-rotated solutions, it can be seen that the proximity of the points representing the variables to the axes (and the frame) have changed. This change was brought about by rotating the whole frame, including the axes, in a counter clockwise direction. In this case the Varimax method was used; for each variable, this seeks to maximize the loading on one Factor and to minimize the loadings on other Factors. The Principal Components Factor Analysis (PCFA) was used as the extraction technique and Varimax as a method of rotation (refer table 4.43 for the result of the extracted Factors). Loadings indicate the degree of correspondence between the variable and the Factor, with higher loadings making the variable representative of the Factor. Other variables from the list are some numerical distance away from the variables selected and also seem to be conceptually unrelated to the seven variables identified for inclusion in the Factor. The variables selected are high, close to each other and distant from the other variables. This distinguishes more clearly one Factor from another than that undertaken in the Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings. Rotation is undertaken by Varimax rotation. This maximizes the variance between Factors and hence helps to distinguish them from each other. In SPSS the rotation is called orthogonal because the Factors are unrelated to, and
independent of each other. Further analysis presented shows the loadings of the ten variables on the three Factors extracted. The higher the absolute value of the loading, the more the Factor contributes to the variable.

**Table 4:** Showing the Rotated Factor Matrix with Blocked out Values (Extraction Method) of Internet non-users on various dimensions of lifestyle and Attitude towards Research (N=300)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Rotated Factor Matrix&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FOLS</td>
<td>.922</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AURPC</td>
<td>.901</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SOLS</td>
<td>.877</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AOLS</td>
<td>.701</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HOLS</td>
<td>.701</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AGARRP</td>
<td>.809</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COLS</td>
<td>.765</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ARRPSL</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOLS</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ADRRA</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Extraction Method: Principal Factor Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization. Rotation converged in 6 iterations

The gaps on the table represent loadings that are less than 0.600, this makes reading the table easier. Here the investigator suppressed all loadings less than 0.600 with the help of default setting SPSS to use the Kaiser stopping criterion (i.e., all Factors with Eigen values greater than 1) to decide how many Factors to extract. Analysis yielded a three-Factor solution with a simple structure (Factor loadings=>.600). This implies that there are three substantively meaningful uncorrelated patterns of relationships among the variables. For the first factor, three variables that loaded significantly high i.e. Family oriented lifestyle (FOLS), Attitude towards usefulness of research in professional career (AURPC), Social oriented lifestyle (SOLS) and Academic oriented lifestyle (AOLS) with factor loadings of 0.922, 0.901, 0.877 and 0.701 respectively. There are four variables that loaded significantly high on the second factor i.e. Health conscious lifestyle (HOLS), Attitude towards general aspects of research and research process, (AGARRP), Career oriented lifestyle (COLS) and Academic oriented lifestyle (AOLS) with factor loadings of 0.815, 0.809, 0.765 and 0.510 respectively.
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Fig.1: Showing the results of the Total Variance Explained by the extracted Factors and the analysis of each of the 3 Factors clusters of variables proffers a recipe for naming the Factors of Internet non-users (N=300)

FOLS  AURP  SOLS  AOLS

HOLS  AGA  COLS  COLS

ARRP  TOLS  ADR

Acronyms:
1) HOLS=Health Oriented Lifestyle. 2) AOLS=Academic Oriented Lifestyle. 3) COLS=Career Oriented Lifestyle. 4) SOLS=Social Oriented Lifestyle. 5) TOLS=Trend Oriented lifestyle. 6) FOLS=Family Oriented lifestyle. 7) AGARRP=Attitude towards General Aspects of Research and Research Process. 8) AURPC=Attitude towards Usefulness of Research in Professional career. 9) ARRPSL=Attitude towards Relevance of Research in Personal and Social Life. 10) ADRRA=Attitude towards Difficulties in Research and Research Anxiety

The above figure explained the analysis of Internet non-users (University students) created 3 Factors that included 10 types of information. The results are represented in the figure which shows these groups by the names Investigator gave them, as well with the types of information in each group. Rotated Matrix (3 Factors with clustering of items) shows the Factor loadings and percentage variation for each variable and highlighted the Factor that each variable loaded most strongly. While Trend oriented lifestyle showed strong negative factor loadings. Loading resulting from an orthogonal rotation is a correlation coefficient of each variable with the factor, so they naturally range from -1 to +1. A negative loading simply means that the results
need to be interpreted in the opposite direction from the way it is worded. Factor 1 accounted for 33.07% of the variance. It has been found that four variables loaded strongly on Factor 1 and generated 92.2% of variation in Family Oriented Lifestyle with Factor loading 0.922. Data further reveals 90.1% of variation in Attitude towards Usefulness of Research in Professional career with Factor loading 0.901. The findings further revealed: 87.7% variation in Social Oriented lifestyle with Factor loading 0.877 and 70.1% of variation in Academic Oriented Lifestyle with Factor loading 0.701. Each of the variables that were seen to be loaded on this Factor has a correlation (r): 0.701 ≤ r ≤ 0.922 with the Factor. The researcher devised the name of this Factor as “Socio-familial Involvement and Professional Interest.” Factor 2 accounted for 23.08% of the variance. It has been observed that there are three variables loaded strongly on this factor and generated 81.5% of variation in Health Conscious Lifestyle with Factor loading 0.815. Data further depicts 80.9% of variation in Attitude towards General Aspects of Research and Research Process with Factor loading 0.809. It was observed that 76.5% of variation in Career Oriented Lifestyle with Factor loading 0.765 and 51% of variation in Academic Oriented Lifestyle with Factor loading 0.510 and correlation is reported to be (r): 0.510 ≤ r ≤ 0.815 with the variables that loaded on it. The researcher devised the name of this Factor as “Health Efficacy with Research Perception.” However, Factor 3 accounted for 12.20% of the variance. The variables that load significantly high on this Factor are Attitude towards Relevance of Research in Personal and Social Life which generated 83.1% of variation with Factor loading 0.831. It was observed that 82.3% of variation in Trend Seeking lifestyle (Factor loading -0.823) and 41.2% variation in Attitude towards Difficulties in Research and Research anxiety (Factor loading 0.412). It has correlation (r): 0.412 ≤ r ≤ 0.831 with the variables that loaded on it. The researcher devised the name of this Factor as “Research Acquaintance for Existence.” Three-dimensional chart that includes not only horizontal and vertical axes but also depth by rotating the plotted points through 90 degrees, then the effect of this would be to bring closer together those variables that are similar to each other and to separate them more fully in distance from those variables that have no similarity to them, i.e. to render each group of variables (Factors) more homogeneous and to separate more clearly one group of variables (Factor) from another group of variables (Factor). The process of rotation keeps together those variables that are closely interrelated and keeps them apart from those variables that are not closely related. The below figure Showing a Clear Pattern of the Loadings, with all Variables Identified with 3 Factors of Internet-users.
Discussion and Conclusion

Internet has added a lot to students’ lives indeed, and has also made a few things disappear. 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 other life experiences. Internet non-users reported that the content of Internet holds little meaning for them, and they do not want to waste precious time online. It can be said that Internet non-users spent healthy time in social activities; spend a considerable amount of their time involving social and familial interaction. Social interactions online are not psychologically interchangeable with social interactions offline for Internet non-users group of subjects. Internet non-users had more total contact with family members and an increased social participation. Higher level of community and family involvement were reported among Internet non-users. They stay in touch with family and friends and found with higher levels of generalized trust, larger social networks and providing sense of belongingness through social contacts. They were found interested about their health and research concerns. They represent a unique target for the promotion of positive health aspects such as physical activity and psychological well-being. Physical activity level of university students directly affected their healthy lifestyle behaviours. Internet-use leads to ignoring other activities by the students and it has a negative effect on their physical and social activities. Health-related qualities of
life of Internet non-users were reported well. They were found to spend much time in physical and social related activities and have very positive perceptions of their general physical health; they evaluate their general state of physical health positively and rate their physical health as being ‘good’ or ‘excellent’. In the course of attending university, they develop healthy lifestyle habits, perceptions, and research motivation which promoting health. They employed research approaches in their lives and consider that research is relevant and beneficial for their personal, social and physical concerns. It has been reported that Internet-non-users have a sound sense of social, physical and psychological wellbeing. The results are in consonance with the findings of some of the researchers in the field as: UCLA Internet Report (2001) 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. 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). 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 social interaction, which are essential to normal development (Morgan & Cotton, 2003; Nie, 2001; Hillygus, & Erbring, 2002; Weiser, 2001). Certain studies reveal that Internet use lowers the quality of social relationships (Morgan & Cotton, 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.

On the other hand host of researchers in the fields supported Internet non-users as: Amato et al. (2008) Internet non-users engaged in traditional social activities, such as socializing with others, having meals together with household members. Internet-non-users spend much time engaging in these activities with
Analysis of Various Factors of the Life Style and Attitude towards Research among Internet...

household members. Hashim(2008) found Internet non-users have better social tolerance and good communication. Lloyd et al. (2007) revealed that Internet non-use has been found to be associated with positive personal and social developmental outcomes. Morgan & Cotten(2003) reported that Internet Non-user have good quality of social relationships and have better social tolerance and good communication. Nie & Erbring (2002) revealed that Internet non-users spend more time interacting face-to-face with family and friends. Time spent on online activities may cut other activities such as social interaction. Therefore, increase in virtual interaction decreases the amount of face-to-face interaction and this in turn may lead to social isolation. Shaw and Gant(2002) revealed that the Internet non-users spend more time with social gatherings and that they interact more with family, friends and their community. Williams (2001) revealed that Internet non-users have the tendency to accommodate friends, their family members and other personal responsibilities. They have healthy interpersonal relationship which affects positively on their social engagements. Similar findings have been given other researchers in the field(Madureira2009; Molina-Garcia et al. 2009; Ebem 2007; Lee, Kang Zum 2005; Menec 2003; Katz et al. 2001).

References


ANXIETY DISORDER OF VISUALLY IMPAIRED AND ORTHOPEDICALLY IMPAIRED SECONDARY SCHOOL STUDENTS OF KASHMIR DIVISION

Aqeel Ahmad Pandith

Abstract
This study was undertaken to study the anxiety disorder of differentially abled Viz. visually Impaired and orthopedically impaired Secondary School Students of Kashmir Division. The sample for the study was 100 including 50 visually Impaired and 50 orthopedically impaired students, identified from 189 secondary schools by using purposive sampling technique. The result of the study revealed that both visually impaired and orthopedically impaired students differ in their anxiety disorder. The sense of sight is more accountable for inferiority complex in the society and this inferiority complex results high neurotic level among visually impaired as compared to the orthopedically impaired students.

Key words: Anxiety Disorder, differentially abled Viz. visually impaired and orthopedically impaired.

Introduction:
An anxiety disorder is a condition characterized by persistent feelings of nervousness, tension, or restlessness. Symptoms of anxiety disorders include overwhelming feelings of panic and fear, uncontrollable obsessive thoughts, and painful, unpleasant memories. Physical symptoms of this condition include increased heart rate, sweating, muscle tension, and other uncomfortable physical reactions. The individual is very much ego centric, fails to maintain friendly interpersonal affiliation with others in the society.
The benzodiazepines and anti-depressants are the basic medications and psychological treatments to help individuals with anxiety disorders. Individuals with phobias experience intense and irrational fears of objects or situations that usually lead them to avoid that particular thing.

While many fears do not interfere with daily life, excessive phobias that dominate a person’s life usually require psychological treatment. Treatment usually centers on gradually exposing the patient to the source of the fear and reducing anxiety. Obsessive-compulsive disorder is a common neurotic disorder marked by the reappearance of interfering or disturbing thoughts, impulses, images or ideas accompanied by repeated attempts to suppress these thoughts through the performance of certain irrational and ritualistic behaviors or mental acts (compulsions) for example, a sufferer with a fear of germs or illness may wash his hands countless times each day, even to the point of making them bleed. Medications and psychological treatment, including behavior modification, are generally successful methods for many obsessive-compulsive patients. Post traumatic disorder (PTSD) affects those individuals who have been exposed to traumatizing experiences, as commonly neurotic disorder is seen in soldiers who return from war situations. The patients often relieve the trauma through flesh backs and dreams, which can lead to paranoia, insomnia and social withdrawal. Somatization disorder causes individuals to display fear as physical symptoms. Somatic symptoms are physical symptoms that a patient feels, but that cannot be medically authenticated through testing and other diagnostic procedures. Psychological treatment is the best course of action for people suffering from this, though many people with the condition resist psychiatric intervention because they believe their symptoms to be truly physical in nature. The physical disability results anxiety disorder among differently abled children.

Differently Abled is often described in terms of lack of normal functioning of physical, mental or psychological processes. It is also defined as learning difficulties or difficulties in adjusting socially, which interfaces with a person’s normal growth and development. According to the national census (2001) there are 21.9 million disabled people in India— that constitutes about 2.13 per cent of the total population. As per census ( 2001) among the major states of India the predominance of disability (percentage of disabled in total population) was comparatively much higher in J&K (3%), Orissa (2.8%), Kerala (2.7%), Tamil Nadu and H.P. (2.6% each) while it was quite low in Maharashtra (1.6%), Jharkhand, Punjab and Delhi (1.7% each), Karnataka & Andhra Pr.(1.8% each) . The occurrence of physical impairment in Jammu and Kashmir has been hampered by complex and countless factors like social, economic and plus medical. The main aim of education for the differently abled children would be to make them learned, educated and skill oriented so that they can live an independent and self-governing life.
Anxiety Disorder of Visually Impaired and Orthopedically Impaired Secondary School ……

Need and Importance:

Disability is not merely a physical fact, but also involves a normative, cultural, and legal concept. The society’s perception of disabled person also reflects its idea of a normally functional human being and definition as considered by the society gives us an insight into the society’s self-image. The recognition by the society of the term physically challenged also implies a responsibility of the society towards the people who fit that description. Society with deep ethos of social responsibility is likely to be more open in its definition of disability. The Kothari Commission (1964–66), the first education commission of independent India, observed: “the education of the handicapped children should be an indivisible part of the education system.” The commission recommended experimentation with integrated programmes in order to bring as many children as possible into these programmes. The National Policy on Education (1986) brought the fundamental issue of equality for children with special needs (CSN) to the forefront. It stated that the “objective should be to integrate physically challenged people with the general community as equal partners, to prepare them for normal growth and to facilitate them to face life with courage and confidence.” It is clearly mentioned in the document that wherever it is feasible, the education of children with orthopedic impairment and other mild handicaps will be common with that of others; Special schools with hostels will be provided, as far as possible at district headquarters, for the severely handicapped children; Adequate arrangements will be made to give vocational training to the handicapped children. Teachers’ training programmes shall be reoriented in order to deal with the special difficulties of the handicapped children and Voluntary effort for the education of the challenged/disabled will be encouraged in every possible manner”. In the present scenario in spite of technological and scientific advancement, the country of India failed to fulfill the dreams of physically challenged children, especially visually, orthopedically, hearing, and speech impaired children. The life of these children became unhappy, sad, depressed, dejected, gloomy, miserable, and dreadful.

Objectives:

1. To identify visually impaired and orthopedically impaired secondary school students of Kashmir Division.
2. To compare the visually impaired and orthopedically impaired secondary school students on anxiety disorder.

Hypothesis:

There is no significant difference between visually impaired and orthopedically impaired secondary school students on anxiety disorder.

Materials and Method:

The study was designed to compare visually impaired and orthopedically impaired secondary school students on anxiety disorder. As such, descriptive method of research was employed.

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Sample:

The sample of this study collected from 189 secondary schools of Kashmir division. The sample consists of 100 students of which 50 visually impaired and 50 orthopedically impaired secondary school students were selected from 10 district of Kashmir division. Both the categories viz. visually impaired and orthopedically impaired students were identified on the basis of information obtained from the offices of several secondary school institutions using purposive sampling technique.

Tools used:

The investigator adopted the anxiety disorder scale by R.N. Kundu).

Statistical treatment:

The data collected was subjected to the following statistical treatment: Mean, S.D and t-test.

Analysis and interpretation of data:

In order to achieve the objectives formulated for the study, the data was statistically analyzed by employing t-test.

Table 1.0: Showing the mean comparison of visually impaired and orthopedically impaired secondary school students on Anxiety Disorder Scale (N=50 in each group).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>Level of significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Visually impaired</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>106.42</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>5.26</td>
<td>Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Orthopedically impaired</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>98.99</td>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Table 1.0 shows the mean comparison of visually impaired and orthopedically impaired secondary school students on anxiety disorder scale. The calculated t-value (5.26) is more than the tabulated t-value (2.58) at 0.05 level of significance, which depicts that there is significant difference between visually impaired and orthopedically impaired secondary school students on anxiety disorder. A quick look at the means of the above table clearly shows that visually impaired secondary school students are more prone to psychological problems as compared to orthopedically impaired secondary school students. The visual sense is more valuable as compared to all other senses viz. hearing, motor and speech as approximately 85% knowledge is received through sense of sight. Thus sense of sight is most accountable for neurotic behavior such as anxiety, phobias, stress, anger and depression, etc. Thus from the confirmation of the results from the above table, the null hypothesis no. 1 which reads as, “There is no significant difference between visually impaired and orthopedically impaired secondary school students on anxiety disorder, stands rejected.
Conclusion:

The two groups' viz. visually impaired and orthopedically impaired secondary school students were compared with each other on anxiety disorder scale. It was found that visually impaired secondary school students are more prone to psychological problems as compared to orthopedically impaired secondary school students.
students. The sense of vision is more accountable for their stress, depression, inferiority complex, shyness and anger. The visual impairment becomes a challenging and demanding factor for them to lead a happy and prosperous life. They may perceive every day situation as threatening which leads to depression and hopelessness.

References:


PRE-SERVICE AND IN-SERVICE B.ED. TRAINED TEACHERS – THEIR ATTITUDE TOWARDS TEACHING

Ulfat Jan*  
Mahmood Ahmad Khan **

Abstract

Education is changing with the demand and expectations of Society. Teacher has to play an important role in the entire educational process. Teachers having favourable attitude towards Teaching Profession and students tend to play a more constructive role in the lives of students. In this respect we require teachers who are trained, aware of their duties having favourable attitude towards Teaching. Present study was conducted to study attitude towards teaching of Pre-service B.Ed. trained teachers and In-service B.Ed. trained teachers. 300 Pre-service and 300 In-service B.Ed. trained teachers were randomly selected for data collection. There is no significant difference between Pre-service and In-service B.Ed. trained teachers on composite scores. There is difference between Pre-service and In-service B.Ed. trained teachers on Factor wise.

Key words: Attitude towards Teaching, Pre-service, Trained teachers, In-service.

Introduction:

Education is the back bone of progress of a nation and the teachers are the vital factors to change the system of education. Teachers have to play a key role in the whole progress of education. It is said that teachers are nation builders. The education commission (1966) has very aptly observed that, the future of the nation is shaped in her class rooms. It is the teacher who moulds the most precious material of the land,
viz. the boys and the girls in their most crucial period of development in the required shapes. The destiny of a nation is shaped in the class rooms and the environment in the class room is shaped by the teacher. A teacher can be more effective and successful if he has favourable attitude towards profession. Teachers belief, views and their attitudes effect their teaching.

Attitudes can determine on the basis of how the teacher performs his role and fulfils his professional commitment. It has been seen that positive attitudes make the task of the teacher more satisfying and rewarding. The perusal of relevant literature reveals that a lot of work has been done at national level by eminent researchers NCERT (1971), Ahluwalia (1974), Goyal (1980), Budhisagar et al (1991), Ramachandran (1991), Gakhar (1992), Peterson (1993), Reddy (1994), Uma Devi (1996), Annamalai (2000), Kumar (2004) on impact of sex, age, professional training, academic qualification, teaching experience, marital status on the attitude of the teachers towards teaching as a profession and in its allied aspects.


A close look at the review of literature shows that a lot of work have been conducted to study the attitude of male and female teachers, teachers in relation to school subjects, effective and ineffective teachers, married and unmarried teachers,

Out of these studies Mama (1980) conducted study on impact of In-service education on teachers in the state of Maharashtra, Singh (1980), conducted a critical study of the programme of Pre-service and In-service education of teachers of higher education in India, Raina (1981) conducted a factorial study of the personalities, attitude of teaching and creativity of In-service and student teachers belonging to three subject areas. Bailkeri (1983) conducted a study on effect of self instrumental remedial micro teaching course on the instructional competence of In-service secondary school mathematics teachers. Syag (1984) conducted a study on teaching competence of Pre-service and In-service teachers trained through different treatment of micro teaching, Butala (1987) conducted a critical enquiry into In-service educational programmes conducted by secondary teachers training colleges of Gujarat state, Roe, (1989) conducted a study on scientific attitude of In-service and Pre-service science teachers; Rakesh & Kiran (2016) conducted a study on attitude towards teaching profession among Pre-service teachers in Shivamoga city. Sao & Behrara, (2016) revealed that Pre-Service and In-Service B.Ed students did not differ significantly on attitude towards teaching.

Studies conducted on Pre-service and In-service teachers have been conducted on national level and none of the studies have been yet conducted on attitude of Pre-service and In-service B.Ed. trained teachers in general, particularly in Kashmir none of the studies have been yet conducted on attitude of Pre-service and In-service B.Ed. trained teachers. With this back ground the present investigator decided to make a humble attempt in this direction to conduct study on attitude of Pre-service and In-service B.Ed. trained teachers. 

**Need and Importance:**

It is increasingly realized by all those concerned with Education that the standard of education in schools, colleges and universities can be improved by teachers who are competent, involved in their work and have favourable attitude towards teaching. Teaching is directly connected with the future of students who are the responsible citizens of tomorrow. Teachers should be role model of the students and should be a friend, philosopher and guide. Teachers belief, views and their attitudes affect their teaching and behaviour with students. Changing times have added new dimension to teaching profession, which requires specified competences
and right attitude, behaviour and interest of teacher helps in shaping the personality of the students. In these circumstances there is dire need to understand the attitude of teachers towards teaching profession as the abilities, attitudes, personality traits, educational background and trainings etc are related to the effectiveness of teaching profession. The investigator made an in-depth study of all the surveys of research in research till date and found that only few studies have been conducted on Pre-service and In-service B.Ed. trained teachers, None of the studies was found to be conducted on Pre-service and In-service B.Ed. trained teachers in India in general and particularly in Kashmir of this nature have been yet conducted. It is with this background that the investigators have conduct study on Pre-service B.Ed. trained teachers and In-service B.Ed. trained teachers to prove whether In-service and Pre-service trainings have any bearing with Attitude toward Teaching. The study will go long way to help the educators, administrators, planners to know whether training is more effective at Pre-service level or at In-service level so that effective majors can be taken accordingly at the time of recruitment. Therefore with this background the present investigator conducted the study as there is an opinion that teachers who join the teaching profession with Pre-service B.Ed. trainings have more favourable attitude towards teaching, classroom teaching, child centred practices, educational process etc. than In-service B.Ed. trained teachers. The present investigator explored whether the opinion is based on fact or not.

**Objectives:**

The study was conducted to achieve these objectives.

1. To compare Pre-service and In-service B.Ed. trained teachers on their attitude. (Composite scores)
2. To compare the attitude of Pre-service and In-service B.Ed. trained teachers on their Attitude (factor wise).

**Hypothesis**

1. There is no significant difference between Pre-service and In-service B.Ed. trained teachers on attitude. (Composite scores)
2. There is no significant difference between Pre-service and In-service B.Ed. trained teachers. (Factor wise).

**Methodology and Procedure**

**Sample:**

The sample of 600 teachers (300 In-service B.Ed. Trained Teachers and 300 Pre-service B.Ed. trained teachers were randomly selected from Government High School and Higher Secondary Schools of Kashmir. Only those teachers were selected who have pursued their B.Ed. from Government College of Education M. A. road Srinagar and those Pre-service B.Ed. Trained Teacher were contacted who were with minimum three year teaching experience as a government teacher.
Pre-Service & In-Service B.Ed. Training Teachers – Their Attitude towards Teaching

Tool:
The Investigator selected Ahluwalia’s Teacher Attitude Inventory (1974) as a tool for the measurement of Teacher Attitude.

Analysis and Interpretation:
Mean, S.D and ‘t’ test were considered to be feasible for the required analysis. In the present research the Investigators have tried to handle the statistical data carefully in order to draw out sound inferences and conclusions. Bar diagrams and line graphs were plotted in order to make the results transparent.

Table 01: Showing the Significance of Difference between the Mean Scores of Pre-service and In-service B.Ed. Trained Teachers on Attitude Towards Teaching (Composite Score).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D</th>
<th>‘t’- value</th>
<th>Result</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre-service B.Ed. Trained</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>199.60</td>
<td>19.10</td>
<td>0.24</td>
<td>Not Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers (PSBTT)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In-service B.Ed. Trained</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>20.88</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers (ISBTT)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The perusal of table 01 makes it obvious that the mean of Pre-service trained Teachers (M = 199.60) is less than the mean scores of In-service trained Teachers (M = 200) on attitude towards Teaching. The difference between their attitudes towards teaching is not statistically significant. This justifies that the Pre-service and In-service trained teachers are on the same platform so far as their attitude towards Teaching is concerned.

The results presented in table 01 on attitude towards teaching are further substantiated by figure 01 where figure shows no difference of attitude towards teaching between Pre-service and In-service trained teachers. Therefore no decisive decision can be taken about their attitude towards teaching.

Table 02: Showing the Significance of Difference between the Mean Scores of Pre-service and In-service B.Ed. Trained Teachers on Teaching Profession Dimension of Attitude towards Teaching.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D</th>
<th>‘t’- value</th>
<th>Result</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre-serviceB.Ed. Trained</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>31.05</td>
<td>17.99</td>
<td>0.53</td>
<td>Not Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers (PSBTT)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In-service B.Ed. Trained</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>30.27</td>
<td>18.24</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers (ISBTT)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The perusal of table 02 makes it clear that the mean scores of In-service trained Teachers (30.27) is less than the mean score of Pre-service Trained Teachers (31.05) on
Teaching Profession. The difference between their attitudes towards teaching profession is not statistically significant. This justifies that Pre-service trained teachers and In-service Trained Teachers are on the same Platform so far as their Attitude towards Teaching Profession is concerned.

The results as presented in the table 02 on Teaching Profession are further substantiated by figure 02 where figure shows no remarkable difference on Teaching Profession between Pre-service and In-service trained Teachers.

Therefore no decisive decision can be taken about their Attitude towards Teaching Profession.

**Table 03:** Showing the Significance of Difference between the Mean Scores of Pre-service and In-service B.Ed. Trained Teachers on Classroom Teaching Dimension of Attitude towards Teaching.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
<th>'t' value</th>
<th>Result</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre-service B.Ed. Trained Teachers (PSBTT)</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>32.94</td>
<td>4.28</td>
<td>0.60</td>
<td>Not Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In-service B.Ed. Trained Teachers (ISBTT)</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>33.14</td>
<td>4.12</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The perusal of table 03 reveals that both the groups Pre-service and In-service trained Teachers do not differ from each other. Although the mean score of In-service trained Teachers is higher (M = 33.14) as compared to Pre-service trained Teachers (M = 32.94). Yet the mean differences failed to arrive at any level of confidence ('t' = 0.60). The results reveal that both the In-service and Pre-service B.Ed. trained teachers are on the same platform. Therefore no decisive decision can be taken about their attitude towards classroom teaching.

The results as presented in the table 03 are further substantiated by figure 02 which depicts that no difference between Pre-service B.Ed. Trained Teachers and In-service Trained B.Ed. Teachers on Attitude towards Classroom Teaching. Therefore no decisive decision can be taken.

**Table 04:** Showing the Significance of Difference between the Mean Scores of Pre-service and In-service B.Ed. Trained Teachers on Child Centered Practices Dimension of Attitude towards Teaching.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
<th>‘t’ value</th>
<th>Result</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre-service B.Ed. Trained Teachers (PSBTT)</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>33.98</td>
<td>3.20</td>
<td>0.89</td>
<td>Not Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In-service B.Ed. Trained Teachers (ISBTT)</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>33.73</td>
<td>3.88</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The perusal of table 04 makes it clear that the mean scores of In-service B.Ed. trained Teachers (M = 33.73) is less than the mean scores of Pre-service B.Ed. trained
Pre-Service & In-Service B.Ed. Training Teachers – Their Attitude towards Teaching

Teachers (M = 33.98) on child centered practices, area of attitude towards teaching. The difference between attitude towards child centered practices is not statistically significant. This justifies that both Pre-service and In-service B.Ed. trained Teachers are on the same platform. Therefore no decisive decision can be taken about their attitude towards child centered practices.

The results as presented in the table 04 are further substantiated by figure 02 which depicts that no difference between Pre-service B.Ed. Trained Teachers and In-service B.Ed. Trained Teachers on Attitude towards Child Centered Practices. Therefore no decisive decision can be taken.

Table 05: Showing the Significance of Difference between the Mean Scores of Pre-service and In-service B.Ed. Trained Teachers on Educational Processes Dimension of Attitude towards Teaching.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
<th>'t'- value</th>
<th>Result</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre-service B.Ed. Trained Teachers (PSBTT)</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>35.01</td>
<td>4.58</td>
<td>2.72</td>
<td>Significant at 0.05 level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In-service B.Ed. Trained Teachers (ISBTT)</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>34.03</td>
<td>4.59</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The perusal of table 05 makes it clear that mean score of Pre-Service B.Ed. trained Teachers and In-service B. Ed trained Teachers is (M = 35.01) and (M = 34.03) respectively. The calculated ‘t’ – value was reported to be 2.72 which establish mean difference. The results reveal that Preservice B. Ed trained teachers have favorable Attitude towards Educational Process. They believe that Teachers are leaders of nation and teaching profession do not make people lazy. The results seem to be justified on the basis that Pre-service teachers have pursued B.Ed. course before joining the profession and have developed the favorable attitude towards educational process. It seems that B.Ed. training programme has changed their mindset and they have chosen the profession by choice not by chance.

The results presented in the table 05 are further substantiated by figure 02 which makes it clear that there is significant difference between Pre-service and In-service B.Ed. Trained Teachers on Attitude towards Educational Process.

Table 06: Showing the Significance of Difference between the Mean Scores of Pre-service and In-service B.Ed. Trained Teachers on Pupils Dimension of Attitude towards Teaching.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
<th>‘t’- value</th>
<th>Result</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre-service B.Ed. Trained Teachers (PSBTT)</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>32.54</td>
<td>4.61</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>Not Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In-service B.Ed. Trained Teachers (ISBTT)</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>32.50</td>
<td>3.67</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The perusal of table 06 makes it clear that the mean scores of In-service B.Ed. trained Teachers (M = 32.50) is less than the mean score of Pre-Service B.Ed. Trained Teachers (M = 32.54) on Pupils. The difference between their attitudes towards Pupils is not statistically significant. This justifies that preservice B.Ed. trained teachers and In-service B.Ed. Trained Teachers are on the same platform so far as their attitude towards Pupils is concerned.

The results as presented in the table 06 on Pupils are further substantiated by figure 02 where figure shows no remarkable difference on attitude toward Pupils between Pre-service and In-service B.Ed. trained Teachers. Therefore no decisive decision can be taken about their attitude towards Pupils.

Table 07: Showing the Significance of Difference between the Mean Scores of Pre-service and In-service B.Ed. Trained Teachers on Teachers Dimension of Attitude towards Teaching.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
<th>‘t’- value</th>
<th>Result</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre-service B.Ed. Trained Teachers (PSBTT)</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>34.89</td>
<td>4.97</td>
<td>2.55</td>
<td>Significant at 0.05 level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In-service B.Ed. Trained Teachers (ISBTT)</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>33.92</td>
<td>4.73</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The perusal of table 07 makes it clear that there is significant difference between Pre-Service B.Ed. trained Teachers and In-service B.Ed. trained Teachers on Factor 6 (Teachers) of Attitude towards teaching Scale. The obtained ‘t’ – value is 2.55 which is greater than the table ‘t’ – value at 0.05 level. This means that preservice B.Ed. trained teachers have better attitude towards Teachers than the In-service B.Ed. trained Teachers. Pre-Service B.Ed. trained Teachers have reported that everybody pays attention to what Teacher say. They said people do not look down upon teachers. They are of the opinion that teachers are the builders of nation. They have reported that teachers are free to express their views. The results seem to be justified on the basis that Pre-Service teachers have pursued their B.Ed. programme before entering in the profession. It makes clear that Pre-service teachers have joined the profession by choice. Their dream was to become a teacher that is why they have pursued their B.Ed. to opt teaching as a profession. That is why they have cordial relations and favourable attitude towards teachers.

The results presented in the table 07 are further substantiated by figure 02 which makes it clear that there is significant difference between Pre-service and In-service B.Ed. Trained Teachers on Attitude towards Teachers.
Pre-Service & In-Service B.Ed. Training Teachers – Their Attitude towards Teaching

Fig. 01: Comparison between Pre-service B.Ed. Trained Teachers (PSBTT) N = 300 with In-service B.Ed. Trained Teachers (ISBTT) N = 300 on Attitude towards Teaching (Composite Score).

Fig. 02: Comparison between Pre-service B.Ed. Trained Teachers (PSBTT) N = 300 with In-service B.Ed. Trained Teachers (ISBTT) N = 300 on various Dimensions of Attitude towards Teaching.
Conclusion

While analyzing the research done on attitude towards teaching profession it was found that Sao & Behrara, (2016) revealed that Pre-Service and In-Service B.Ed students did not differ significantly on attitude towards teaching are in line with the results of the study. Yadav, (1992) revealed that training had a significant influence on attitude towards teaching profession. Srivastava, (1989) opined that favourable attitude of student teachers are formed at the end of the teacher training programme. The results of the present study on factor-wise is in line with these studies i.e., Pre-Service B.Ed trained teachers and In-Service B.Ed trained teachers differ on attitude towards teaching (Factor teaching profession and Factor Teachers).

The present study through the different stages of investigation reached to the following conclusions which were the result of systematic statistical method as well as qualitative analysis of data.

1. Pre-service B.Ed. trained Teachers (PSBTT) and In-service B.Ed. trained teachers (ISBTT) do not differ in the level of their Attitude towards Teaching Profession.
2. Pre-service B.Ed. Trained Teachers and In-service B.Ed. Trained Teachers have favorable attitude towards Teaching Profession.
3. Pre-service B.Ed. Trained Teachers and In-service B.Ed. Trained Teachers have same level of attitude towards Classroom Teaching.
4. Pre-service B.Ed. Trained Teachers and In-service B.Ed. Trained Teachers have favorable attitude towards Child Centered Practices.
5. Pre-service and In-service B.Ed. Trained Teachers differ from each other so far as their attitude towards Educational Process is concerned.
6. Pre-service B.Ed. Trained Teachers and In-service B.Ed. Trained Teachers have same level of attitude towards Pupils.
7. Pre-service B.Ed. and In-service B.Ed. Trained Teachers differ from each other so far as their attitude towards Teachers is concerned.

References:
Pre-Service & In-Service B.Ed. Training Teachers – Their Attitude towards Teaching


Pre-Service & In-Service B.Ed. Training Teachers – Their Attitude towards Teaching


RELATIONSHIP OF SOCIAL SUPPORT WITH EMOTIONAL AND BEHAVIOURAL PROBLEMS AMONG ORPHANS

Syed Najmah Jameel*
Shawkat Ahmad Shah**

Abstract
Orphans have been part of the human civilization since time immemorial. The outline of their fortification has always differed from time to time and depends on the present-day social attitude towards them. The present study entitled “perceived social support as correlate of emotional and behavioral problems among orphans” was aimed to understand the relation of perceived social support with emotional and behavioral problems among orphans. The objectives of the study were to assess perceived social support and emotional and behavioral problems among orphans and to examine the relationship pattern of perceived social support with emotional and behavioral problems among orphans. Besides the study was aimed to explore the understudy constructs with respect to demographic variables (age and domicile). The sample of the present study composed of 336 orphans selected from 8 orphanages of different areas of Srinagar district. The tools used were behavioral problems scale by Eshrat Ara (2015) and for assessing perceived social support 18 item scale was developed and standardized by authors. Apart from these tools personal data sheet was used to collect certain personal information from the respondents. The results of correlational analysis revealed that two dimensions of perceived social support (peer support and school environment) had insignificant positive correlation with emotional and behavioral problems, however institutional environment and overall perceived social support had insignificant negative correlation with emotional and behavioral problems among orphans.

* Research Scholar, Department of Psychology, University of Kashmir
** Head, Department of Psychology, University of Kashmir
problems. The comparative analysis revealed that orphans in the age range of 11-14 years perceived better social support than orphan groups in the age range of 15-18 years, however these two groups don’t differ significantly in emotional and behavioral problems. The comparative analysis further revealed that rural orphans have lower emotional and behavioral problems as compared to urban orphans, however these two groups don’t differ significantly as far as perceived social support is concerned.

Keywords: Orphans, Perceived social support, emotional and behavioral problems, age, domicile.

Introduction:
Perceived social support refers to an individual’s belief that social support is available; is generally considered positive or negative and provides what is considered needed by an individual. Makane, Ani and Granthan-Mcgregor (2002) revealed that experience of loss of family and lack of social support available for orphans could lead to internalized emotional problems (depression, anxiety, and poor self-esteem) and externalized problems such as dysfunctional behavior. Allgower, Wardle and Steptoe (2001) and Decker (2007) concluded that lack of social support and lower perceived adequacy of social support have been linked to poorer mental and physical health. Irudayasamy (2006) showed that orphans are more prone to psychological disorders because they lose their parents at the age when they need much support from their parents and siblings to cope with physical and emotional development. Cluver, Fincham and Seedat (2009) found that orphans with high perceived social support demonstrated significant lower levels of posttraumatic stress disorder (PTSD) symptoms after both low and high levels of trauma exposure. Moak and Agrawal (2009) highlighted that low perceived interpersonal social support correlated with increased prevalence of several physical health problems, major depressive disorder, generalized anxiety, and social phobia. White (2009) indicated that social support from all sources (parents, classmates & teacher) was inversely associated with both internalizing and externalizing problems, and associated in a positive manner with life satisfaction and achievement. Yasin and Dzulkifli (2010) after examining the relationship between social supports and psychological problems found that there is a significant negative relationship between social support and psychological problems suggesting that higher the social support lower the psychological problems. Getachew, Ambew, Abebe and Kasahun (2011) conducted a study to explore psychological distress and its predictors in AIDS orphans and reflected that the higher the self-esteem and perceived social support the lower was the probability of being anxious and depressed in orphans, therefore, these findings suggest that higher self-esteem and strong perception of social support may lessen the deleterious effect of exposure to psychological problems. Vaananen, Marttunen, Helminen and Kaltiala-Heino (2014) explored how low perceived social support predicts later depression but not social phobia in middle adolescence and found that low perceived social support was a risk factor for depression however, low perceived
social support from any source was not a risk factor for social phobia. Doku, Dotse and Mensah (2015) revealed that children who have lost their parents due to AIDS (acquired immune deficiency syndrome) and other-orphaned children reported similar levels of social support. Abenezer (2015) while assessing the prevalence and factors of behavioral problems among orphans found that only gender significantly predicts behavioral problems. The study further revealed that perceived social support, education and age are not significant predictor of behavioral problems. Sharer, Cluver, Shields and Ahearn (2016) while exploring how family social support is related to depression, anxiety, and post-traumatic stress [PTS] found that individuals who receive social support had lower number of depression, anxiety and PTS symptoms. The study further revealed that emotional support was the most frequent type of social support associated with mental health.

**Objectives of the study**

The objectives of the present study are:

1) To assess perceived social support and emotional and behavioral problem among orphans.

2) To study the nature of relationship of perceived social support with emotional and behavioral problems among orphans.

3) To study perceived social support and emotional and behavioral problems with respect to age.

4) To study perceived social support and emotional and behavioral problems with respect to domicile.

**Methodology**

**Sample:** For the present study Srinagar district of Kashmir was taken as locale for the sample. District Srinagar has the highest number of registered orphanages catering about 2650 orphans in these orphanages (Dabla, 2010). Eight registered orphanages from the district were selected for selection of sample group.

**Sample Size:** For calculation of sufficient sample size Macorr Research Solution computer programme was used with the margin of error 5% and confidence level 95%. Thus, the sample size of above 320 was found sufficient for the current study. About 360 orphans were approached for collecting information. After screening the collected information only responses of 336 orphans were found complete/correct for further analysis.

**Research Instruments:**

Following research instruments were used for the data collection.

- For the assessment of perceived social support a tool was developed by the authors (2016) keeping in view the social circumstances available to the institutionalized orphans. It has three dimensions i.e, peer support, school
environment and institutional environment, with 6 items in each dimension comprising of total eighteen items. Its items are rated on a seven-point scale which ranges from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (7). The alpha coefficients, for the dimensions of perceived social support scale were as follows: peer support, .78; school environment .76 and institutional environment (orphanage) .69 and for overall perceived social support the alpha coefficients was .84.

- **Behavioral Problems scale** by Eshrat Ara (2015) which include two subscales viz. externalizing (behavioral problems scale) and internalizing (emotional problems scale) was used to assess emotional and behavioral problems of sample group. Each sub-scale included five items with response choices ranging from never (1) to most often (5). Higher score reflects higher levels of externalizing and internalizing behavioral problems. The Cronbach’s alpha for internalizing (emotional problems) was .77 and for externalizing (behavioral problems) was .73 and for overall behavioral problems scale was .79 as reported by the author.

- **Baseline characteristic Questionnaire** was constructed to obtain information regarding age, domicile.

### Result and interpretation

#### Table 2.1: Descriptive Statistics of perceived social support and its dimensions (N=336).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimensions</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>%5 TM</th>
<th>∆ Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>SE</th>
<th>Skewness</th>
<th>Kurtosis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Perceived Social Support</td>
<td>5.37</td>
<td>5.41</td>
<td>-0.03</td>
<td>.82</td>
<td>.044</td>
<td>-.776</td>
<td>-.007</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peer support</td>
<td>5.47</td>
<td>5.55</td>
<td>-0.08</td>
<td>1.08</td>
<td>.059</td>
<td>-1.102</td>
<td>1.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School environment</td>
<td>5.25</td>
<td>5.33</td>
<td>-0.07</td>
<td>1.12</td>
<td>.061</td>
<td>-.978</td>
<td>.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Institutional environment</td>
<td>5.38</td>
<td>5.42</td>
<td>-0.04</td>
<td>.956</td>
<td>.052</td>
<td>-.660</td>
<td>.30</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

SD (Standard deviation); SE (Standard error); TM (Trimmed Mean)

As per above table, the sample distribution is normal as all the skewness and kurtosis values fall within the Garson’s range (-2.00 to +2.00). Besides, the ∆Mean (difference between mean and 5% trimmed mean) is within the criteria of >0.20 suggested by Pallant (2007). The values of standard deviation and standard error are also very small as compared to mean, thereby further improving the scope of data for subsequent analysis.
Relationship of Social Support with Emotional and Behavioural Problems among Orphans

Table 2.2: Descriptive Statistics of emotional and behavioral problems and its dimensions (N=336).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Constructs</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>5% TM</th>
<th>ΔMean</th>
<th>SDSE</th>
<th>Skewness</th>
<th>Kurtosis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Emotional &amp; behavioral problems</td>
<td>2.65</td>
<td>2.63</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>.487</td>
<td>.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotional problems</td>
<td>2.82</td>
<td>2.80</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>.043</td>
<td>.345</td>
<td>-.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Behavioral problems</td>
<td>2.49</td>
<td>2.46</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>.044</td>
<td>.432</td>
<td>-.12</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

SD (Standard deviation); SE (Standard error); TM (Trimmed Mean)

Based on the criteria of Garson (2009) the sample distribution of the present study is normal as no skewness and kurtosis value falls beyond the Garson’s range of -2.00 to +2.00. Besides, the ΔMean (difference between mean and 5% trimmed mean) is not beyond the criteria of >0.20 suggested by Pallant (2007). The values of standard deviation and standard error are also very small as compared to mean, thereby further improving the scope of data for subsequent analysis.

Table 2.3: Range of scores within different levels of perceived social support and its dimensions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Constructs</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>LL-UL</th>
<th>Low</th>
<th>Average</th>
<th>High</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PS</td>
<td>5.47</td>
<td>1.08</td>
<td>4.39-6.55</td>
<td>≤4.39</td>
<td>4.40-6.55</td>
<td>&gt;6.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SE</td>
<td>5.29</td>
<td>1.12</td>
<td>4.17-6.41</td>
<td>≤4.17</td>
<td>4.18-6.41</td>
<td>&gt;6.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IE</td>
<td>5.38</td>
<td>.95</td>
<td>4.43-6.33</td>
<td>≤4.43</td>
<td>4.44-6.33</td>
<td>&gt;6.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PSS</td>
<td>5.37</td>
<td>.82</td>
<td>4.55-6.19</td>
<td>≤4.55</td>
<td>4.56-6.19</td>
<td>&gt;6.19</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

PS= Peer support; SE= School environment; IE= institutional environment; PSS=perceived social support; LL= lower limit; UL= upper limit; SD= standard deviation.

Table 2.4: Range of scores within different levels of emotional and behavioral problems and its dimensions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Constructs</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>LL-UL</th>
<th>Low</th>
<th>Average</th>
<th>High</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>EP</td>
<td>2.82</td>
<td>.80</td>
<td>2.02-3.62</td>
<td>≤2.02</td>
<td>2.03-3.62</td>
<td>&gt;3.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BP</td>
<td>2.49</td>
<td>.81</td>
<td>1.68-3.30</td>
<td>≤1.68</td>
<td>1.69-3.30</td>
<td>&gt;3.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E &amp; B</td>
<td>2.65</td>
<td>.68</td>
<td>1.97-3.33</td>
<td>≤1.97</td>
<td>1.98-3.33</td>
<td>&gt;3.33</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

EP= emotional problems; BP= behavioral problems; E &B = emotional and behavioral problems LL= lower limit; UL= upper limit; SD= standard deviation.
Table 2.5: Frequency distribution of perceived social support and its dimensions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Levels</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Poor</td>
<td>f</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Average</td>
<td>f</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peer support</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School environment</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Institutional environment</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall perceived social support</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The table indicates that 17.26% of orphans show poor level of peer support, 73.21% show average level and 9.53% orphans show good level of peer support.

15.78% orphans show poor level of perceived social support from school environment, 73.32% show average level and 11.90% orphans show good level of perceived social support from school environment.

15.78% orphans show poor level of perceived social support from institutional environment, 71.42% show average level and 12.80% of orphans show good level of perceived social support institutional environment.

16.67% orphans show poor level of perceived social support, 70.83% show average level and 12.50% orphans show good level of perceived social support.

Table 2.6: Frequency distribution of emotional and behavioral problems and its dimensions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Levels</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>f</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Average</td>
<td>f</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotional problems</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Behavioral problems</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotional and behavioral problems</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The table indicates that 18.45% orphans were found to have low level of emotional problems, 67.57% to have average level and 13.98% orphans to have high level of emotional problems.
Relationship of Social Support with Emotional and Behavioural Problems among Orphans

18.76% of orphans were found to have low level of behavioral problems, 64.59% to have average level and 16.67% orphans to have high level of behavioral problems.

16.67% of orphans were found to have low level of emotional and behavioral problems, 70.53% to have average level and 12.80% of orphans have high level of emotional and behavioral problems.

Table 2.7: Correlations Summary of perceived social support and its dimensions with emotional and behavioral problems.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Emotional and Behavioral Problems</th>
<th>Overall</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Emotional</td>
<td>Behavioral</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peer support</td>
<td>-.002</td>
<td>.007</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School environment</td>
<td>-.082</td>
<td>.060</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall perceived social support</td>
<td>.028</td>
<td>.031</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**p≤ 0.01 level.

The above table reflects that, perceived social support and its dimensions have no significant correlation with emotional and behavioral problems. However, only institutional environment dimension of perceived social support was found significantly and negatively correlated with behavioural problems. All other correlation coefficients were insignificant.

Table 2.8: Mean difference in dimensions of perceived social support and its dimensions in orphans with respect to their age.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Constructs</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>t-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Peer support</td>
<td>11-14</td>
<td>229</td>
<td>5.65</td>
<td>.98</td>
<td>334</td>
<td>4.45**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>15-18</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>5.10</td>
<td>1.18</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School environment</td>
<td>11-14</td>
<td>229</td>
<td>5.36</td>
<td>1.07</td>
<td>334</td>
<td>2.63**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>15-18</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>5.02</td>
<td>1.18</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Institutional environment</td>
<td>11-14</td>
<td>229</td>
<td>5.46</td>
<td>.92</td>
<td>334</td>
<td>2.41*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>15-18</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>5.19</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall perceived social support</td>
<td>11-14</td>
<td>229</td>
<td>5.49</td>
<td>.75</td>
<td>334</td>
<td>4.12**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>15-18</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>5.10</td>
<td>.89</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**p≤ 0.01 level, *p≤ 0.05 level

The results of the analyses as presented in Table 2.8 indicate that there is significant mean difference in perceived social support and it’s all three dimensions: perceived social support (t = 4.12, p = .001), peer support (t = 4.45, p = .001), school
environment \( (t = 2.63, p = .001) \) and institutional environment \( (t = 2.41, p = .01) \) with respect to age. Peer support, school environment and institutional environment was found significantly higher in orphans in age range of 11-14 \( (M=5.65, SD = .98; M= 5.36, SD =1.07; M= 5.46, SD = .92; M=5.46, SD = .75 \) respectively) than orphans in age range of 15-18 \( (M = 5.10, SD = 1.18; M=5.02, SD = 1.18; M=5.19, SD = 1.00; M= 5.10, SD = .89 \) respectively).

Table 2.9: Mean difference in emotional and behavioral problems and its dimensions in orphans with respect to their age.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>t-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Emotional problems</td>
<td>11-14</td>
<td>229</td>
<td>2.90</td>
<td>.84</td>
<td>334</td>
<td>2.57*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>15-18</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>2.65</td>
<td>.68</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Behavioral problems</td>
<td>11-14</td>
<td>229</td>
<td>2.48</td>
<td>.82</td>
<td>334</td>
<td>.305NS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>15-18</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>2.51</td>
<td>.80</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotional and behavioral problems</td>
<td>11-14</td>
<td>229</td>
<td>2.69</td>
<td>.73</td>
<td>334</td>
<td>1.31NS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>15-18</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>2.58</td>
<td>.58</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* p≤ .05 level, NS= Not Significant

The results of the analyses as presented in Table 2.9 indicate that there is significant mean difference in emotional problems \( (t =2.57, p = .01) \), however no significant difference was found in behavioral problems and overall emotional and behavioral problems with respect to age. Emotional problems were found significantly higher in orphans in age range of 11-14 \( (M=2.90, SD = .84) \) than orphans in age range of 15-18 \( (M = 2.65, SD = .68) \).

Table 2.10: Mean difference in perceived social support and its dimensions in orphans with respect to their domicile.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Domicile</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>t-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Peer support</td>
<td>Rural</td>
<td>279</td>
<td>5.47</td>
<td>1.08</td>
<td>334</td>
<td>.029NS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Urban</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>5.48</td>
<td>1.05</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School environment</td>
<td>Rural</td>
<td>279</td>
<td>5.25</td>
<td>1.15</td>
<td>334</td>
<td>.243NS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Urban</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>5.29</td>
<td>.99</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Institutional environment</td>
<td>Rural</td>
<td>279</td>
<td>5.41</td>
<td>.92</td>
<td>334</td>
<td>1.40NS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Urban</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>5.21</td>
<td>1.07</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceived social support</td>
<td>Rural</td>
<td>279</td>
<td>5.38</td>
<td>.80</td>
<td>334</td>
<td>.420NS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Urban</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>5.33</td>
<td>.88</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

NS= Not Significant
The results of the analyses as presented in Table 2.10 indicate that there is no significant mean difference in peer support, school environment, institutional environment and overall perceived social support with respect to domicile.

Table 2.11: Mean difference in dimensions of emotional and behavioral problems in orphans with respect to their domicile

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Domicile</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>t-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Emotional problems</td>
<td>Rural</td>
<td>279</td>
<td>2.80</td>
<td>.80</td>
<td>334</td>
<td>.98&lt;sub&gt;NS&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Urban</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>2.91</td>
<td>.79</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Behavioral problems</td>
<td>Rural</td>
<td>279</td>
<td>2.44</td>
<td>.80</td>
<td>334</td>
<td>2.43*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Urban</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>2.73</td>
<td>.86</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotional and behavioral</td>
<td>Rural</td>
<td>279</td>
<td>2.62</td>
<td>.68</td>
<td>334</td>
<td>2.02*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>problems</td>
<td>Urban</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>2.82</td>
<td>.68</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* p ≤ 0.05 level, NS= Not Significant

The results of the analyses as presented in Table 2.11 indicate that there is no significant mean difference in emotional problems, however there is significant mean difference in behavioral problems (t = 2.43, p = .01) and overall emotional and behavioral problems (t = 2.02, p = .04), with respect to domicile. Behavioral problems and overall emotional and behavioral problems were found significantly higher in orphans of urban areas (M = 2.73, SD = .86; M = 2.82, SD = .68) than orphans of rural areas (M = 2.44, SD = .88; M = 2.62, SD = .68).

Conclusion:

The result revealed that two dimensions of perceived social support i.e. peer support and school environment were found to be insignificantly and positively correlated with emotional and behavioral problems. However institutional environment and overall perceived social support were found to be insignificantly and negatively correlated with emotional and behavioral problems. The results are in line with Acharya & Joshi 2011; Bean, Bush, McKenry & Wilson, 2003; Liebkind, Jasinskaja-Lahti & Solheim, 2004; Needham, 2008; Rueger, Malecki, & Demaray, 2010; Kerr, Preuss, & King, 2006; Shek, 2002; Stadler, Rohramann, Vermeiran & Poustka, 2010.

The study found that there is significant difference with respect to age in perceived social support and its dimensions; peer support, school environment and institutional environment. Peer support, school environment and institutional environment were found significantly higher in orphans in age range of 11-14 than orphans in age range of 15-18. The results are in line with Doku, Dotse and Mensah
The study further found that there is significant difference with respect to age in emotional problems, however no significant difference was found with respect to age in behavioral problems and emotional and behavioral problems. The results are in line with Naik and Jogdand, (2013); Kumar, Dandona, Ramgopal and Dandona (2014); Ajage (2008); Segendo and Nambi (1997).

The study found that there is no significant mean difference between rural and urban orphans in perceived social support and its dimensions (peer support, school environment and institutional environment) with respect to domicile. The results are in line with Suhadev, Mahadevan, Thomas and Swaminathan (2013). The study further found that there is no significant difference with respect to domicile in emotional problems; the results are in line with Bhat (2014). The results of the study further revealed that there is significant mean difference between rural and urban orphans in behavioral problem and overall emotional and behavioral problems. The results are in line with Casale (2015); Prabu (2015); Sharer, Cluver, Shields and Ahearn (2016).

References:


Relationship of Social Support with Emotional and Behavioural Problems among Orphans


Needham, B. L. (2008). Reciprocal relationships between symptoms of depression and parental support during the transition from adolescence to young adulthood. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence, 37*(8), 893-905.


EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE OF ACHIEVERS AND UNDERACHIEVERS – A COMPARATIVE STUDY

Dilruba*  
Mahmood Ahmed Khan**

Abstract
The present study aimed to compare emotional intelligence of achiever and underachiever students. The initial sample of the present study comprised of 869 8th class students of (age range: 13-14 years). Mental measurement test-Raven’s Advanced Progressive Matrices (Non-Verbal) was administered. Mean of the two annual examination results 6th and 7th was considered as a criterion for academic achievement. The final sample comprised of the 556 Achievers and 313 underachievers. The data was collected by using Hyde et al. (2001) Emotional Intelligence Scale. The data collected was subjected to t-test statistical technique. The overall results revealed that achievers possess high emotional intelligence than underachievers.

Key Words: Emotional Intelligence, Achievement, Underachievement.

Introduction
In this competitive world academic performance plays an important role in the personal progress of the student. Even parents desire that their children attain a higher level of performance and put a lot of pressure on students, teachers, schools and the educational system itself. However, though the whole system of education revolves round the academic achievement of a student even then different results are achieved from the system. Great emphasis is being laid by the schools on achievement

* Assistant Professor (Contractual), Department of Education, University of Kashmir  
** Professor, Department of Education, University of Kashmir
or assisting students to achieve better in their scholastic endeavours. In fact, parents also play a vital role in developing the academic achievement of their children. Thus, primary function of the schools is to select and differentiate the students and open avenues for advancement especially in terms of their academic achievement. The effectiveness of any educational system is determined by the academic achievement of the pupils involved in the system. Therefore, the goal of every educationist, researcher, teacher or an educational administrator is to enhance the academic achievement of the students within a given setup.

Academic achievement is of vital importance particularly in the present socio-economic and cultural scenario. It has a great impact on students academic progress. In a group of students, it is usually found that some are achievers and some are underachievers.

The question arises why such a difference in achievement appears when the schools provide more or less uniform instructional and environmental facilities. Various investigations have explored numerous factors which are found responsible for academic success and failure. Research studies (Dowdall and Colangelo 1982; Reis and Mc Coach, 2000; Whitmore, 1980) have examined various factors like academic self perception, attitude towards school, teachers and classes, motivation and goal valuation which actually distinguish achievers from underachievers.

Therefore, the resource, such as, administrators, teachers, parents, counsellors can be very effective in helping underachieving children, given the fact, they are aware about the characteristic features that emerge in underachievement. It is with this background that the present investigators have made attempt to find out the emotional intelligence of achievers and underachievers of the rural District Ganderbal of Kashmir.

Objectives

1. To identify the achievers and underachievers.
2. To study the emotional intelligence of achievers and underachievers.

Hypotheses

1. In comparison to achievers, underachievers possess low Emotional Intelligence. (Composite score).
2. In comparison to achievers, underachievers possess low Emotional Intelligence. (Factor wise).

Operational Definition of Variables

1. Achievers: Subjects whose mean achievement scores, of the previous two examinations (6th and 7th) lie minus 10 percentiles and above of their intelligence percentile scores will be considered achievers.
Emotional Intelligence of Achievers and Underachievers – A Comparative Study

2. **Underachievers**: Subjects whose mean achievement scores, of the previous two examinations (6th and 7th) lie 10 percentiles or more below their intelligence percentile scores will be considered underachievers.

3. **Emotional Intelligence**: Emotional intelligence in the present study would mean the Scores obtained by sample subjects on Hyde et al. (2001) Emotional Intelligence Scale. The scale comprises of ten factors- Self-awareness, Empathy, Self-Motivation, Emotional stability, Managing relations, Integrity, Self-development, value orientation, Commitment and Altruistic behaviour

**Plan and Procedure**

**Initial sample**

There are ten districts in Kashmir Division. Out of these districts one district namely Ganderbal was randomly selected for selection of initial sample. There are four educational zones in district Ganderbal. Out of these educational zones two educational zones were selected randomly for collection of data. The initial sample of the present study comprised of 869, 8th class students of (age range: 13-14 years).

**Final Sample**

Mental measurement test-Raven’s Advanced Progressive Matrices (Non-Verbal) was administered to all the 869 sample subjects in different sittings after building a rapport with the subjects and the concerned teachers and headmasters of respective schools. Mean of the two annual examination results 6th and 7th was considered as a criterion for academic achievement. The subjects whose academic achievement scores lie minus 10 percentile and above of their intelligence percentile scores were considered as Achievers and the subjects whose academic achievement scores lie 10 percentile and below their intelligence percentile scores were considered as underachievers. The same technique of extreme scores has been adopted by (Gowan, 1960; Mohan and Nehru, 1972; Mohan and Khera, 1978; Khan, 2001; Samia and Khan, 2012). The final sample comprised of the 556 Achievers and 313 underachievers.

**Tool Used**

1. For the measurement of emotional intelligence of the sample subjects Hyde et al. (2001) Emotional Intelligence Scale has been administered.

**Analysis of data**

Tests were administered as per the instructions provided in the test manuals. The collected data were analyzed through statistical techniques viz: Mean, S.D and t-test. The analysis is given in table 01 and 02.
Table 01: Significance of mean difference between achievers (N=556) and underachievers (N=313) on Emotional Intelligence (Composite-scores).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>t-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Achievers</td>
<td>556</td>
<td>131.85</td>
<td>14.82</td>
<td>3.148**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Underachievers</td>
<td>313</td>
<td>127.99</td>
<td>13.78</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: **Significant at 0.01 level

Table 02: Significance of mean difference between achievers (N=556) and underachievers (N=313) on Emotional Intelligence. (Factor wise).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors</th>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>level of significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Self-awareness</td>
<td>Achievers</td>
<td>556</td>
<td>16.27</td>
<td>2.79</td>
<td>4.08**</td>
<td>0.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Underachievers</td>
<td>313</td>
<td>15.47</td>
<td>2.77</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Empathy</td>
<td>Achievers</td>
<td>556</td>
<td>17.98</td>
<td>3.46</td>
<td>3**</td>
<td>0.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Underachievers</td>
<td>313</td>
<td>17.32</td>
<td>3.12</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-motivation</td>
<td>Achievers</td>
<td>556</td>
<td>21.84</td>
<td>4.14</td>
<td>4.03**</td>
<td>0.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Underachievers</td>
<td>313</td>
<td>20.79</td>
<td>3.44</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotional Stability</td>
<td>Achievers</td>
<td>556</td>
<td>15.02</td>
<td>2.95</td>
<td>2.17*</td>
<td>0.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Underachievers</td>
<td>313</td>
<td>14.05</td>
<td>2.09</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Managing relations</td>
<td>Achievers</td>
<td>556</td>
<td>15.3</td>
<td>2.59</td>
<td>5.61**</td>
<td>0.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Underachievers</td>
<td>313</td>
<td>14.2</td>
<td>2.88</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Integrity</td>
<td>Achievers</td>
<td>556</td>
<td>11.22</td>
<td>2.40</td>
<td>0.060</td>
<td>N.S</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Underachievers</td>
<td>313</td>
<td>11.21</td>
<td>2.31</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-Development</td>
<td>Achievers</td>
<td>556</td>
<td>8.65</td>
<td>1.30</td>
<td>2.5*</td>
<td>0.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Underachievers</td>
<td>313</td>
<td>8.38</td>
<td>1.66</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Value orientation</td>
<td>Achievers</td>
<td>556</td>
<td>8.55</td>
<td>1.44</td>
<td>3.5**</td>
<td>0.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Underachievers</td>
<td>313</td>
<td>8.18</td>
<td>1.51</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commitment</td>
<td>Achievers</td>
<td>556</td>
<td>8.69</td>
<td>1.28</td>
<td>3.33**</td>
<td>0.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Underachievers</td>
<td>313</td>
<td>8.33</td>
<td>1.66</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Altruistic behaviour</td>
<td>Achievers</td>
<td>556</td>
<td>8.44</td>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>2.7*</td>
<td>0.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Underachievers</td>
<td>313</td>
<td>7.90</td>
<td>1.47</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*N.S* --- Not-Significant
Interpretation and Discussion

The perusal of table 01 makes it evident that achievers and underachievers differ significantly on composite score of emotional intelligence. The mean score of achievers is 131.85 while as the mean score of underachievers is 127.99 which implies that mean score favours achievers group. The obtained “t”-value computed is 3.148 which is significant at 0.01 level. These results reveal that achievement of achievers is high because they are higher on self awareness, self motivation, emotional stability, value oriented and self development factors of emotional intelligence. While, reverse is true with that of underachievers. These results imply that achievers are high on composite score of emotional intelligence than underachievers.

The perusal of table 2 makes it obvious that achievers and underachievers differ significantly on factor-A (Self Awareness) of emotional intelligence. The mean score of achievers is 16.27 and of underachievers is 15.47. The obtained t-value is 4.08 which is significant at 0.01 level. Achievers possess high achievement as they are higher on self-awareness factor of emotional intelligence. They are able to manage, identify and label emotions in themselves as well as in others. They are able to communicate clearly and directly with others. They are able to recognize the difference between feelings and actions. They are clear with their priorities. On the other hand underachievers have low achievement as they are not able to manage their emotions, feelings and actions. They are not able to empathize, motivate, feel or inspire themselves and others abilities. Achievers are characterized by high level of self-awareness while as underachievers possess low level of self-awareness. The mean score of achievers on factor-B (Empathy) of emotional intelligence is 17.98 and that of underachievers is 17.32 and the obtained t-value computed is 3 which is significant at 0.01 level. The result confirms that achievers and underachievers differ significantly on the empathy (factor-B) of emotional intelligence. Achievers are highly empathetic as compared to underachievers. They are pleasant and agreeable, hence make good companions. They try to see others point of view and are able to listen keenly to others, which results in their high achievement. While as underachievers possess low achievement as they do not show any concern to others. They like loneliness and do not show empathetic attitude towards others.

It is evident from the table 2 that the mean score of achievers is 21.84 which is higher than the mean score of underachievers that is 20.79 on factor-C (Self-Motivation) of emotional intelligence. The calculated t-value that is 4.03 is significant at 0.01 level, which implies that achievers and underachievers differ significantly and achievers are high on this dimension. The result reveals that achievement of achievers is high as they have high feelings and are highly motivated to take decisions and achieve the goal. Achievers are less impulsive and more self-controlled. While as underachievers are not able to take healthy decisions and are less motivated to work for achieving the goal which in turn results in their low achievement. On factor-D
(Emotional Stability) of emotional intelligence, the table 2 depicts that achievers and underachievers differ significantly. The mean score of achievers that is 15.02 is higher than the mean score of underachievers which is 14.65. The obtained t-value is 2.17 which is significant at 0.05 level. The results envisage that achievers possess high achievement as they are able to stay composed in both good and bad situations and are emotionally stable. They are comfortable to new ideas and problems. They remain persistent to pursuing goals. They do not mix unnecessary emotions with issues at hand. While as underachievers get confused in different situations. They are uncomfortable to new problems and ideas. They are emotionally unstable and they achieve less academically.

The perusal of table 2 makes it obvious that achievers and underachievers differ significantly on factor-E (Managing Relations) of emotional intelligence. The mean score of achievers is 15.3 while that of underachievers is 14.2 and obtained t-value is 5.61 which is significant at 0.01 level. The result depicts that achievers are high on mean score on factor-E (Managing Relations) of emotional intelligence than underachievers. The results envisage that achievers do not wait for others encouragement for doing their work. They are better at solving problems as they are more assertive and skilled at communication. They are being perceived as friendly and outgoing by their companions. They hold optimistic view about the situation with which they get confronted. They always see bright side of any situation and that is why they achieve high academically. On the other hand underachievers have low achievement as they hold pessimistic view about the new situation. They are being perceived as reserved, less sociable by their companions, not good at managing relations, rely mostly on others encouragement and support to get their work done.

On factor-F (Integrity) of Emotional Intelligence the table 2 depicts that the mean of achievers 11.22 is almost similar to the mean of underachievers which is 11.21. The t-value is 0.060 which depicts that the difference is not significant. The results make it clear that achievers and underachievers have almost same level of integrity. They can stand for what they believe in and are aware of their weakness. On factor-G (Self Development) the table 2 makes it evident that achievers and underachievers differ significantly. Achievers have the mean score of 8.65 while as underachievers have the mean score of 8.38. The -t value obtained is 2.5 which is higher than the table value and is significant at 0.05 level. The results imply that achievers possess high achievement as they are more popular and they develop themselves on all walks of life. They are better liked by their peers. In addition to their work they can handle a number of tasks and hate idleness. In contrary to them, underachievers keep themselves far behind from self-development. They do not like to work more than that of obligatory one and cannot handle multiple tasks. Hence achieve less academically.

The perusal of table 2 makes it clear that achievers and underachievers differ significantly on factor-H (Value orientation) of emotional intelligence. The mean score of achievers is 8.55 and of underachievers is 8.18 and the t-value is 3.5 which shows...
significant difference between two groups on value orientation (factor-H) of emotional intelligence at 0.01 level. The results reveal that achievers possess high achievement as they are able to confront unethical actions of others. They have high standards of honesty, integrity and are highly oriented towards values. While as underachievers have low achievement as they feel uncomfortable to confront unethical actions of others and are not well oriented towards values. The table 2 depicts that achievers differ significantly from underachievers on factor-I (Commitment) of emotional intelligence. The obtained t-value is 3.33 which is significant at 0.01 level. The mean score of achievers is 8.69 and that of underachievers is 8.33 which favour achievers as they are able to meet commitments and keep promises. They have good self-determination with which they work to achieve the goal and achieve high academically. While as underachievers have low commitments and cannot work with the promises they make. They are not organized or careful and have low self-determination which results in their low achievement.

On factor (Altruistic behaviour) of emotional intelligence, the table 2 depicts the mean score of achievers 8.44 is higher than the mean score of underachievers 17.90. The obtained t-value 2.7 is significant at 0.05 level. This confirms that there is significant difference between achievers and underachievers on factor- J (Altruistic behaviour) of emotional intelligence. The results confirm that achievement of achievers is high as they are able to confront unethical actions of others and are able to encourage others to take initiatives. They are also able to handle conflicts around them properly. On the other hand underachievers possess low achievement as they are neither able to confront unethical actions of others nor can handle conflicts around them properly.

The results as presented in tables 01 and 02 analyzed and discussed above on emotional intelligence are in line with Uma Devi, L. and Bomala Rayulu T.R (2005), Humaria (2007), Ogundokun and Adeyano (2010), Yahaya et al. (2012) and Bhadouria Preeti (2013).

Uma and Bomala (2005) in their study have found that higher the emotional intelligence, higher the intellectual abilities. They found that adolescents with high cognitive abilities were highly successful. Humaira (2007) has found that there is a significant relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Academic achievement.

Ogundokun and Adeyano (2010) in their study have revealed that emotional intelligence was a potent predictor to academic achievement. Yahaya et al. (2012) revealed that higher the emotional intelligence higher will be the academic achievement. Bhadouria Preeti (2013) depicted that academic achievement without emotional intelligence does not indicate future success and absence of emotional intelligence also indicate the week personality and ability to build relations at working place as well as in school and it is highly important for quality education.
Inferential Suggestions

1. For better academic achievement, curriculum should be flexible and diversified.
2. Underachievers should be taught by employing teaching aids in order to raise their interest and improve their academic achievement.
3. Experts and professionals should organize extension lectures which help the underachievers to understand and control their emotions by fostering emotional stability.
4. Teachers and parents should encourage the underachievers by involving them in learning process in and outside the classroom.
5. The enhancement in the teacher-student relationship will help the later to confront the problems they face.
6. School should work towards the prevention of underachievement.
7. The present study suggests that convenient atmosphere should be provided to underachievers so that they can tackle the problems which they face in their day to day life.
8. Provision of special classes in each subject should be conducted in every school for underachievers.
9. Teachers should show more care for underachievers. They should respect their personality, protect their proper pride, and should never use cold and discriminatory attitude, and blind punishment.
10. Counselling programs should be organized in schools to bring about desired changes in the behaviour of underachievers.

References


Emotional Intelligence of Achievers and Underachievers – A Comparative Study


OCCUPATIONAL STRESS OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL TEACHERS IN RELATION TO SELF-EFFICACY

Suman Preet Kaur*  
Surjit Singh Puar**

Abstract
Education has been playing key role in making human beings and shaping the civilizations. Nowadays when there is a ferocious competition in every walk of life, the teachers are more horizontal to stress because dealing with the students and ensuring their better performance for facing the emerging challenges of universal world is itself a challenging job. Occupational stress has become increasingly common in teaching profession largely because of increased occupational complexities and increased economic anxiety on individuals. The present study has been designed to study the occupational stress and self-efficacy of government elementary school teachers of Punjab in relation to their gender, location, and educational qualifications. A sample of 815 elementary school teachers was collected by using multi-stage random sampling technique from six districts of Punjab selected on the basis of their high & low literacy rates. The translated version of General Self-efficacy scale by Jerusalem and Schwarzer (1995) and occupational stress scale by Satwinder Pal kaur was used. The results revealed that there was a significant gender difference on occupational stress of elementary school teachers, but in case of locale, and education qualifications do not have any significant impact on self efficacy and occupational stress of Elementary school teachers. Correlation Coefficient of occupational stress and self-efficacy was negative and significant at .01 level of confidence.

* Assistant Professor, SGGSWU, Fatehgarh sahib  
** Associate Professor, Dept. of Education, PURC, Bathinda
Key words: Occupational stress, Self-efficacy, Elementary school Teachers, Gender, Locale, and Educational qualifications.

Introduction:

Education has been playing key role in making human beings and shaping the civilizations. Our country has a huge deliver of the thoughts and acquaintance to share with the world. Since the ancient civilizations in our country, education has enormously created an insightful impact in shaping the behavior of the individuals as well as making the civilizations. However with the altering times, Education has grown to an assorted level in the contemporary world as a result of the growing competitions, specializations in desired fields, systems of transforming as well as transmitting information and knowledge (Pokhrel, 2017). In our Education system, teacher is the dominating factor in furthering the national development. Teacher has a vital role in making or marring the future/career of a student. Thus, the teachers occupy the key position and it is only through their key role the whole education system is regulated and ultimate goal is achieved. Nowadays when there is a ferocious competition in every walk of life, the teachers are more horizontal to stress because dealing with the students and ensuring their better performance for facing the emerging challenges of global world is itself a challenging job. (Kumar, Wani & Parrey, 2013)

Occupational stress

Stress is defined in terms of its physical and physiological effects on a person, and can be a mental, physical or emotional strain. It can also be a tension or a situation or factor that can cause stress. The concept of stress was first introduced in the Life-sciences by Hans Selye in 1936. Derived from the Latin word ‘stringere’; it meant the experience of physical hardship, starvation, torture and pain. Hans Selye, 1974 defined stress as “the non-specific response of the body to any demand placed upon it”. It has become inseparable part of human persona & professional life. Performance of an individual in his profession is affected by number of factors. With the changing socio-economic state of affairs and increasing unemployment, the values of teacher and their professional concerns associated with their occupation have undergone a transform, increasing stresses and hassles of teachers. Occupational stress is one of the major affair which teachers facing now days. (Dull&Bhardwaj(2016). Occupational stress has become increasingly common in teaching profession largely because of increased occupational complexities and increased economic pressure on individuals.

Self-efficacy

Teachers must have some knowledge of students’ perceived strengths and weaknesses not simply in general learning but in very definite learning tasks. The efficacy belief system is not a global trait but a differentiated set of self-beliefs linked to distinct realms of functioning”. Bandura (1986) also proposed the concept of reciprocal determinism, which is essentially the notion that how learners interpret the results of
Occupational Stress of Elementary School Teachers in Relation to Self-efficacy

their performance informs and alters their environments and self-beliefs, which in turn alters their subsequent performances. Teachers’ self-efficacy beliefs can also be described as their beliefs in showing necessary efforts and behaviors in order to fulfill the function of teaching successfully. Stephen Robbins (1999) defined stress as “a dynamic condition in which an individual is confronted with an opportunity, constraint or demand related to what he / she desires and for which the outcome is perceived to be both uncertain and important.” According to Jinks and Morgan (1999), ‘Self-efficacy is feeling of being confident about the performance in doing a certain task’. It is a product, an outcome of an individual’s judgments about what he can do by using his skills.

**Objectives of the study:**

1. To study Occupational Stress and Self-Efficacy of Elementary school teachers.
2. To analyze the differences in the occupational Stress and self efficacy of elementary school teachers in regards of
   i. Locale
   ii. Gender
   iii. Qualification
3. To find out the relationship between occupational Stress and self efficacy among elementary school teachers.

**Hypothesis of the study:**

1. There is no significant difference in occupational stress of elementary school teachers in regard of :
   i. Gender
   ii. Locale
   iii. Qualification
2. There is no significant difference in Self-efficacy of elementary school teachers in regard of :
   i. Gender
   ii. Locale
   iii. Qualification
3. There is no significant relationship between occupational stress and self efficacy of elementary school teachers.

**Method**

Descriptive survey method of research has been followed for conducting this study. According to Best (2010), ‘All research involves elements of observation, description and the analysis of what happens under certain circumstances’. A systematic procedure is must to collect the necessary data which helps to attain the objectives and to test the hypotheses formulated for the study.
Sample
A sample of 815 elementary school teachers was selected from the government elementary schools of Punjab state through multistage random sampling technique. Due weight age was given to gender, locale, Qualification of teachers while selecting the sample.

Tool used
In the present study the General Self-efficacy scale was originally developed in Germany and translated into English by Jerusalem and Schwarzer (1992) and in Hindi by Sud (1998) and occupational stress scale by Satvinder pal kaur (2008) has been used.

Result and Discussion
In order to analyze the data, t-test and correlation was applied to see the significance of the differences in the level of Occupational stress and self-efficacy between male and female, rural and urban and high and low qualification of elementary school teachers.

(A) Descriptive Analysis:
In order to find out the range and distribution of scores on different variables, mean, median, mode standard deviation, were calculated for the sample and the detailed results are presented in table 1.1 for the variables of occupational stress and self-efficacy.

Table 1.1: Mean, Median, Mode, SD of Sample on the variables of Occupational Stress and Self-efficacy of elementary school teachers.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Median</th>
<th>Mode</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Mins</th>
<th>Max</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Self-Efficacy</td>
<td>815</td>
<td>30.99</td>
<td>32.00</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>5.639</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Occupational Stress</td>
<td>815</td>
<td>98.37</td>
<td>98.00</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>16.43</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>144</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Table 1.1 also shows that mean occupational stress value of total group of Elementary school teachers is 98.37 with SD is 16.43. The mean score of self-efficacy is 30.99 and SD is 5.63.

(B) Differential Analysis:
In continuation of the descriptive analysis of the data efforts have been made to compare various groups through differential analysis based on the comparison of male and female teachers, urban and rural elementary school teachers, high or low qualification in respect of occupational stress, and self-efficacy.
Occupational Stress of Elementary School Teachers in Relation to Self-efficacy

Table 1.2: Comparison of occupational stress of elementary school teachers in regard of male, female, urban, rural, high qualification and low qualification

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S. No</th>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>t-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Occupational Stress</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>96.35</td>
<td>16.98</td>
<td>815</td>
<td>2.101*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>99.09</td>
<td>16.18</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Urban</td>
<td>98.86</td>
<td>16.73</td>
<td>815</td>
<td>.957</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Rural</td>
<td>97.75</td>
<td>16.04</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>High qualification</td>
<td>98.20</td>
<td>16.26</td>
<td>815</td>
<td>.513</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Low qualification</td>
<td>98.89</td>
<td>16.96</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(*=0.05 level of significant)

Fig. 1.1 Comparison of Mean scores of occupational stress elementary school teachers in regard of Gender, Location and Qualification.

Comparison on Occupational Stress

(1) **Gender:** The t-value as presented in table 1.2 in respect of occupational stress of male and female elementary school teachers is 2.101 which is statistically significant at 0.05 level. This reveals that there was significant difference in the mean occupational stress scores of Male and female elementary school teachers. The mean occupational stress scores of male and female elementary school teachers are (M=96.35) and (M=99.09) respectively which clearly indicates that the occupational stress level of the female elementary school teachers is higher than that male elementary school teachers as represented in fig 1.1. The result is supported by Sahu and Jangarah (2005) studied the stress and level of adjustment of secondary school teachers in Kerala. The results showed that teachers with high adjustment, experienced low level of stress and the teachers with high level of stress, had low adjustment. Female teachers were under high stress as compared to their male counterparts. Wang and Zhang (2007) found that
the occupational stress of secondary and elementary school teachers are considerable and affected their health and performance. There were significant gender differences in the occupational stress among teachers in different schools and with different lengths of service. Ruchi (2011) focused on sources of stress among teachers. Statistical analysis of the data revealed that male teachers perceive more stress than female teachers and teachers with low level of stress were more emotionally intelligent than the teachers with high level of stress.

(2) **Location:** The t-value as presented in table 1.2 in respect of occupational stress of urban and rural elementary school teachers is .957 which is not statistically significant. This revealed that there was no significant difference between urban and rural elementary school teachers in respect of occupational stress. The mean occupational stress of urban (M=98.86) and Rural (M=97.75) elementary school teachers indicates that the urban elementary school teachers are slightly more occupational stress than rural elementary school teachers as shown in Fig 1.2 the result is supported by Pabla (2012) examined the occupational stress amongst teachers of professional colleges in Punjab affiliated to Punjab Technical University. The finding was that there was no significant difference between male and female teachers with respect to occupational stress level, however there was a significant difference between teachers teaching in the professional colleges located in rural and urban areas and the teachers employed on Ad-hoc and permanent basic.

(3) **Qualification:** The t-value as presented in table 1.2 in respect of occupational stress of High and low qualification of elementary school teachers is .513 which is not statistically significant. This reveals that there is no difference between high and low qualified elementary school teachers in respect of occupational stress. The mean occupational stress of High (M=98.20) and Low (M=98.99) qualified elementary school teachers indicates that low qualified teachers are new slightly more occupational stress than High qualified elementary school teachers as shown in fig. 1.3.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1.3: Comparison between male, female, urban, rural, high and low qualification of elementary school teachers on the variable of Self-efficacy.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>S. No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Not Significant.
Occupational Stress of Elementary School Teachers in Relation to Self-efficacy

Fig. 1.1 Comparison of Mean scores of Self-efficacy elementary school teachers in regard of Gender, Location and Qualification.

(1) **Gender**: The t-value as presented in table 1.3 in respect of self-efficacy of male and female elementary school teachers is 0.815, which is not significant. This shows that there is no significant difference between male and female elementary school teachers in respect of self-efficacy however the mean self-efficacy scores of male elementary school teacher (M=30.72) is higher than that of Self efficacy mean score of female elementary school teachers (M=31.08) as shown in fig1.4. The result is supported by Rao and Haseena (2009) who found that there exists no significant difference between men and women teachers with regard to their self-efficacy. Zinta (2006) investigated the impact of rural and urban background on performance among high and low self-efficacious students. The results revealed that there was a non-significant difference in the performance of boys and girls with high and low self-efficacy within urban and rural settings. Kumar (2013) revealed that there was no significant difference of self-efficacy among gender belonging to different type of institution. There was no significant difference of self-efficacy of male and female teachers belonging to government and private schools. Alwan & Mahasneh, (2014) the results showed that were no significant difference between male and female teacher’s in their level of self-efficacy. Chacon(2005), Cubukcu (2008); Karimvand (2011).

(2) **Locale**: The t-value as given in table1.3 in respect of self-efficacy of urban and rural elementary school teachers is .998, which is not significant. This shows that there is no difference between rural and urban elementary school teachers on the variable of self-efficacy. The mean self-efficacy scores of urban (M=31.16) and rural (30.76) elementary school teachers clearly show that the urban elementary school teachers are slightly more self-efficacy than rural ones as represented in fig. 1.4 This reveals that there was no significant difference in the level of self-efficacy of rural and urban elementary school teachers. This result is contrary to the findings of Rao and Haseena (2009) who found that locality of residence would significantly affect the self-efficacy of primary school teachers.

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Qualification: The t-value as presented in table 1.3 in respect of self-efficacy of high and low qualification of elementary school teachers is 1.591, which is not statistically significant at any level. This reveals that there is no difference between high and less qualified elementary school teachers in respect of self-efficacy. The mean self-efficacy scores of high qualified elementary school teachers (M=30.81) and low qualified elementary school teachers (M=31.54) indicates that low qualified elementary school teacher have more self-efficacy than high qualified elementary school teachers. Thus, the findings reveal that the self efficacy of elementary school teachers is not affected by their educational qualifications. This result is not in resonance with the study conducted by Shazadi et al. (2011) who explored that gender, academic qualification, experience and locality had significantly affected the self-efficacy, but age and professional qualification had no significant affect on the self-efficacy of secondary school teachers.

Correlation Analysis:

Table 1.4: Correlation co-efficient (r) value between occupational stress and self-efficacy

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S No</th>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D</th>
<th>Correlation(r)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Occupational Stress</td>
<td>98.37</td>
<td>16.43</td>
<td>-.184**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Self-efficacy</td>
<td>30.99</td>
<td>5.63</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(*significant at .01 level)

The table 1.7 revealed that correlation between occupational stress and self efficacy (r=-.184**) which found to be negatively correlated and significant at .01 level of confidence. The Higher level of occupational stress lowers the level of self-efficacy. To support the result Vaezi & Fallah (2011) investigated the relationship between self-efficacy and stress among 108 EFL teachers in Iran. The results indicated significant negative correlation between self efficacy and stress. Also it was found that both dimensions of self-efficacy, namely, classroom and organizational efficacies, either collectively or separately, could predict stress among EFL teachers.

Conclusion:

It may be concluded from the above results that Self-efficacy of Elementary school teachers remained same irrespective of their Gender, Locale, and Education Qualification. In contrast to that Occupational stress of Elementary school teachers in regard to Gender differ significantly. This reveals that Female Elementary school Teachers have more stress level than Male elementary school Teachers. The result also depicted that occupational stress was negatively correlated with self-efficacy as well as significant at 0.01 level. This reveals that with high level of occupational stress of elementary school teachers declines the self efficacy of elementary school teachers.
Occupational Stress of Elementary School Teachers in Relation to Self-efficacy

References


OCCUPATIONAL EFFICACY OF GOVERNMENT AND PRIVATE HIGHER SECONDARY SCHOOL TEACHERS IN RELATION TO THEIR RURAL URBAN DICHOTOMY

Ashiq Ahmad Thoker

Abstract
The present study was conducted to find and compare the occupational efficacy of Government and private School teachers on rural and urban dichotomy. 800 Government and private School teachers were selected by using random cum stratified sampling technique. Occupational efficacy Scale developed by Sanjyot Pethe, Sushama Chaudhari and Upider Dhar was uses for data collection. The data was subjected to statistical treatment by using percentage, Mean, Standard Deviation, and ‘t’ test. Results revealed that Government and private School teachers differ significantly on various levels of Occupational Efficacy. Private School teachers were found high level of Occupational Efficacy as compared to Government School teachers. Further, it was found that locality has significant impact on Occupational Efficacy of School teachers; urban School teachers were found more sense of efficacy as compared to rural school teachers.

Key words: Occupational Efficacy, Government, and Private School Teachers, Rural urban Dichotomy

Introduction
The source of true and holistic education is the teacher. He is the backbone of the entire educational edifice. In our teaching process, teacher is the nuclear part of the total system. The worth and potentiality of any nation gets evaluated on the basis of teacher’s performance and contribution. The teacher is an important constituent in any instructional process. In fact, the teacher is the top most academic and professional

* Assistant Professor, State Education Department, J&K
personnel in the educational pyramid under whose charge, the destiny of our children is placed. The teacher has a vital role to play to relate education to national development and social change (Shah, 1994). The teacher is said to be the torch bearer who guides, inspires and finally inculcates the values in our teeming millions in accordance with our cultural heritage and social objectives. The success of any educational system finally depends on the qualities of a teacher. In this context, teachers seem to have more responsibilities in moulding the character of students.

It is rightly said, “if a teacher runs, students will walk; if a teacher walks, students will sit; and if a teacher sits, students will sleep” (Narian, S., 1999). The quality of teacher education is very important for bringing about its functional improvement. A teacher can perform his or her multifarious tasks and responsibilities only if he or she is updated professionally and personally.

Gone are the times when teaching was considered as an art. Laying emphasis on teachers’ qualities, Besides, National Policy on Education (1986) also envisaged that no system of education can rise above the level of its teachers; they are the heart and soul of any educational process. Teacher is a pivotal point, the heart of the matter. Education takes place through the interaction between the teacher and the taught. The teacher influences the personality of the child and instils in him a thoughtful awakening, a new life and belief. He is considered the most responsible and dignified member of the society, because his professional effort affects the whole nation. It has been agreed that the failure and the success of the nation depends upon the teacher, so teachers must possess strong sense of profession and true devotion towards teaching in a dignified way.

Occupational efficacy is defined as a set of personal belief. It is the capacity to perform of an appropriate and effective manner to attain certain goals in one’s profession. Occupational self-efficacy is a source through which teachers utilize their professional work in bringing about positive changes in the behaviour of their learners. Occupational efficacy ensures that while choosing any occupation, it is mandatory that professional should derive pleasure from his profession, so that he contributes maximum towards his profession. It is occupational self-efficacy which helps in maintaining psychological mechanism of an individual which fundamentally ensures his academic optimism for effective teaching learning process in education. An important factor, which can determine the professional effectiveness of teacher, is their occupational self-efficacy. It means teacher must have some sense of belief that can make difference in the lives of the children during learning process. Occupational efficacy leads a teacher to feel that his professional work brings positive changes among the learners. Teacher efficacy as a belief is expected to guide teachers in their behaviour decisions and which finally motivates them in teaching. Specifically, teacher self-efficacy affects his routine decisions related to teaching and willingness to invoke specific strategies and techniques. In educational context, teacher’s self efficacy is
teacher’s personal (i.e., self-perceived) ability in successful manner to plan instruction and accomplish instructional objectives. In fact, high self-efficacy enables successful use of professional knowledge and skills, or conversely, low self-efficacy inhibits effective use of professional knowledge and skills. Teachers’ self-efficacy improves the teaching effectiveness which is the product of interaction between certain teacher mechanisms and the teaching learning situations. Thus, teacher’s efficacy is reported to be a strong self-regulatory characteristic which enables him to use his maximum potential in order to be effective in teaching learning process. Teacher self-efficacy is a construct that was developed within the context of Bandura’s social cognitive theory. Bandura, A. (1993) defined self-efficacy as a belief about one’s own capabilities to organize and execute a certain task. Bandura, (1997) observed that self-efficacy beliefs influence thought patterns and emotions, which in turn enable or inhibit actions.

Ahmad, M. & Poodineh, T. (2012). report that the feeling of self-efficacy is based on a system of beliefs which holds an interaction with the environment and help the individual to cope and realize his skills effectively. If a teacher educator has high level of occupational self-efficacy i.e. beliefs in his capabilities, his effectiveness in the classroom situations will be helpful to produce good teachers. Occupational self-efficacy can be different, in various areas of life as it is task specific. The teacher with positive attitude, confidence, adaptability, ethics and belief can handle classroom challenges very effectively (Aikaterini, G., Dimitrios, B. & Athanasios, K. (2014).

Quality of secondary education is poor in our country. Improvement in the quality of secondary education is of prime concern to all. Through the quality of the secondary education is poor due to many reasons as observed in the review of the related literature, but the current and general perception is that ethics dedication, commitment and occupational efficacy in teaching profession are decreasing day by day. Therefore, keeping this thing into consideration efforts have been made by the present researcher to study the research problem as:

Objectives of the Study

The present study has been conducted with the following objectives:

1) To study and compare occupational efficacy of Government and private higher secondary school teachers.

2) To study and compare occupational efficacy of rural and urban higher secondary school teachers.

Hypothesis

Based upon the above mentioned objectives, the following hypotheses were formulated:

1) There is significant difference between occupational efficacy of Government and private higher secondary school teachers.
2) There is significant difference between occupational efficacy of rural and urban higher secondary school teachers.

Methodology:
Keeping in view the research evidences, objectives and hypotheses, the researcher found it suitable to go through descriptive survey method, through which data was collected.

Sample:
The present investigation was carried out on a sample of 800 teachers working in Government and private Secondary Schools of Kashmir Valley. These teachers were drawn from five districts: Srinagar, Anantnag, Shopian, Pulwama and Kulgam. A random sampling technique was adopted to carry out the investigation. The age of the subjects was between 30 to 50 years.

Tools used:
Occupational Self-efficacy scale developed by the Sanjyot Pethe, Sushama Chaudhari and Upinder Dhar (2011) was used for collection of data.

Statistical Techniques Employed: Information gathered was put to suitable statistical analysis by computing Percentage, Mean, S.D. and test of significance (t-test).

Analysis of data:
Table 1: Showing the Percent-wise distribution of Government and Private School Teachers on Various Levels of Occupational Efficacy.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Levels of Occupational Efficacy</th>
<th>PST</th>
<th>GST</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>18.75</td>
<td>19.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>17</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>9.25</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>103</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>26.25</td>
<td>25.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>28.75</td>
<td>27.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Index: PST: Private School Teachers
GST: Government School Teachers

Fig. 1: Comparison of Government and Private School Teachers on Various Levels of Occupational Efficacy.
Table 2: Showing the Percent-wise Distribution of Rural and Urban Teachers on Various Levels of Occupational Self-Efficacy.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Levels of Occupational Efficacy</th>
<th>RST</th>
<th></th>
<th>UST</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>17.25</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>13.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>14.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>10.5</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>9.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>119</td>
<td>29.75</td>
<td>130</td>
<td>32.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>27.5</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>400</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>400</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Index: RST: Rural School Teachers  
UST: Urban School Teachers

Fig. 2: Comparison of Rural and Urban Teachers on Various Levels of Occupational Efficacy.

Table 3: Showing the Significance of Difference Between the Mean Scores of Government and Private School Teachers on Various Dimensions of Occupational Efficacy (N=400 each).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimensions of Occupational Efficacy</th>
<th>PST</th>
<th></th>
<th>GST</th>
<th></th>
<th>t-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>S.D</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>S.D</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I Confidence</td>
<td>12.83</td>
<td>1.95</td>
<td>8.22</td>
<td>3.38</td>
<td>23.57**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II Command</td>
<td>11.09</td>
<td>1.87</td>
<td>8.02</td>
<td>3.24</td>
<td>16.36**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III Adaptability</td>
<td>11.73</td>
<td>1.40</td>
<td>11.24</td>
<td>2.49</td>
<td>3.40**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IV Personal effectiveness</td>
<td>11.98</td>
<td>1.60</td>
<td>11.10</td>
<td>4.36</td>
<td>3.80**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V Positive attitude</td>
<td>11.31</td>
<td>1.74</td>
<td>8.63</td>
<td>5.20</td>
<td>9.74**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VI Individuality</td>
<td>7.26</td>
<td>1.90</td>
<td>3.13</td>
<td>1.69</td>
<td>32.28**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VII Composite Score</td>
<td>61.45</td>
<td>11.72</td>
<td>55.11</td>
<td>13.92</td>
<td>6.97**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Fig. 3: Comparison of Government and Private School Teachers on Various Dimensions of Occupational Efficacy.

Table 4: Showing the Significance of Difference Between the Mean Scores of Rural and Urban Teachers on Various Dimensions of Occupational Efficacy (N=400 each).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimensions of Occupational Efficacy</th>
<th>RST</th>
<th>UST</th>
<th>t-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>S.D</td>
<td>Mean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I Confidence</td>
<td>9.94</td>
<td>3.24</td>
<td>11.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II Command</td>
<td>8.88</td>
<td>3.06</td>
<td>10.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III Adaptability</td>
<td>10.93</td>
<td>2.25</td>
<td>12.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IV Personal Effectiveness</td>
<td>10.63</td>
<td>3.23</td>
<td>12.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V Positive Attitude</td>
<td>11.11</td>
<td>1.60</td>
<td>11.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VI Individuality</td>
<td>11.13</td>
<td>3.75</td>
<td>9.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VII Composite Score</td>
<td>50.36</td>
<td>13.78</td>
<td>66.21</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Fig. 4: Comparison of Rural and Urban Higher Secondary School Teachers on Various Dimensions of Occupational Efficacy.
Interpretation of data

The results presented in Table 1 (Fig. 1) show the percentage-wise distribution of Government and private teachers on various levels of occupational efficacy. The results revealed that in case of private teachers, the levels of occupational efficacy were found as: 18.75% strongly in disagreement, 17% in disagreement, 9.25% private teachers were found neutral in deciding their occupational efficacy. Additionally, 26.25% private teachers agreed, 28.75% strongly agreed towards their occupational efficacy. On the other hand, 19.75% Government teachers were found strongly disagreed, 18% disagreed towards their occupational efficacy. Further, 9% Government teachers were found unable to express their occupational self-efficacy. 25.75% agreed and 27.5% teachers of Government schools express this attitude in level of agreement and strongly agreement respectively. Thus, from the above mentioned results, it may be said that private teachers have better confidence, command, adaptability, personal effectiveness, positive attitude and individuality as compared to Government teachers.

The results presented in Table 2 (Fig. 2) shows the percentage-wise distribution of rural and urban school teachers on various levels of occupational efficacy. The percent wise distribution of urban school teachers was observed to be as: 13.25% strongly in disagreement, 14.5% in disagreement towards their occupational efficacy. 9.75% urban teachers were found neutral towards their professional ethics. However, 32.5% urban teachers were found agreed and 30% strongly in agreement towards their professional ethics. Coming up to the percent wise distribution of rural teachers, 17.25% were found strongly disagreed and 15% agreed towards their professional ethics. 10.5% rural teachers were found neutral towards their professional ethics. Meanwhile, 29.75% rural teachers found agreed and 27.5% as strongly agreed towards their professional ethics.

The results presented in Table 3 (Fig. 3) gives information about the mean comparison of Government and private school teachers on various dimensions of occupational efficacy. With regard to first dimension of the occupational efficacy scale (Confidence), the results revealed private school teachers with a higher mean score (M=12.83) as compared to Government school teachers (M=8.22). The calculated ‘t’ value is reported to be significant at 0.01 level of confidence (t = 23.57). Thus, it may be said that private teachers possess high level of confidence building mechanism as compared to Government teachers.

Coming towards the second dimension of occupational self-efficacy (Command), the mean score in case of private teachers has been reported to be higher (M =11.09), than the Government teachers (M=8.02). The obtained ‘t’ value came out to be 16.36 which is significant at 0.01 level of confidence. Thus, it can be inferred that private teachers have a better sense of control over the situation as compared to their comparable group.

With regard to the third dimension of occupational efficacy scale i.e. Adaptability, the mean score of the private teachers
(M=11.73) has been seen to be higher as compared to Government teachers (M=11.24). The calculated ‘t’ value (t =3.40) has succeeded to differentiate the two groups of teachers at 0.01 level of confidence. It can be inferred that private teachers try to evaluate their undesirable behavioural strategies and accommodate them accordingly for strengthening their future. The fourth dimension (Personal Effectiveness) of occupational efficacy scale, gives details about private and Government teachers. Private teachers have been found to possess a higher mean score (M=11.98) than Government school teachers (M = 11.10). The calculated t value has been found to be 3.80, which is significant at 0.01 level of confidence. It may be inferred that teachers of private schools have better personal effectiveness as compared to Government teachers. The fifth dimension (Positive Attitude) of occupational self-efficacy gives information about the mean comparison of private and Government school teachers. The mean score in case of private school teachers was observed to be higher (M =11.31) as compared to teachers working in Government schools (M= 8.63). The calculated ‘t’ value was seen out to be 9.74, which is significant at 0.01 level. From these results, it is revealed that private and Government teachers are different from each other on this dimension. Thus, it can be said that private teachers have positive attitude towards their occupation as compared to Government teachers. While looking into the mean comparison of private and Government teachers on sixth dimension (Individuality) of occupational self efficacy, It has been observed that the mean score in case of private school teachers was higher ( M=7.26) as compared to the mean score of Government school teachers (M=3.13). The calculated ‘t’ value came out to be 32.28, which is significant at 0.01 level of confidence. Therefore, it can be said that private teachers have higher level of individuality as compared to Government school teachers.

The results reported in this table gives information about the composite score of the Occupational Efficacy scale between Government and private school teachers. It has been observed that the mean score in case of private school teachers was 61.45 which is higher than the mean value of Government school teachers (M=55.11). The operational ‘t’ value came out to be 6.97, which is significant at .01 level of confidence. From these results, it may be inferred that private teachers have better confidence, command, adaptability, personal effectiveness, positive attitude and individuality as compared to Government teachers. Proper sense of self-esteem and high level of confidence was observed among private school teachers. In the light of the results reported above, the hypothesis No. 1) which reads as, “There is significant difference between occupational efficacy of Government and private higher secondary school teachers.” stands retained. As it has been found that these two groups of teachers are different from each other on occupational self efficacy. Appadurai and Saraladevi, (2015) found the impact of type of school on self-efficacy of teachers as significant. Private aided school teachers were found to have more efficacy beliefs as compared to Government teachers. Eremie & Chikweru, (2015) found a significant mean difference
between private schools teachers and public schools teachers on the level of self-esteem. The investigators also observed private school teachers with high level of self-esteem as compared to public school teachers. Winston and Kwesi (2013), Kareemm, (2014) found Government aided and unaided college teachers significantly different on all the dimensions of self-concept viz. social concept, teaching effectiveness, academic problem and general self-esteem. Teachers working in private aided colleges were found high on the level of self-concept as compared to Government aided college teachers.

The comparative analysis of rural and urban teachers on different dimensions of occupational self-efficacy has been reported in Table No. 4 (Fig. 4). A perusal of this table reveals a significant mean difference between the two groups of teachers on all the six dimensions of occupational efficacy. An observation on the first dimension of occupational self-efficacy scale (Confidence) reveals both the groups of teachers significantly differ from each other. The mean scores in case of urban school teachers was reported to be higher (M=11.11) as compared to rural teachers (M=9.94). The calculated ‗t‘ value was observed to be 4.68 which is significant at 0.01 level of confidence. Therefore, it can be said that urban group of teachers were observed successful in maintaining their level of confidence. The impact of locality between urban and rural teachers on second dimension of occupational self-efficacy scale (Command). It was observed that locality has significant impact on the commanding approach of teachers. The mean score of urban teachers was found higher (M=10.23) than the mean score of rural teachers (M= 8.88). The calculated ‗t‘ value has been reported significant at 0.01 level of confidence (t = 6.37). On this basis, urban teachers have better commanding approach as compared to rural teachers. Rural and urban teachers were further compared on third dimension of occupational efficacy scale (Adaptability). The results revealed a significant mean difference between the two groups under discussion. Urban teachers have been observed with high mean score (M=12.03) than rural teachers (M=10.93). The obtained ‗t‘ value was observed 7.90, which is significant as 0.01 level of confidence. From these result, it is revealed that urban group of teachers has better adaptability as compared to rural group of teachers. Urban group of teachers are seen to face complexity in their teaching. The results reported in fourth dimension of occupational efficacy (Personal Effectiveness), has shown urban group of teachers with better personal effectiveness (M=12.45) as compared to rural group of teachers (M=10.63). The calculated ‗t‘ value was seen to be significant at 0.01 level of confidence (t =8.03). Further, urban teachers believe to be in the continuous improvement of their performance as compared to rural teachers. While looking into the mean comparison of urban and rural teachers on sixth dimension (Positive Attitude) of occupational efficacy, It has been observed that the mean score incase of urban teachers is higher (M= 11.99), than the mean value of rural school teachers (M=11.11). The calculated ‗t‘ value is reported to be 3.80 which is significant at 0.01 level of confidence. Therefore, it can be said that urban teachers, in
comparison to rural teachers, have a positive attitude towards their occupation. The quick glance on the last dimension (Individuality) of occupational self-efficacy reveals that there is a significant difference between the two groups of teachers (urban and rural). The mean score of urban teachers (M=11.99) was found higher than the mean score of rural teachers (M=1.11) The calculated ‘t’ value (t = 4.82) is significant at 0.01 level of confidence. On this basis, it can be inferred that urban school teachers have high individualistic approach as far as their occupation is concerned. While observing the impact of locality on the composite score of Occupational Self-Efficacy scale, it has been observed that the mean score in case of urban teachers is higher (M =66.21) than the mean score of female school teachers (M= 50.36). The calculated “t” value is reported to be 21.10. It may be said that urban teachers have better confidence, command, adaptability and personal effectiveness as compared to rural teachers. From the above results, it may be said that locality has significant influence on the efficiency of teachers. Besides, urban teachers were observed to deal effectively with those challenges which are related to their occupation. Further, they were found to be able to work effectively even under the strict pressure of their administrators and they endure continuous improvement of their occupation. In the light of the results reported above, the hypothesis No. 9. Which reads as, “There is significant difference between occupational self efficacy of rural and urban higher secondary school teachers.” stands admitted. As it has been observed that there exists a significant difference between the two groups of teachers on occupational self efficacy. The results have been found to be supported by other researchers (Esther, 2015; Igbo, Onu & Obiyo, 2015; Prem, 2015; Arnab, 2014; Bakari, 2013; Soumya, and Vijayakumari, 2013; Rao & Haseena, 2009; Mahyuddin, 2006; Rahil, et al., 2006; Ireson, Hallam, 2001). Esther, (2015) reported that school location has a significant effect on the student’s achievement in Economics. It was recommended that teachers should be exposed to self-efficacy enhancement programme. This may enable them to imbibe the spirit of self-efficacy in carrying out their assignments. Igbo, Onu and Obiyo (2015) observed that there exists a significant difference in the self-concept of students belonging to urban and rural areas. The self-concept of urban students was found higher as compared to rural areas. Prem (2015) found that urban students have more self-efficacy as compared to the rural students.

Conclusions of the study

1. Majority of the private school teachers were seen in strong agreement as far as their occupational efficacy is concerned. However, in case of Government school teachers, majority of the them were in agreement towards their occupational efficacy.

2. Private school teachers in comparison to Government school teachers were found significantly different on all the dimensions of occupational efficacy. These dimensions are: confidence, command, adaptability, personal effectiveness, positive attitude and individuality.
3. The impact of locality (rural urban dichotomy) was found significant on efficacy of teachers. Urban teachers were found occupationally self efficient as compared to rural teachers. The dimension wise comparison revealed urban teachers with high occupational self efficacy on all the dimensions viz. confidence, command, adaptability, personal effectiveness, positive attitude and individuality.

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MASSIVE OPEN ONLINE COURSES: A CHANGING FACE OF DISTANCE EDUCATION IN INDIA

Hafsah Jan* 
Mohammad Iqbal Mattoo**

Abstract

Day by day, in education areas the trends are changing, due to the technological upgradation as well as specialized courses are needed from the industry point of view. The course structure as well as the curriculum is changing but at the slower speed in contrast to the industry requirement. Conventional classroom teaching has numerous diverse options the learners need to perform extra to cope-up with the industry criteria. Thus, learner centric learning method in which the learner comes at the foremost place and the experience or the knowledge of the educator as supervisory or mentoring to outshine the learner. These days’ online learning and distance learning courses are accessible through MOOC-massive open online course. This provides freedom to the learners to learn and comprehend the course of their choice, as per their need and appropriateness of the place & time. Online courses provide learners with certificates and several course providers are there also in India to meet the requirement. This research article is trying to explore different initiatives in India and also discusses some of them.

Key Words: MOOC, Online Courses, Distance Education.

Introduction

A Massive Open Online Course (MOOC) is an internet-based platform which offers limitless number of students globally with a chance of distance education in the
best institutions of the world. In 2008, MOOC was started by Dave Cornier but it got thrust to be a popular learning tool after 2012. Many MOOCs have groups that have discussions and communicating sessions between the student, professors and teaching assistants (TAs) beside the study material and video speeches. If one can’t afford to pursue a course while visiting institutions on regular bases, he has the best alternative of considering a MOOC for his higher education.

MOOC is considered as a remedy for education as well as a degradation of the purity of the higher education tradition. An online stage where learners and professors contact one other to figure out a pool of resources (online), which are easily, freely available to be used. There are many options like downloading notes, attending to lectures, and sharing one’s view point as well as contributions by communicating with others. It is perceived to be virtual classroom.

Nowadays, online courses are organized and offered by several associations. One of them being Coursera was hurled few years ago with the objective to make courses accessible to learners. It is the top most MOOCs contributor by offering online courses in almost all subjects ranging from science to social science, humanities, even it offers courses on language proficiency, digital marketing, designing and so on. It offers 2100+ courses. Many individuals can’t leave their family or their professions to study in any university.

In India, there is a robust need of restructuring to improve the worth of education being taught in several institutions. This is partially forced by the unavailability/absentee of educators. For improving the excellence of education, an evolving method of e-learning, viz., Massive Open Online Courseware (MOOC) can be used as a possible instrument. MOOCs have a widespread approval among the worldwide community. MOOC substitutes the conventional classrooms by offering an online open information repository and permits a collaborative situation. Nevertheless, for MOOCs to be believed to be as a means for teaching in India, it is essential that MOOCs is accepted nearly by all the institutions. MOOCs may not only mend the excellence of education but also results in the enhancement of provision of education, and thus aiding every native of India.

**MOOCs in India**

The following are the significant MOOCs plans in India by the Government as well as other organizations. These are the essential initiatives presented in open realm for the free access by the learners and educators.

- ApnaCourse
- EduKart
- NPTEL- National Programme on Technology Enhanced Learning
- CEC (Consortium for Educational Communication)
- e-PG Pathshala

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- Talk to a Teacher
- Spoken Tutorial
- Virtual Labs
- ILLL- (Institute of Life Long Learning)
- Khan Academy
- IGNOU (Indira Gandhi National Open University)
- SWAYAM
- Sakshat

Few of them are discussed as

**EduKart**

India’s leading online education company was stated in 2011 as EduKart.com. It delivers high quality online distance degree and certificate courses relevant to the industry. All the courses are supported by telephonic conversation of doubt clearing and certification at cheap rating in the alliance with top industrial associations, so that working specialists and learners pursuing higher education can simply learn related industry required talents as well as become a more appreciated staff.

**ApnaCourse**

It is a top MOOC provider from Bangalore, launched in August 2013. The Founder Director and CEO of the company is Satish Rajagopalan. ApnaCourse is a creation of Spearhead EduOnline Pvt. Ltd. It currently satisfies the needs of thousands of persons desiring for skill improvement so as to boost outlooks of profession enhancement with varied courses. The video courses are provided by best lecturers known for their expertise with plenty of experience. The videos are taped in art studios to ensure high audio video clearness. To sustain quality of lectures, all the videos organized for delivery undergo quality checks. After checking quality, the video lectures are aired for participants. The courses are amalgamated with several tests to improve the learning experience. The instructors are friendly for clearing doubts through forum called webinars. At Global Learn Tech Congress, ApnaCourse has been awarded amongst the best E-learning companies. It has also been awarded emerging SME of the year 2015 by KSMBOA.

**NPTEL** (National Programme on Technology Enhanced Learning):

It is a project financed by MHRD and was considered in 1999 to introduce multimedia and web technology to encourage learning of basic science as well as engineering. It is a joint initiative by 7 Indian Institutes of Technology viz. IIT Bombay, Delhi, Guwahati, Kanpur, Kharagpur, Madras as well as Rourke, and Indian Institute of Science for producing course matters in Engineering and Science caused in confinement of NPTEL in 2006.

The plan developed at IIT Madras with determination to offer learning resources in form of recorded classroom lectures. NPTEL was believed in an objective to offer
quality education to Engineers in India by developing program based videos or web courses. The e-learning material supplements classroom teaching. It is compulsory for students of IIT Madras to attend 75% of NPTEL lectures to be eligible for examinations. NPTEL has been of widespread support to the newly started engineering institutes that are at times having shortage of experts or facing insufficient faculty support. NPTEL intends to offer a set typical and quality education for all.

**CEC (Consortium for Educational Communication)**

The University Grants Commission of India set up an Inter University Centre’s known as CEC. It has been set with the goal of focusing on the basics needs of higher education through the practice of dominant medium of TV along with the suitable use of developing Information Communication Technology (ICT).

**e-PG Pathshala**

A Ministry of Human Resource Development, Government of India, under its National Mission on Education through ICT (NME-ICT), has allotted job to the UGC to develop e-content for 77 subjects at PG level. The matter and its quality is the basic element of education system. High quality, curriculum-based, interactive material on diverse topics across all disciplines of natural sciences, mathematical sciences, social sciences, humanities, linguistics and languages is being developed.

**Virtual Labs**

Virtual Labs is a mission introduced by the Ministry of Human Resource Development, Government of India, under the National Mission on Education through ICT. The project purposes to offer distant-access to Laboratories in numerous disciplines of science for learners at all stages from UG to research. It also aims to improve a complete Learning Management System (LMS) where the learners can take benefit of innumerable tools for learning, such as video-lectures, animated demonstrations, web-resources and self-evaluation. There is also a factor where expensive apparatus as well as resources are shared, which are else accessible to only a restricted number of users due to limitations of time and topographical distances. The participants of this project are: Amrita University, Dayalbagh University, College of Engineering Pune, IIIT Hyderabad, NIT Karnataka, and 7 IIT’s.

**Khan Academy**

Khan Academy is a NGO which created in 2006 by teacher Salman Khan with an objective of designing an available place for public to be knowledgeable. The organization makes brief lectures in the shape of YouTube videos. All material accessible to users from its website. The website provided content in English, and in other languages as Bengali, Hindi, Spanish and so on. Khan Academy offers drill exercises, instructional video recorder, and a personalized learning dashboard which permit learners to study on their own pace in and outside of the classroom. This tackles with math, science, computer programming, history, art history, economics,
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and much more. It also united with institutions as NASA, The Museum of Modern Art, The California Academy of Sciences, and MIT to offer specialized content.

**SWAYAM**

Study Webs of Active Learning for Young Aspiring Minds (SWAYAM) has been started to provide a joint platform and portal for online courses, using ICT. It has been devised to attain three fundamental principles of Education viz., access, equity and quality. It bridges the digital divide for learners who have previously stayed untouched by digital transformation and have not been able to join the mainstream of the knowledge. It covers high school till all higher education subjects to ensure that every learner benefits from learning material through ICT.

SWAYAM is a mobile based on shared e-content for all courses from high school to university level. To ensure that worth of the content constructed and supplied 7 coordinators have been appointed nation-wide as: NCERT and NIOS for school education, CEC for UG, UGC for PG, IGNOU for out of school and management studies, NPTEL-engineering.

**Sakshat**

Sakshat was launched in 2006. It is one stop education portal for 50 crore users. The UGC has to offer broadband connectivity to college teachers of central and state universities. Some e-content repositories are: CEC e-content, e-PG pathshala, NPTEL Engg. Media Content spoken tutorial, talk to teacher and virtual classroom.

**Conclusion**

MOOC is debated not only as a successful tool to provide quality education in a differentiated way; however it is a main growing supremacy to compare with the conventional form of routine education in institutions. MOOCs may bring an enormous audience underneath of quality education who were not able to get it due to diverse limitations set up by the educational institutions. Indians are the second most enrolled students with several platforms through it isn’t recognition make us come to fact that India needs more of its own MOOCs so as to make it possible to turn beneficial to student lobby by gaining credits and grasping jobs. The efforts in the same direction is being made in the forms of ApnaCourse, EduKart, NPTEL, e-PG Pathshala, SWAYAM, Khan Academic, CEC, Virtual labs, SWAYAM. Once MOOCs shine, India can be a new nation at educational level.

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STRESS OF PROFESSIONAL AND NON-PROFESSIONAL POST-GRADUATE STUDENTS WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO GENDER

Rehana Rasool *  
Roohi Rani **

Abstract

The present study was carried out to compare the stress of professional and non-professional post graduate students on various dimensions of stress scale by Vijay Lakshmi and Shruti Narain. The sample consists of 120 (professional and non-professional post graduate students) drawn from Central university of Kashmir by using Stratified random sampling. Mean, S.D and Test of significance was used to analyze the data. The results revealed that professionals and non-professionals differ significantly in stress while as male and female professional students don’t differ significantly in Stress. Furthermore non-professional male and female post graduate students difference significantly in stress.

Keywords: Stress, Professional Post Graduate Students, Non-Professional Post Graduate Students and Gender.

Introduction

Stress is a term that can be linked to so many life situations that people are confronted with due to rapidly changing values, life styles, career patterns and family role expectations. These life situations have the potential to increase the level of stress people experience. Stress is a common element in the lives of every individual, regardless of race or cultural background (Garrett, 2001). Stress is an attention-grabbing

* Research Scholar, Department of Education, University of Kashmir  
** Assistant Professor (Contractual) Department of Education, South Campus, University of Kashmir
word. Most of the individuals in this world say that they have problems because of stress. Stress has some external stimulus and an individual gives response to the stimulus through depression and anxiety. Research evidence suggests that cumulative life stress increases risk for emotional and behavioral problems, such as negative views of the self, problematic interpersonal relationships and stressful life experience. Stress may be considered as any physical, chemical or emotional factor that causes bodily or mental unrest.

Srivastava (1985) explored the relationship between need achievement and job anxiety and revealed role conflict and role ambiguity are positively correlated with job anxiety and negatively with need achievement. Physical and chemical factors that can cause stress include trauma, infections, toxins, illnesses and injuries of any sort. There are several causes of stress and tension. If stress disrupts body balance and function, then that kind of stress level is not good. A mild degree of stress and strain can sometimes be beneficial. For example, feeling mildly stressed when carrying out a project or assignment often compels us to do a good job, focus better and work energetically. There are many ways to control stress and their effects on physical and mental health. Expectations of parents and teachers today not only deprive the child of his much needed right of choice but causes stress which leads to mental health problems.

Stress as an experience is universal but what make it complicated are the factors underlying it and the dynamics of experienced stress. Because of these two factors a person can feel relatively more stressed than another in the same situation. It may also be such that the same person in same situation at different times react or experience different levels of stress. Stress therefore is a relative phenomenon which requires that both the person's attributes and the situation be kept in mind while dealing with it. Education as a situation for stress has been well understood and studied however, intervention and causal research has not been so vigorous. Asha (2007) observes the significant correlation between the academic stress factors and the academic achievement. By the very nature of the educational system stress becomes inevitable and in modern times they are considered as locales of stress. Taylor et al (2000) found that men are more prone to the health effects of stress. It has been proposed that women are more likely to be negatively affected by interpersonal events than men—a tentative factor underlying the emergence of gender differences in depression (Cyranowski Frank, Young and Shear 2000) Cohen and Williamson (1988) also found sex differences in perceived stress. Stress on college campuses may be high, as reports suggest that the university environments are different from other settings, yet levels of stress are no less serious (Burks & Martin, 1983). Again, research indicates that college students are no strangers to varying degrees of stress (Kohn et al., 1991). Studies by Pierceall and Keim (2007) have reported that 75% to 80% of college students are moderately stressed and 10% to
12% are severely stressed while Hudd et al. (2000) established that during a typical semester, high levels of stress have been reported for 52% of college students. Stress is part of a college student’s existence and has a profound impact on their ability to cope with college life (Dusselier et al., 2005)

**Significance of the study:**

In the present era this stress is burning issue and everybody wants to live his/her life without stress. Students need to know how stress is harmful or helpful to them. They need to know how to channelize their chronic stress at the early age so that their performance will not get affected. Authorities should take some steps for including particular subjects for stress management. These subjects would help students to manage stress in their day today life, and will help them to live their life happily. Stress is helpful for students if they are able to manage it. Stress will create number of problem if they aren’t able to manage it. Positive dimension of stress will improve the academic achievement of students and will help them to become creative. Anice James and Marice (2004) stated that Girls performed better than boys in their level of achievement and lowered in the level of academic stress. Mohammad and Philip (2004) observed that girls academic stress was higher than the boys academic stress. Chakrabarthy (2007) observed that educational level of the family influenced the academic stress of the female students compared to the male students. Jayachandra Naidu (2007) investigated that fathers’ occupations is not significantly influencing the level of the academic stress of the students of non-formal learning

**Objectives of the study**

1. To compare the Stress of professional and non-professional post graduate students.
2. To compare the Stress of professional post graduate students on the basis of gender.
3. To compare the Stress of non-Professional post graduate students on the basis of gender.

**Hypothesis:**

1. Professional and non-professional post graduate students differ significantly in Stress.
2. Male & female Professional post-graduate students differ significantly in stress.
3. Male and Female Non-Professional post graduate students differ significantly in stress.

**Research Design**

**Sample:**

The present study was conducted on 120 post graduate students (60 professional and 60 non-professional post graduate students). The sample was taken by using the stratified random sampling technique.
Tools:

Stress scale of Vijay Lakshmi and Shruti Narain was administered to study stress of professionals and non-professional post graduate students.

Statistical Treatment: The data collected was subjected to the statistical treatments as mean, S.D and test of significance for the analysis of data.

Analysis and Interpretation:

Table 1.1 Shows the Significant Difference between the mean scores of Stress of Professional and Non-Professional Post Graduate Students N=120 (60 each)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DIMENSION</th>
<th>Professional</th>
<th>Non-professional</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>Level of Significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>SD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PRESSURE</td>
<td>7.23</td>
<td>3.03</td>
<td>5.89</td>
<td>2.52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PHYSICAL STRESS</td>
<td>3.19</td>
<td>0.97</td>
<td>2.91</td>
<td>1.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ANXIETY</td>
<td>7.38</td>
<td>2.95</td>
<td>6.12</td>
<td>2.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FRUSTRATION</td>
<td>6.42</td>
<td>2.56</td>
<td>6.35</td>
<td>2.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>24.23</td>
<td>7.95</td>
<td>21.29</td>
<td>6.15</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: *Not significant, ** Significant

The table 1.1 depicts the total scores of stress with different dimensions; the calculated t value for (pressure) is 2.38 which is significant at 0.05 level,( physical stress) is 1.37 which is not significant, (anxiety) 2.39 which is significant at 0.05 level & (frustration) 0.14 which is not significant. The total calculated t value for each dimension of stress is 2.05 which is significant at 0.05 level which indicates that professional post graduate students have more stress than non-professional postgraduate students.

Table 1.2 Shows the Significant difference between the Mean scores of Stress of Male and female professional post graduate students. N=60(30 each).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DIMENSION</th>
<th>Professional</th>
<th>Non-professional</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>Level of Significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>SD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PRESSURE</td>
<td>6.76</td>
<td>3.06</td>
<td>6.00</td>
<td>2.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PHYSICAL STRESS</td>
<td>3.14</td>
<td>0.85</td>
<td>2.89</td>
<td>1.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ANXIETY</td>
<td>6.66</td>
<td>2.72</td>
<td>6.37</td>
<td>2.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FRUSTRATION</td>
<td>5.66</td>
<td>2.63</td>
<td>6.75</td>
<td>1.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>2.23</td>
<td>7.52</td>
<td>2.03</td>
<td>5.61</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: *Not significant **Significant.
Stress of Professional and Non-professional Post-graduate Students with reference to Gender

The table 1.2 depicts the total scores of stress with different dimensions; the calculated t value for pressure is (0.98), which is not significant, (physical stress) 0.81, which is not significant, (anxiety) 0.41 which is also not significant, (frustration) 1.67 so the total calculated t value for each dimension of stress is 0.11 which is not significant which indicated that there is no difference in stress among professional students with regard to gender.

Table 1.3 Shows the Significant difference between the Mean scores of Stress of Male and female non-professional post graduate students. N=60 (30 each)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DIMENSION</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>Significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pressure</td>
<td>7.54</td>
<td>5.73</td>
<td>2.11</td>
<td>**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical Stress</td>
<td>3.22</td>
<td>2.94</td>
<td>0.95</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anxiety</td>
<td>7.87</td>
<td>5.73</td>
<td>2.65</td>
<td>**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frustration</td>
<td>6.93</td>
<td>5.73</td>
<td>1.65</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>25.58</td>
<td>20.15</td>
<td>2.43</td>
<td>**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: * Not significant and **Significant.

The table 1.3 reveals the total score of stress with different dimensions; calculated t value for (pressure) 2.11 significant at 0.05 level, (physical stress) 0.95 not significant, (anxiety) 2.62 significant at 0.01 level (frustration) 1.65 not significant. So the total calculated t value for each dimension of stress is 2.43 which is significant at 0.05 level and which shows that non-professional males are having more stress than non-professional females.

Discussion:

Table 1.1 reveals that Professional and Non-Professional post graduate students differ significantly. The obtained t value is 2.38, which is significant at 0.05 level. Mean difference shows that professional post graduate students have more stress than non-professional post graduate students on various dimensions of stress scale. Professional students have more Pressure, Frustration and Anxiety than non-professional student while as both professional and non-professional students have equal physical stress. Singh and Singh (2008) revealed that Professional students have more stress as compared to non-professional students. Pierceall and Keim (2007) have reported that 75% to 80% of college students are moderately stressed and 10% to 12% are severely stressed. Hudd et al. (2000) established that during a typical semester, high levels of stress have been reported for 52% of college students. Table 1.2 shows that both Professional male and female students don’t differ significantly in their stress. The obtained t value is 0.11 which is not significant at 0.05 level. Which means that
male and female Professional students have equal Pressure, Physical stress, Anxiety and Frustration. Table 1.3 discloses that non-professional male and female post graduate students differ significantly in stress. The obtained t value is 2.43 which is significant at 0.05 level. This shows that non-professional males are having more stress than non-professional female students. The results also revealed that non-professional males have more pressure and anxiety while as non-professional students both male and female are having equal physical stress and frustration. Aradhana and Rupali (2017) discloses that male non-professional students have more stress than female non-professional students. Moly kuruvilla (2008) and revealed that gender and academic stress have positive correlation and also found that boys have more stress than girls. Vamadevappa (1999) found that parental involvement and academic stress has positive correlation and stresses of girls are less than boys.

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Stress of Professional and Non-professional Post-graduate Students with reference to Gender


LEARNING STYLES OF HIGH AND LOW CREATIVE STUDENTS OF NAVODAYA VIDYALAYA SCHOOLS OF KASHMIR VALLEY

Kawsar Hafeez*  

Abstract  
The study was carried out to find out the learning styles of high and low creative students enrolled in Navodaya Vidyalaya Schools of Kashmir Valley. 400 students of these Navodaya Vidyalaya schools served as the sample for the study. Divergent Production Ability Test by K. N. Sharma, Style of Learning and Thinking test by D. Venkataraman were used to collect the data. Percentages, Mean, SD. and t value were used as data analysis techniques. The results yielded that high and low creative students differ significantly on some areas of self-concept and learning styles.  

Key Words: Learning Styles; High and Low Creativity; Navodaya Vidyalaya  

Introduction:  
The concept of creativity has been an important research area since the 1950’s and 1960’s. Educators and researchers have studied creative potential, the skills associated with it, and techniques to increase creativity in their respective fields. However, even in the field of psychology, where the most research pertaining to the topic has been produced. Researchers suggest that the study of creativity has hitherto been neglected (Zappe, S. E., Mena, I., Litzinger, T. A. 2015). Tonybee (1964) has long back reported, “....to give a fair chance to potential, creativity is a matter of life and death for any society”. Manpower specialists have also observed that countries may not be able to sustain economic growth unless all the reserves of talent in the population are actively sought out and attracted into the needed educational channels.

* Research Scholar, Department of Education, University of Kashmir
Protection of promising human resources, early identification, encouragement and opportunities for the upward mobility of human civilization has remained a research debate for field practitioners. Research has established that every society has talented minds that can be counted on finger tips and it is only through their efforts and decisions which shapes our collective life. In this context Lerner (1962) has rightly observed that educational revolution has two tasks, of which one is the confronting of the tendencies in a mass society. The second is to help a creative culture within the mass society. Besides, if it is true that in every fat man there is a thin man shrieking to get out, it is also true that in every civilization, there is a minority fibre always in the process of coming into being.” Keeping this observation in line an effort is to be needed to discover, release and recognize this minority fibre in order to voyage in the developmental arena and aspirations of any nation.

Learning style theory asserts that students become successful academically in learning environments that match their own learning style (Kolb, 1984). Attempts have been made to study learning styles in relation to creative thinking ability (Myers and Dyer, 2006; Feist & Barron, 2003; Rudd et al., 2000; Cano, 1999; Dyer, & Osborne, 1996; Garton, Spain, Lamberson, & Spiers, 1999). The results have revealed no relationship between learning styles and critical thinking or intelligence. Besides, learning styles are reported to affect student learning with logical thinking.

Need of the Study:

The present investigator while scanning the existing literature feels that host of studies have been carried out on various variables on the creative subjects. It is observed that sample either has been drawn from government schools or privately maintained organizations. An important segment of the population, who carry out their studies in residential schools, under the nomenclature of Navodaya Vidyalaya have hitherto been neglected. It may not be out of place to mention that Navodaya Vidyalaya admits students to class 6th who belong to age group 10-13 years. Education and schooling are two important sectors to be nurtured along with proper affection and adequate security. The Vidyalaya is said to increase the influence on the students for their uplift throughout the period of academic growth. Each Vidyalaya develops its own curriculum and diminishes the influence of immediate environment slowly when children attain 14 years of age. These schools strive to meet the challenge of life to their students through a combination of goal setting, group process, peer mixing, and adaptation. Student and teachers are in close interaction in these schools. This results to imbibe such a type of healthy environment among such students which ensures confidence, and transformation of healthy personality. It is in this back drop that the present investigator feels to carry out the study on these students in relation to some cognitive and non-cognitive variables. The present study is an attempt in this direction.
Statement of the Problem:

Learning Styles of High and low Creative Students of Navodaya Vidyalaya Schools of Kashmir Valley

Objectives:
The study was conducted with following objectives:
1. To find the distribution of High and Low Creative Students of Navodaya Vidyalaya schools on the Learning Styles.
2. To compare High and Low Creative Students of Navodaya Vidyalaya Schools on Learning Styles

Hypotheses:
The following hypothesis was formulated:
There shall be a significant difference between the mean scores of high and low creative students of Navodaya Vidyalaya schools on Learning Styles.

Design of the Study:
Sample:
The sample for the present investigation included 400 students enrolled in all the Navodaya Vidyalaya Schools of Kashmir Valley. These include students studying in 9th and 10th grade/s within the age range of 15-16 years.

Variables:
1) Creative Thinking Ability: Creativity is the capacity of a person to produce compositions, products or ideas which are essentially new or novel and previously unknown to the producer. However, creativity in the present investigation refers to a set of dominant scores as measured by Divergent Production Ability Test by K. N. Sharma (2011).

2) Learning Style: Learning styles in the present investigation has been considered the dominant set of scores as measured by Style of Learning and Thinking Scale by D. Venkataraman (2011).

Classification of High and Low Creative Students:
The main focus of the present investigation was to identify the high and low creative subjects. Accordingly, the administered Divergent Production Ability Test by K.N. Sharma. After proper scoring, the classification of high and low creative groups was made. For this classification, the subjects whose composite score on divergent production ability test was on and above the 3rd quartile were classified as High Creative, and subjects whose composite score was on and below the 1st quartile were classified as Low Creative. This procedure of classification has also been adopted by a number of researchers in the field (Ameen, 2015; Mattoo and Nazima, 2014; Noor, 2012; Sugra, M. 2007; Zargar and Dhar, 1987; Kumar, 1981). The cut out points for these groups on divergent production ability are shown as:
Table 1.00: Showing the Cut out Point of High and Low Creative Subjects

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Classification</th>
<th>Cut-out Point</th>
<th>Identification</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>High Creative</td>
<td>130 and Above</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low Creative</td>
<td>78 and Below</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>160</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As reported in above table, a score of 130 and above has put each subject in the category of high level of creativity and a score of 78 and below in the category of low level of creativity. This procedure has placed 80 subjects in high and an equal number of students in low creative category. Thereafter, the below mentioned tools were administered to High and low creative groups.

Tools used:

The following tools were administered to collect the data.

a) Divergent Production Ability Test by K. N. Sharma (2011), b) Style of Learning Scale (2011) by D. Venkataraman

Statistical Technique:

Mean, SD. and test of significance were applied to find out the mean differences if any between high and low creative students enrolled in various Navodaya Vidyalaya schools of Kashmir Valley on variable learning styles and self-concept. The information gathered has been processed and is reported as:

Analysis of Data:

Table 2.00: Showing the Percent-wise Comparison of High and Low Creative Navodaya Vidyalaya Students on Hemispheric Functions of Learning Styles

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Right Brain Users</th>
<th>Left Brain Users</th>
<th>Whole Brain Users</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>High Creative</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>62.5%</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>12.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low Creative</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>33.75%</td>
<td>43.75%</td>
<td>22.5%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Fig. 1: Percent-wise Comparison of High and Low Creative Navodaya Vidyalaya Students on Hemispheric Functions of Learning Styles
A perusal of Table No. 2.00 (Fig.1) gives the percent-wise details of high and low creative subjects belonging to Navodaya Vidyalayas schools on various information processing preferences associated with the brain dominance as measured by SOLAT. It is revealed that in case of high creative group, 62.5% were observed to be Right Brain Users, 25% as Left Brain Users and remaining 12.5% as Whole Brain Users. In the same table, 33.75% subjects from low creative classification were found to be Right Brain Users, 43.75% as Left Brain Users and 22.5% as Whole Brain Users. On the basis of above mentioned findings, it can be concluded that maximum number of students with high creative thinking ability were seen to be placed as Right Brain Dominated, followed by Left brain dominance and Whole brain dominance. The table also revealed that majority of the students with low creative potential are dominated by Left hemisphericity followed by Right and Whole brain dominance. The Right hemisphere is considered as an activity in which an individual uses his mind emotionally, intuitively, creatively, globally and divergently. Left side dominance of the brain also includes logical thinking, analytical skills, verbal task, class preference, content preference and mathematical concepts. It is worth to be recorded here that knowing an individual’s brain dominance can help one to understand “ways” of thinking, behaving, speaking, and functioning. Right-brain characteristics include divergent qualities, the ability to see patterns, spatial awareness, and the understanding of how things relate to one another in different contexts and contours. Individuals with this brain dominance are considered good at recognizing faces, places, and objects. The whole brain dominance is considered one’s vigorous involvement in verbal tasks, close proximity in class and learning preference. Since creative thinking ability does not ignore neither of the hemispheres as superior or inferior.

Table 3.00: Showing the Significance of Difference between the Mean Scores of High and Low Creative Navodaya Vidyalaya Students on Learning Styles

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>'t' Value</th>
<th>Result</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>High Creative</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>16.45</td>
<td>4.33</td>
<td>3.438</td>
<td>Significant at 0.01 level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low Creative</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>14.33</td>
<td>3.44</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A perusal of Table 3.00 reveals the significance of mean difference between high and low creative students belong to Navodaya Vidyalaya Schools of Kashmir Valley on learning styles. The high creative group has been found higher on learning styles (M=16.45) as compared to low creative group (M=14.33). The mean difference has been found to be significant at 0.01 level (t=3.438). The results reveal that high creative students of Navodaya Vidyalaya schools have good understanding in verbal understanding; they engage themselves in drawing of pictures, like to learn through main ideas. The results further reveal that high creative’s seem to have leaning
towards learning with exploration, have clarity in logical reasoning, seem to be competitive, like to solve complex problems. Whereas, low creative group of students were found inclined towards visual presentations, have slow acquisition of habits. The results are in line with some of the earlier studies conducted in the field (Kaur & Lal 2014; Sperry, 1998; Rubenzer, 1998; Hunter, 1996; Fitzerald & Hattie; 1993; Gazzaniga; 1990; Bogen, 1989; Raina, 1984). In the light of the results reported above the first hypotheses which reads as, “there shall be significant difference between the mean scores of high and low creative students of Novodaya Vidyalaya schools on learning styles” stands retained as it has been found that high creative’s of Navodaya Vidyalaya schools are higher in their learning styles. Kaur & Lal (2014) have revealed that high creative different on various components of learning styles as compared to low ones. Rudd et. al. (2000) could not reveal any significant difference on some of the components of learning styles of high creative’s with those of low creative ones. The results reported by Hunter (1996) and Sperry (1998) confirmed that higher the creative ability, greater is the capacity to deal with informational complexity and mode of information. The results further revealed that lower the creative ability, fixed are the modes of information. Kirton (1994) found that creative thinking ability interferes cognitive style and cognitive level of thinking. Besides, innovators have been described as undisciplined who look for alternative avenues of solution and approach tasks from unsuspected angles. Orlow and Safter (1990) established that creative behavior is not solely determined by these abilities and that the process of creating requires additional knowledge, motivation and skills. No differentiation between cognition required for problem solving and creativity has been established (Kirton, 2003; Torrance & Goff, 1989). However, researchers (Baker, Rudd and Pomeroy (2001) used the TTCT and the California Critical Thinking Disposition Inventory (Facione, Facione, & Giancarlo, 1996) to determine the relationship between critical thinking and creative thinking and no significant relationship between the two manners of thought seems to have been established.

Conclusions:

The findings of the present investigation led to the following conclusions:

- The percent wise distribution on learning styles in case of high creative group was found as: 62.5% as Right Brain; (25%) as Left Brain Users, and 12.5% as Whole Brain Users.
- Low creative group was found as: 33.75% as Right Brain Users, 43.75% as Left Brain Users and 25.5% as Whole Brain Users.
- Majority of the high creative potentials were seen as Right Brain Dominated and Majority of the low creative potentials were seen to be Left hemispheric.
- High creative’s were reported inclined towards learning with exploration, clarity in logical reasoning, competitive.
Learning Styles of High and Low Creative Students of Navodaya Vidyalaya Schools of ....

- Low creative group of students were found inclined towards visual presentations with slow acquisition of habits.
- High creative students of Navodiya Vidyalaya schools were significantly higher on learning styles than low ones.

References:


SCIENTIFIC TEMPER AND ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT OF GUJJAR AND NON-GUJJAR STUDENTS – A COMPARATIVE STUDY

Mohammad Sayid Bhat

Abstract
The study is an attempt to compare Gujar and Non-Gujar students of Kashmir valley on Scientific Temper and Academic Achievement. Four objectives were formulated for the present study with three hypotheses. 240 sample subjects (120 Gujar and 120 Non-Gujar students were selected randomly for the sample. To measure the Scientific Temper, Scientific Temper Potentiality Scale was used and for Academic Achievement previous Board examination marks of sample subjects were considered. For the analysis, mean, SD and t-test were used. The study shows a significant mean difference between Gujar and Non-Gujar students on Scientific Temper and on Academic Achievement. The study also found that there is a significant positive correlation between Scientific Temper and Academic Achievement.

Key Words: Scientific temper; Academic Achievement; Gujar Students, Non-Gujar students;

Introduction
Scientific progress. Our society is becoming increasingly dependent on science and technology. It is essential for the well being of our society that all citizens develop “science
literacy‖, an appreciation of science, the benefits of technology, and the population risks associated with advances in both.

In an endeavor to enhance the interest of students in basic sciences, the mental approach which is behind the method of acquiring dependable and practical knowledge may be called as “Scientific Temper”

It means an outlook, emphasizing that nothing in the world should be taken for granted or accepted on the basis of sightless faith without it being subjected to the test of rationale. The scientific temper stresses investigation seeks evidence without any bias or chauvinism.

The man with such a temper studies a subject with openness of mind and neutrality, because he wants to know and scrutinize a thing as it is and not as he wishes it to be. With this impersonal outlook towards a problem, the observation that an explorer makes and the conclusions he arrives at are provable by any one at any time and at any place. This is so because a law, attitude or occurrence in nature is universal and not confined to any individual or place. In other words we can illustrate scientific temper as an approach of psyche characterized by curiosity, open-mindedness, rationality, aversion to condescension, objectivity of intellectual belief and suspended judgment.

Review of Related Literature

As Narlikar opined, ‘Today we live in a free India that is feeling its way towards economic prosperity. Yet we are still a long way from achieving that scientific outlook which Nehru considered so essential for our future wellbeing’ (Narlikar, 2003). If one were to pick out three or four most important reasons for the country's backwardness or failure in many areas, the lack of scientific temper would be one of them (Bhargava and Chakrabarti, 2010). Various studies have been conducted on scientific temper and academic achievement and in some studies some groups have also been compared. Dilruba S. (2010) has compared Kashmiri students with Pukhton Students on Scientific Temper ad Academic Achievement and found that Kashmir students have better scientific temper and academic achievement. Kour S. (2015) found that there exists no significant difference between high and low achieving adolescent girl on open mindedness and aversion to superstition dimension of scientific temper. Bekmezci, M. et. al. (2015) investigated students' scientific attitude, computer anxiety, educational use of the Internet, the problematic Internet use and academic achievement (gender, parent educational level, and daily access to the Internet) are investigated based on various variables and some significant relations were found. Welch, Anita. G. (2011) found that students who participated in a robotic competition had a more positive attitude toward science and science-related areas in four of the seven categories examined: social implications of science, normality of scientists, attitude toward scientific inquiry, and adoption of scientific attitudes. Yang, Il-Ho et. al. (2017) revealed that Korean middle school students primarily held mixed or naïve
views about scientific inquiry. They suggested that explicit and reflective instruction is necessary to develop students' views about scientific inquiry. Pelch, Michael A.; McConnell & David A. (2017) emphasis of socio-scientific issues can positively influence students' attitudes about science and their perceptions on the relevance of science. These findings have potential implications for the selection of content for introductory science courses, and demonstrate the utility of designing or adapting geo-science lessons based around socio-scientific issues. Talavera, I. (2016) revealed that science education helps students directly by encouraging them to analyze and evaluate all kinds of phenomena, scientific, pseudoscientific, and other. Accordingly, the focus of this treatise is on critical thinking as it may be applied to scientific claims to introduce the major themes, processes, and methods common to all scientific disciplines so that the student may develop an understanding about the nature and practice of science and develop an appreciation for the process by which we gain scientific knowledge. Genç, M. (2015) indicated that the students' scientific literacy had increased significantly, and that their attitudes towards science were more positive. In terms of both gender and class level of the students, a significant difference emerged after the application, when compared to before the application. Demir, E. (2016) constructed A secondary-level structural model was by using PISA data. Limitations of the model, best predictor of scientific literacy skills were "socio-economic status." Students' "opinions for teacher" shows negative correlation with scientific literacy skills. Students 'attitudes for school' have low but positive correlation with scientific literacy skills. Among indicators, best predictor of scientific literacy skills is "home possessions." It is followed by "index of economic, social and cultural status" and "wealth." Lowest predictors among indicators are "attitude towards school: learning outcomes," "attitude towards school: learning activities" and "sense of belonging to school" respectively. All these variables are positively correlated with scientific literacy skills. Chen, Chun et. al. (2015) indicated that the experimental group outperformed the control group, regardless of scientific concept test, scientific concept-dependent reasoning test, and scientific inquiry test. Moreover, the classroom inquiry worksheets results demonstrated that the experimental group generated a significantly greater number of testable hypotheses, correct hypotheses, and correct evidence-based scientific explanations and a higher level of scientific reasoning than did the control group. Siribunnam S. et. al. (2014) revealed that the learning ability of students in science is improved by socio-scientific decision-making, an important activity that improves a student's scientific literacy, conceptual understanding, scientific inquiry, attitudes, and social values. The socio-scientific issues must be discussed during science classroom activities in the current state of 21st century skills. Kapucu, S. et. al. (2015), concludes that there are positive and significant relationships among Turkish high school students' scientific epistemological beliefs, self-efficacy in learning physics and their attitudes toward physics. Senler, B. (2015) revealed that there is a significant difference in students' views of scientific inquiry between the countries.
Need and Importance of Present Study

Science has several rewards, but the greatest is that it is the most interesting, difficult, pitiless, exciting and beautiful pursuit that mankind has devised so far. In fact, if one were to consider the best art produced in the last century it can be termed as “science”. Science education has an important role to play in the all-round cultural and societal development of human kind and for evolving a civilized society. The essence of scientific spirit is to think globally and act locally, since scientific knowledge is universal in nature while the fruit of science have some site specify. Scientific temper is an intrinsic quality. It has to be imbibed and not merely imparted. But in our anxiety not to invest our best brains outside the country, we seem to have resorted to imparting scientific temper in our education curriculum and not inculcating this spirit in our minds. This trend has to be reversed and the teacher and taught both have vital and responsible roles in this endeavour. Scientific temper has to be an inherent quality in our young minds and it should be cultivated in them as a matter of routine and the curriculum based attempts will not be always complete and this has to be a societal responsibility too. Great minds that our teachers are, they can contemplate this and devise methods to incorporate scientific temper in our young minds which will go a long way in the technological progress of this country. Therefore, it is justified, that for the well being and progress of the nation, the research in science education is urgently addressed to the problem of developing scientific temper in the students and this can be studied when we assess the impact of science teaching in terms of building up of scientific temper. Thus from the above discussion, the need of the present study is justified.

Every section of the society should adopt and make use of science and technology in their lives. After reviewing the related literature the researcher has found that no study has been conducted on Scientific Temper and Academic Achievement in which Tribal and Non-trial students are compared and to fill this vacuum, the researcher has chosen this research problem.

Objectives

Following objectives have been formulated for the present study:
1. To measure the Scientific Temper of Gujjar and Non-Gujjar students of Kashmir Valley.
2. To compare the Scientific Temper of Gujjar and Non-Gujjar students of Kashmir Valley.
3. To measure the Academic Achievement of Gujjar and Non-Gujjar students of Kashmir Valley.
4. To compare the Academic Achievement of Gujjar and Non-Gujjar students of Kashmir Valley.
5. To find the Correlation between Scientific Temper and Academic Achievement.

**Hypotheses**

1. There is a significant mean difference between Gujjar and Non-Gujjar students of Kashmir valley on Scientific Temper.
2. There is a significant mean difference between Gujjar and Non-Gujjar students on academic achievement.
3. There is significant Positive Correlation between Scientific Temper and Academic Achievement.

**Sample**

The sample of the present study comprised of 120 Gujjar (60 boys and 60 girls) and 120 Non-Gujjar (Kashmiri) students (60 boys and 60 girls) drawn from the government secondary school of Kashmir from District Ganderbal, District Anantnag and from District Kupwara.

**Tools**

The tools for the present study were selected in a manner to achieve optimum level of confidence by the investigator for the accomplishment of the objectives of the study. The investigator selected the following tools to collect the relevant data.

1. Scientific Temper Scale constructed and standardized by Prof. Nadeem and Wani S. R. which assesses five dimensions of Scientific Temper i.e. Curiosity, Open Mindedness, Objectivity, Rationality and Aversion to Superstitions.
2. Aggregate percentage of marks in the previous board examination of sample subjects as indicator of academic achievement.
3. Academic Achievement: In this study academic achievement is considered the marks of last board examination of the sample subjects.

**Statistical Treatment**

The data collected was subjected to the following statistical treatment: Mean, S.D and t-test.

**Analysis and Interpretation**

In order to achieve the objectives formulated for the present study, the data collected has been tabulated as under:

**Table 01: Showing Significance of mean difference between Gujjar and Non-Gujjar Students on Scientific Temper**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>Level of significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gujjar</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>26.35</td>
<td>3.22</td>
<td>10.68</td>
<td>Significant at 0.01 level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-Gujjar</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>31.52</td>
<td>4.21</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The above table shows the mean difference between Gujar and non-Gujjar students towards the Scientific Temper and results reflect that the difference is significant as our calculated t-value (10.68) is higher than the tabulated t-value at .01 level of significance. The results indicate that Non-Gujjar students exhibit significantly scientific attitude than their Gujar counterparts.

Table 02: Showing Significance of mean difference between Non-Gujjar Boys and Non-Gujjar Girls on Scientific Temper

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>Level of significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Non-Gujjar Boys</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>32.01</td>
<td>4.21</td>
<td>2.07</td>
<td>Significant at 0.05 level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-Gujjar Girls</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>31.03</td>
<td>4.32</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The above table shows the significance of mean difference between Non-Gujjar Boys and Non-Gujjar Girls towards Scientific Temper and the results reveal that the difference is significant at 0.05 level, as our calculated t-value (2.07) is higher than the tabulated t-value level of significance. This confirms that the attitude of Non-Gujjar Boys and Girls towards Scientific Temper is significantly different and the results favour Non-Gujjar boys.

Table 03: Showing Significance of mean difference between Gujar Boys and Gujar Girls on Scientific Temper

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>Level of significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gujar Boys</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>26.47</td>
<td>2.09</td>
<td>0.29</td>
<td>Not Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gujar Girls</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>26.23</td>
<td>2.98</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Scientific Temper and Academic Achievement of Gujjar and non-Gujjar Students...

The above table shows the significance of mean difference between Gujjar Boys and Gujjar Girls towards Scientific Temper and reveals that the difference is insignificant, as our calculated t-value (0.29) is less than the table t-value. This confirms that the attitude of Gujjar Boys and Gujjar Girls towards Scientific temper is similar.

Table 04: Showing Significance of mean difference between Gujjar Boys and Non-Gujjar Boys on Scientific Temper

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>Level of significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gujjar boys</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>26.47</td>
<td>2.09</td>
<td>8.73</td>
<td>Significant at 0.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-Gujjar boys</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>32.01</td>
<td>3.05</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The above table shows the significance of mean difference between Gujjar Boys and Non-Gujjar Boys towards the Scientific Temper and depicts that the difference is significant at .01 level, as our calculated t-value (8.73) is higher than the table value at .01 level of significance. This confirms that the attitude of Non-Gujjar Boys and Gujjar Boys towards science is different and the Non-Gujjar students possess better attitude than their Gujjar counterparts.

Table 05: Showing Significance of mean difference between Gujjar Girls and Non-Gujjar Girls on Scientific Temper

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>Level of significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gujjar girls</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>26.23</td>
<td>4.05</td>
<td>2.40</td>
<td>Significant at .05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-Gujjar girls</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>31.03</td>
<td>6.03</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The above table shows the significance of mean difference between Gujjar Girls and Non-Gujjar Girls towards the Scientific Temper and depicts that the difference is significant at .05 level, as our calculated t-value (2.40) is higher than the tabulated t-value at .05 level of significance. This result specifies that the Non-Gujjar girls have better Scientific Temper than their Gujjar counterparts.

Table 06: Showing Significance of mean difference between Gujjar and Non-Gujjar Students on Academic Achievement

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>Level of significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gujjar</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>57.02</td>
<td>11.06</td>
<td>4.92</td>
<td>Significant at .01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-Gujjar</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>68.04</td>
<td>9.12</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The above table shows the significance of mean difference between Gujar and Non-Gujjar Students on Academic Achievement and reveals that the difference is Significant, as our calculated t-value (4.92) is much higher than the table value at .01 level of significance. This confirms that both Gujar and Non-Gujjar students show significantly different academic achievement and the study favours Non-Gujjar students.

Table 07: Showing Significance of mean difference between Non-Gujjar Boys and Non-Gujjar Girls on Academic Achievement

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>Level of significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Boys</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>66.06</td>
<td>9.69</td>
<td>0.58</td>
<td>Not Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Girls</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>69.98</td>
<td>10.35</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The above table shows the significance of mean difference between Non-Gujjar Boys and Non-Gujjar Girls on Academic Achievement and depicts that the difference is not significant; as our calculated t-value (0.58) is less than the tabulated t-value. This confirms that both Non-Gujjar Boys and Non-Gujjar Girls show similar academic achievement.

Table 08: Showing Significance of mean difference between Gujar Boys and Gujar Girls on Academic Achievement

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>Level of significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Boys</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>54.20</td>
<td>9.82</td>
<td>1.25</td>
<td>Not Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Girls</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>59.84</td>
<td>8.22</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The above table shows the significance of mean difference between Gujar Boys and Gujar Girls on Academic Achievement and depicts that the difference is
Scientific Temper and Academic Achievement of Gujjar and non-Gujjar Students -....

insignificant, as our calculated t-value (1.25) is less than the tabulated t-value. The results confirm that the Gujjar Boys and Girls show similar Academic Achievement.

**Table 09:** Showing Significance of mean difference between Gujjar Boys and Non-Gujjar Boys on Academic Achievement

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>Level of significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gujjar Boys</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>54.04</td>
<td>9.82</td>
<td>2.14</td>
<td>Significant at .05 level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-Gujjar Boys</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>66.06</td>
<td>9.69</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The above table shows the Significance of mean difference between Gujjar Boys and Non-Gujjar Boys on Academic Achievement and reflects that the calculated t-value (2.14) is higher than the table value at .05 level of significance. The results confirm that the Non-Gujjar boys showed significantly better academic achievement.

**Table 10:** Showing Significance of mean difference between Gujjar Girls and Non-Gujjar Girls on Academic Achievement

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>Level of significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gujjar Girls</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>58.02</td>
<td>8.22</td>
<td>1.21</td>
<td>Insignificant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-Gujjar Girls</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>52.04</td>
<td>10.35</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The above table shows the significance of mean difference between Gujjar Girls and Non-Gujjar Girls on Academic Achievement and depicts that the difference is not significant, as our calculated t-value (1.21) is less than the table value. This confirms that the Gujjar Girls and Non-Gujjar Girls show similar Academic Achievement.

**Table 11:** Showing Correlation between Scientific Temper and Academic Achievement of Gujjar and Non-Gujjar Students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>r</th>
<th>Level of Significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Scientific Temper</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>28.92</td>
<td>3.72</td>
<td>0.73</td>
<td>Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academic Achievement</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>62.53</td>
<td>10.09</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The table 11 shows the correlation between Scientific Temper and Academic Achievement of Gujjar and Non-Gujjar Students. The table reveals that the mean of Scientific Temper is 28.92 and for academic achievement, it is 62.53. The SD calculated for Scientific Temper was recorded as 3.72 and for academic achievement, it was recorded as 10.09. The correlation calculated through SPSS was 0.73 which remained significant at 0.01 level. Thus, there is a significant correlation between Scientific Temper and Academic Achievement.
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Scientific Temper and Academic Achievement of Gujjar and non-Gujjar Students....


CLASSROOM CLIMATE: A FACILITATOR OF STUDENT LEARNING

Sameena Basu

Abstract

The main focus of this paper was to examine the relationship between classroom climate and academic achievement at higher secondary level of education. 120 Government schools served as the sample for the present study. Classroom Climate Scale (CCS) was administered to collect the data from sample schools. The collected data were analyzed by using percentage statistics, correlation coefficient and ANOVA. The findings indicate statistically significant correlation between the classroom climate and student learning at higher secondary level of education.

Introduction

The classroom is a critical locus for student development and has long been recognized as a critical ambiance for students' educational attainment. Classroom is a unique face to face group marked by interpersonal relationships among its members. These interpersonal relationships fundamentally include the relationships and interactions between teachers and students, peer relationships, and the perceptions, approaches and behaviours of students and teachers within the classroom. This group, initially formed for academic purpose, starts taking shape as personal-social connections and determines the overall climate of the classroom that appears to be fairly constant; once established. It is likely that the degree and nature of the processes and relations differ from classroom to classroom and within a single school.

Classroom climate is seen as a major determiner of classroom behaviour and learning. Understanding how to create and maintain a positive classroom climate is...

* Assistant Professor, Department of Education and Trainings, MANUU, Hyderabad
seen as basic to improving schools. Altering the classroom climate to make it more congruent with that favoured by students is likely to enhance student outcomes. A positive classroom climate is crucial for the development of competent, responsible and capable students.

Educational research of the last three decades has shown that classroom climate is a useful construct in predicting achievement. A meta-analysis by Haertel, et al (1981) using classroom environment studies, revealed students’ perceptions of classroom environment as a critical factor in determining certain aspects of student outcomes such as motivation, achievement and student satisfaction. Fraser & Fisher (1982) found that there is some evidence that positive perception of the classroom environment is associated with better academic performance. White (1986) reported a positive and significant relationship between classroom climate and student achievement and also suggested that higher the student satisfaction within the classroom environment, the higher the achievement would be. Fraser (1991) suggested that one inference is that student learning outcomes might be improved by creating classroom environments found empirically to be conducive to learning. Lonnie (1996) found that classroom climate does impact achievement. Ramana (1997) found that where the classroom learning environment was high, the performance of the students was also high. Lamb & Fullarton (2002) reported that there were strong classroom effects and modest school influence on mathematics achievement and these were linked to particular classroom and school level. LaRocque (2008) found that the perceptions of the general classroom environment were significantly related to achievement, although this was not the case for the individual dimensions of the classroom environment. Ekpo et al (2009) concluded that classroom climate contribute to the variance in students’ academic achievement in social studies.

In the literature reviewed so far, it has been found that student’ perceptions of their classroom climate are closely related to the learning outcomes. Although studies related to classroom climate have multiplied in recent decades, however, survey of Indian research revealed that relatively few studies have been carried out on classroom climate in relation to student outcome at the higher secondary level. In view of this, the investigator took up the present study with the following objectives:

**Objectives of the Study**

The objectives formulated for the present investigation were:

- To describe the sample schools with regard to their classroom climate at higher secondary level.
- To study the relationship between classroom climate and academic achievement at higher secondary level.
- To study the effect of classroom climate on academic achievement at higher secondary level.
Hypotheses

The hypotheses formulated for the present investigation were:

- Classroom climate is significantly related with academic achievement at higher secondary level.
- Classrooms with excellent climate differ significantly from classrooms with average and poor climate in terms of their influence on academic achievement at higher secondary level.

Methodology

The present study has been completed through the descriptive method of research.

Sample

For the present study, ten districts of Kashmir Province were involved in the collection of data. From the total population of 284 Government schools providing higher secondary educational facilities, 120 schools (12 from each district) served as the sample for the present study. The schools were identified by using disproportionate stratified random sampling technique. From each school, 12th standard students were selected for the present study. Intact classes, not random individuals, served as the primary sampling unit. The results of class 12th annual examination were collected from the respective schools, aggregated and computed in percentage form and were taken as a measure of academic achievement.

Instrument Employed

In order to study the classroom climate, Classroom Climate Scale (CCS) was administered on the sample students. The scale comprises of the three dimensions namely Relationship dimension, Personal Development dimension and System Maintenance dimension. The scale consists of 90 items. The scoring is done in such a manner that higher the score better is the climate. The theoretical range of scores is from 0 to 360.

Data Analysis

The obtained data were analyzed with the help of various statistical techniques such as percentage statistics, correlation coefficient and ANOVA. Data were analyzed through SPSS Version 16.0.

Analysis and Discussion

A. Descriptive Analysis

Description of the sample schools on Classroom Climate Scale wherein multiple student observations in one classroom were aggregated and taken as a measure of classroom environment of a particular school is given as under:
An observation of above table reveals that out of total number of 120 schools, a considerable majority of schools (31.66 percent) fall in the two positive categories (i.e., extremely positive and highly positive). This implies that these schools were characterized by significant student involvement, affiliation and teacher support. Students valued their classmates, and were concerned about each other. It has also been found that a predominant majority of the schools (45 percent) fall in the average category indicating that in these schools a moderate level of social cohesion existed between students and teachers and among students in the class. The analysis further revealed that 23.33 percent of schools fall in two negative categories (i.e., highly negative and extremely negative) thereby indicating that these schools were characterized by little interaction among different members of the classroom. There was lack of clarity in the classroom goals.

B: Correlational Analysis

In order to discover any correlation between classroom climate and academic achievement, Karl Pearson’s Product Moment Correlation (r) was employed. The results were analysed at the school level in order to minimise the impact of individual bias. The results of relationship between classroom climate and academic achievement are presented in the following table

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Classroom Climate</th>
<th>Value of ‘r’</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Relationship</td>
<td>0.63**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal Development</td>
<td>0.59**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>System Maintenance</td>
<td>0.68**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall Classroom Climate Score</td>
<td>0.64**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Dependent Variable: Achievement.
** Significant at 0.01 Level
From the above table it is clear that there is a positive and high correlation between *Relationship* dimension and academic achievement having coefficient of correlation as 0.63 (p<0.01). It indicates that when students enjoyed good interpersonal relations among themselves and had better interactions with the teachers it facilitated their learning. The above table further reveals that *Personal Development* dimensions is having positive and high correlation with academic achievement, having coefficient of correlation as 0.59 (p<0.01). Results also indicate that when students took interest in classroom activities, demonstrated healthy competition in a supportive and friendly environment, and when they were engaged in productive learning that encouraged their independent thinking, it positively influenced their learning. The table further reveals that *System Maintenance* dimensions is having positive and high correlation with academic achievement, having coefficient of correlation as 0.68 (p<0.01). It indicates that when rules were more explicitly stated and clearly understood by the students and discipline and civilized behaviour were maintained, it positively enhanced the student achievement. The *Overall* classroom climate score is also having a positive and high correlation with academic achievement having coefficient of correlation as 0.64 (p<0.01). The results imply that positive the classroom climate better the academic achievement.

**C: Analysis of Variance**

To find out the effect of classroom climate on academic achievement of students, the sample schools were categorised, on the basis of overall classroom climate score, into three subgroups i.e. schools with excellent, average and poor classroom climate. Further, the corresponding academic achievement scores were taken for analysis of variance (ANOVA). Mean and S.D. of academic achievement scores across three categories of classroom climate were computed, the results of which are presented in the table given below:

**Table 3 (a): Mean and S.D. of academic achievement scores across three categories of classroom climate**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S. D.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Excellent Classroom Climate</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>64.84</td>
<td>4.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average Classroom Climate</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>59.86</td>
<td>4.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor Classroom Climate</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>50.95</td>
<td>5.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>59.02</td>
<td>6.19</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Dependent Variable: Achievement

Table gives an account of mean and S.D. of academic achievement for three categories of schools i.e. schools with excellent, average and poor classroom climate. It is evident from the table that schools having excellent classroom climate reported higher mean score for achievement (M=64.84) while as schools having average and
poor classroom climate reported average (M=59.86) and low (M=50.95) mean score for achievement respectively.

In order to study whether the difference in mean scores are attributed to real cause or have occurred due to chance factors, ANOVA was employed.

Table 3 (b) Summary of analysis of variance of classroom climate and academic achievement.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of Variation</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>Degree of Freedom</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>2131.02</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1065.51</td>
<td>20.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>2432.95</td>
<td>117</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>4563.97</td>
<td>119</td>
<td>20.79</td>
<td>51.24**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Significant at 0.01 Level

The results in the above table reveal that there is a significant difference in academic achievement among three classroom climate categories as the obtained F-value is 51.24 which is significant at 0.01 level of significance. This indicates that students performed academically better in those schools where they felt accepted by their peers; were ready to learn collectively and were more encouraged and helped to further their development. On the other hand achievement level decreased in those schools where there was lack of knowing each others feelings in the classroom and students felt communication apprehensions as they were never allowed to discuss their ideas in the class.

In the light of the above results, hypothesis number two which reads as “classrooms with excellent climate differ significantly from classrooms with average and poor climate in terms of their influence on academic achievement at higher secondary level” stands accepted.

Conclusion

Focus on educational outcomes has increased in the past decade with nationwide accountability programmes. Demonstrated to enhance the learning process and academic outcomes, classroom climate has been emerging as an important component of education. The findings of the present investigation revealed that there exists a significant and positive correlation between classroom climate and academic achievement. It was also observed that classrooms with excellent climate differed significantly from classrooms with average and poor climate in terms of their influence on academic achievement.

Findings from this exploratory analysis suggest ways in which specific dimensions of classroom interact with the characteristics of individual students and their achievement. The feedback derived from the study could play an important role...
in reform and could lead to identification of strategies that schools could take in designing effective interventions to produce academic performance of students.

**Bibliography**


White, D. (1986). Relationship between School Climate and Classroom Climate, between School Climate and Student Achievement and between Classroom Climate and Student Achievement, Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, University of South Florida, Thampa FL.
CONTRIBUTION OF ICT ORIENTATION IN PREDICTING PERCEIVED JOB PERFORMANCE OF TEACHING PROFESSIONALS

Shabir Ahmad Bhat*  
Bilal Ahmad Naikoo**

Abstract

Present study was designed to analyze the job performance of university teachers and attempts to identify to what extent various factors of information communication technology orientation predict the perceived performance of university teachers. Thus, present paper puts forward the hypothesis that the variable information communication technology orientation and demographic variables (Age, Gender, Locale, Stream, Qualification, Experience and Type of University) plays a part in perceived job performance. Present study is of descriptive nature, dealing with a sample of 138 university teachers of Punjab state (both public and private), selected by employing convenient sampling technique. The collected data was rigorously analyzed by applying multiple regression analysis. It was found that information and communication technology orientation (ICTOR) have significant relationship with perceived job performance (r=.540). ICTOR is significant predictor of job performance with the magnitude .29% of variance. Further it is also found that out of seven demographic variables three demographic variables Qualification, Locale and Experiences of teaching professionals significantly predicts overall job performance, whereas Age, Gender, Stream and Type of University doesn’t affects the perceived job performance.

Key Words: ICT Orientation, Job Performance, University Teachers.

* Research Scholar, Department of Education Lovely Professional University, Punjab  
** Assistant Professor, State Higher Education Department, J&K.
Introduction

Since its evolution the potential of ICT in enhancing the productivity and knowledge of organizations across the globe has been precisely documented in world-wide literature. Present global society demands effective and productive usage of ICT at academic and industry level in-order to achieve success in every sphere of life (Iqbal & Ahmad, 2010). According to Palvalin et al., (2013), labor-intensified tasks (personal work time used to carry out knowledge-related tasks like think, read, communicate and so on.) of knowledge workers is one of the fundamental challenge of present knowledge society. Due to limited routine time for work, time allocation between value-adding versus non-adding is crucial from performance perspective.

There arises a need to reduce time spent in unnecessary activities to enhance productivity related activities. Various authors asserted that, ICT acts as a potential source to tacit and explicit knowledge, it is a fundamental element of educational process as it enhances various components of teaching profession, which are directly related with improvement of knowledge and productivity of teachers (UNESCO, 2009; Bhat & Beri, 2016a). ICT acts as a basic tenant of present educational system, it has not only enhanced the accessibility to knowledge resources, but also acted as delivery tool for knowledge dissemination, a source for active learning and helps to justify the external demands and expectations (Khan, 2015). As far as educational system is concerned, ICT is not just limited basic web automations but acts as a best resources to gain sustainable competitive advantage (Bhat & Beri, 2016a). Sarkar, & Sundarakrishnan, (2008) publicized that advent of ICT revolutionized the classroom teaching learning process. Use of various technology resources like multimedia tools, internet, introduced innovative knowledge quest among stake holders and provided a cutting edge advantage over the traditional methods of teaching. Over the years increased usage and skills to use ICT has gained significant prominence in day to day life, by providing limitless opportunities like employment opportunities, social networking, accessibility, communication, teaching learning and so on. (Dhir et al., 2016 & Akbulut, 2009). ICT provides creative and innovative opportunities and enhances the effective communication in classroom, it equips individual with latest and interesting methodologies for imparting education effectively. Due to vast applications like access to global knowledge resources in the form of online databases, digital libraries, online lectures, virtual classes and so on. ICT not just revolutionized the classroom practices but other elements like research, training, curriculum, administration of whole educational system across the globe.

Theoretical background

ICT orientation is defined as “Basic tendency to apply knowledge, understanding and application of ICT in teaching and learning activities to support educational process” (Bhat & Beri, 2016b. p.3124). ICT is a varied collection of technological gears in the form of communication equipment’s, tools and applications,
which helps in precise retrieving, using, storing, transmitting, disseminating and manipulating the information to enhance knowledge and improve the communication, decision-making and problem-solving ability of its users. In contemporary society where knowledge is considered as an asset for a nation and an important perspective of one’s economy, power and strength modern man is in need of enhanced and updated knowledge, so that he can survive in the present competitive world and can achieve full access and mastery over the process of gaining knowledge. It is only possible with the proper assistance of ICT. If we observe our surroundings modern gadgets have occupied a special place in our life by facilitating a number of regular tasks right from paying bills to purchasing vegetables. ICT has been defined in terms of benefits and application by different researchers like Sarkar (2012) defined ICT as a collection of varied technological gears used in communication, generation, dissemination, collection and administration of information. Pathak & Chaudhary (2012) asserted, ICT refers to the creation, gathering, processing, storage, presentation and determination of information. Authors like, Judi, Sahari, Zin & Yusof (2013) defined it as a wide collection of devices and applications that serve to ease and enhance efficiency in daily activities.

ICT in educational fields refers to systems that enable gathering, manipulation, management, access and communication of information in different forms (Yunus, Nordin, Salehi, Embi & Salehi, 2013). Likewise, Ministry of Education (2006) asserted ICT as a tool to revolutionize learning, to enrich the curriculum, to develop pedagogy, as well as to improve students' learning. Traditionally ICT was used in scientific sector only, with the passage of time its application were implemented in the field of the industry also. Later on, its use and applications do not remain confined to any specific field but encompassed diverse fields of various professions and operations such as education, management, banking, healthcare, economic, security, judiciary and so on. As a result of the technological invasion, ICT is used in every aspect of education thereby harnessing its power as an effective medium for transmission of different forms of education (formal, informal and non-formal) (Mangal & Mangal, 2009).

Self-rated job performance is known as "perceived job performance". It is the measurement of the outward and public manifestation of an individual's underlying and internal structures of job competence (Graf, 1992; p.7). It is summarized from the reviews of perception and evaluation of staff on their own actions or relevant behaviors and characteristics that influence organizational objectives and responds to organization's tasks (Saetang, Sulumnad, Thampitak & Sungkaew, 2010; p.35). Moreover, these behaviors are also in agreement with the organizational goals. Definition of performance is very flexible as everyone places the concept that suits best and letting the context take care of the definition. Job performance commonly deals with the workplace. It commonly refers to whether an employee performs his/her job well. Job performance is the quality of productivity over a specific period of time. This productivity of the human resources has been often conceptualized in various contexts.

Job performance is one of the vital elements in organizational behavior research, it is considered as a primary indicator for the effective organizations\cite{YusoffAliKhan2014, p.35}. Smithikrai\cite{Smithikrai2007} revealed that employee's job performance is an important factor of an organization that pushes it forward to be an excellent one. From past two decades, the term job performance has become the key component of the human resource management, Organizational and Industrial psychology. Performance at work is a critical issue of the present competitive world and how to improve performance and how to retain best performers is one of the biggest challenges for human resource management in every organization\cite{LinChenWang2011}. Job performance is generally referred as an important outcome which facilitates an organization in predicting and rewarding the behavior of its members\cite{ChenYuanChengSeifert2016}. It is of high applicability for both stakeholders and organization of educational society, it is a fundamental component of the educational industry, behavioral research, reform and effective environment\cite{BhatBeri2016}. Colquitt\textit{et al.,}\cite{Colquittetal2009} asserted that success and failure of any organization depend on the job performance of its employees, as it is considered an important component of organizational behavior research and also acts as an indicator for effective organizations. In present era quality and products of educational society is categorically predisposed by job performance of teachers. The ineffective performance of a teacher will dis-balance the whole educational society. Therefore, for the development of a robust educational system, it is obligatory that teachers' must possess dynamic job performance.

\textbf{ICT orientation and job performance}

There are few studies which have explored the relationship between ICT orientation and job performance\cite{Ahmad2012, Cayiretal2016, Venkateshetal2010, VijFarooq2016}. Due to technological innovations, organizations of the present society need resurgence to compete with the growing competition among various organizations. Most of the survival challenges faced by the present organizations are due to the introduction of ICT which are designed to enhance the individual performance\cite{BayoMorionesetal2015}. Arvanitis\textit{et al.,}\cite{Arvanitisetal2013} publicized that, ICT has been globally recognized as a great potential not only improving efficiency, but also to facilitate and drive innovations in organizational services. Its
implementation in organizations have a positive impact on both process and product/services innovation performance as compared to traditional innovation determinants. Likewise, Vij & Farooq, (2016) asserted that, IT orientation positively affects business performance. According to Seo, et al., (2012) advent of ICT enormously affected the economy and business society globally. In addition to its effect on relationship between human capital and product differentiation, ICT contributes to profitability and productivity of the organizations.

Global society is engaged in exploring the role played by ICT to develop a robust educational system and enhance the knowledge-based economy, as far as higher education is concerned there is a dearth of research linking the role played by ICT orientation to enhance the output of human resources. In present era quality and products of educational society is categorically predisposed by job performance of teachers which is not solely determined by individual actions but also due to certain external factors and performance capacity, it can be studied through different human perspectives like individual, situational and performance regulation (Ivancevich, Konoposke & Matteson, 2005). The aim of the present study is to study the role of ICT in determining the job performance.

**Research Question**

Does ICT orientation really affect perceived job performance?

**Method**

**Participants**

The targeted population of present study is comprised of teaching professionals working at university level. A total of 138 university teachers working in different type of universities (69 public and 69 private) from Punjab India participated in the study. Two hundred questionnaires were distributed among university teachers and only 142 responses were returned back. Out of 142 responses 4 questionnaires were discarded due to missing data, the response rate was about 65%. Out of total respondents about 58% were female and 42% were male teachers. With regards to the age 61% of employees belong to 20-40 age group and rest i.e. 39% of employees were above age of 41 years. Higher percentage of employees belongs to urban areas i.e. 57% and 43% of employees were from rural areas. With regards to qualification 66% were doctorates and 34% were non doctorates. Teachers having an experience of more than 15 years represented about 27% and 73% of employees have less than 15 years of experience.

**Measures**

ICT Orientation: ICT orientation was measured with the scale by Bhat & Beri (2016. b), that consists 28 items tapping basic knowledge and attitude towards ICT. Participants were asked to express their agreement with the statements on a Likert
scale (from 5=strongly agree and 1=strongly disagree for positively worded items and vice versa). Higher scores indicate higher levels of ICT orientation.

Perceived Job Performance: PJP was measured by 43 item (Bhat & Beri, 2016 c). This measures how individuals view themselves in terms of set of various job features using a scale from 5 (Always) to 1 (Never) for positively worded statements and reverse for negative ones. These job features were: Task, Contextual and Adaptive performance. Higher scores indicate high levels of perceived job performance.

Results

Multiple regression was performed to study the affect of ICTOR (ICT orientation), type of university, stream, locale, gender, qualification, experience and age on perceived job performance. Table 1 shows that all the eight independent variables entered the regression equation and together explained $R^2 = 52.1$ percent of the variance in perceived job performance. Results presented in Table 1 also reveal that multiple correlation coefficient between independent variables and dependent variable was brought to be 0.721.

Table 1: Summary of regression analysis between independent variables (predictor) and the dependent (criterion) variable.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model Summary</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Model</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Predictors: (Constant), ICTOR, Type of University, Stream, Locale, Gender, Qualification, Experience, Age.

Results presents in Table 2 revealed the calculated F-value (17.505*) is found statistically significant at 0.01 level of significance indicating the overall model of regression is a good fit for present data. The perusal of Table 2 also revealed independent variables significantly predicts the dependent variable F (8, 137) = 17.505, p< 0.0. Therefore the proposed regression model is a good fit for the data. Hence regression analysis is allowed and feasible.

Table 2: ANOVA summary for regression.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ANOVA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Model</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$^*$Significant at 0.01 level of significance.

b. Predictors: (Constant), ICTOR, Type of University, Stream, Locale, Gender, Qualification, Experience, Age.
Contribution of ICT Orientation in Predicting Perceived Job Performance of Teaching …

The perusal of Table 3 reveals values of B and t for ICT orientation (B = .896 and t = 8.620) is found significant at 0.01 level of significance. Similarly, the values of B and t for locale (B = 6.676 and t = 2.480) which is found significant at 0.05 level of significance. Likewise in case of qualification B and t value (B= 9.886 and t = 3.095) are found significant at 0.01 level of confidence. The Table 3 further revealed B and t values for type of university has been found B = 7.530 and t = 2.371 which are significant at 0.05 level of significance depicting ICTOR, Locale, Qualification and Type of university are significant predictors of Perceived job performance. While, Age, Gender, Experience and Stream of university teachers are not significant predictors of Perceived Job Performance. The overall regression equation formulated from all variables is given below. Perceived job performance = 88.830 + 0.896 X ICT orientation -1.060 X Age + 2.325 X Gender + 6.676 X Locale + 9.886 X Qualification + 2.316 X Experience + 2.918 X Stream + 7.530 X Type of University.

Table 3: Coefficient summary for regression analysis.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Unstandardized Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardized Coefficients</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>95.0% Confidence Interval for B</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>Std. Error</td>
<td>Beta</td>
<td></td>
<td>Lower Bound</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>88.830</td>
<td>14.215</td>
<td>.6249</td>
<td>.000*</td>
<td>60.704</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ICTOR</td>
<td>.896</td>
<td>.104</td>
<td>.538</td>
<td>8.620</td>
<td>.000**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>-1.060</td>
<td>2.651</td>
<td>-.046</td>
<td>-.400</td>
<td>-6.305</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>2.325</td>
<td>2.528</td>
<td>.058</td>
<td>.919</td>
<td>2.678</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Locale</td>
<td>6.676</td>
<td>2.692</td>
<td>.156</td>
<td>2.480</td>
<td>1.349</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Qualification</td>
<td>9.886</td>
<td>3.194</td>
<td>.244</td>
<td>3.095</td>
<td>16.206</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experience</td>
<td>2.316</td>
<td>1.624</td>
<td>.149</td>
<td>1.426</td>
<td>-898</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stream</td>
<td>2.918</td>
<td>1.530</td>
<td>.119</td>
<td>1.908</td>
<td>-109</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type of University</td>
<td>7.530</td>
<td>3.176</td>
<td>.188</td>
<td>2.371</td>
<td>13.814</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*/** Significant at 0.5 and 0.01 level of significance.

Discussion & Conclusion

Present study clearly shows that ICT orientation is a significant predictor of perceived job performance and some demographics like locale, qualification and type of university also contribute to perceived job performance. It demonstrates ICT orientation enhances job performance by improving proficiency of delivering lectures, efficiency, job knowledge and interpersonal communication. Further, it helps employees to keep up-to-date job knowledge, handle work load, provides access to various knowledge resources in the form of online libraries and databases. Besides, orientation towards ICT develops various work components like classroom management, teaching skills, job assignments which directly enhance the task performance of employees. This is in consonance with previous findings which
reported online direct and indirect communication significantly effects the workplace communication and enhances the performance of employees (Zhang & Venkatesh 2013). Similarly, Shaikh & Khoja (2011) asserted ICT helps to improve the knowledge-based economy by enhancing different fundamental elements of educational system like staff training, ICT policy, curriculum, pedagogy etc. They further asserted integration and implementation of ICT in teaching-learning develops a robust education system which may improve the performance of human resources. Similarly, Polo Peña et al., (2011) and Polo Peña et al., (2013) reported ICT is an essential element which plays a crucial role in determining employee job performance.

Implications

Like other studies present study also highlights some implications. Firstly, it provides some empirical evidence to support in explanation of contribution of ICT orientation and some demographic variables in predicting perceived job performance. Secondly, it adds a social psychological framework to the literature on perceived performance, providing insights to available literature. Thirdly, human resource policies and practical interventions should be adopted to encourage the ICT usage among teachers to enhance work performance and simultaneously to increase organizational performance. Fourthly, present study has implications for development of management system administrators should restructure the curriculum by focusing on technology-based pedagogies.

References


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Contribution of ICT Orientation in Predicting Perceived Job Performance of Teaching Staff


TEACHER AS THE MOULDER OF STUDENT’S PERSONALITY: A SCRUTINY OF RELATED REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Amina Parveen∗

Abstract
Education is the activity that aids new generation to obtain the necessary information, ability, attitude and understanding and develop their character while preparing them for communal life. Teaching, on the other hand, is the process in which the individual develops talents (obtained during the education phase) in proportion to their capacity. The most important factor in education and teaching activities is the teacher. A teacher has a huge responsibility. The success of the each student is said to be success of a teacher. Therefore, a teacher must ensure that personality of each student is developing. Every experience a child goes through, be it in classroom lessons, the various relationships, the disciplinary measures and co-curricular activities, will each have an impact on the development of a child’s character, values and disposition While examining the review of literature it was found that teacher plays a critical role in the behavioural, emotional, cognitive and physical development of child.

Key Words: Teacher, Child, moulder, Student’s Personality, Scrutiny

Introduction
Personality is formed in the first instance within the womb of family relationship. It is from these early experiences that child acquires his attitudes, values, and pattern of social behaviour. The pattern of personality development in the young child is established primarily with the frame work of his relationship with the parents. After

∗ Senior Assistant Professor, Department of Education, University of Kashmir
the family, school becomes the first basic institute of socialization for the child. Thus apart from the parents, it’s the teacher who is effectively in the front seat in regards to child’s personality development and both academic and social performance. In the modern day education the responsibility of being effective in not just the child’s intellectual development but also character development lies solely on the shoulders of the teacher. The fulfilment of this responsibility is only possible through the teacher. As the teacher being able to develop healthy personality values themselves as well as providing efficiency in their relationships with students so as to allow them to develop their personality freely (Can, 2011; Inelmen, 2011). Dr. Sarvepalli Radhakrishnan, one of the greatest teachers once said, “Until and unless we have dedicated and committed teachers who can take teaching as a mission in their lives, we can’t have a good educational system. Teachers should be the best minds of the country. A teacher has a huge responsibility. The success of the each student is said to be success of a teacher. Therefore, a teacher must ensure that personality of each student is developing.

Social and Emotional Development

Social and emotional development has been defined as the process through which children acquire the knowledge, attitudes and skills to recognize and manage their emotions, set and achieve positive goals, demonstrate care and concern for others, establish and maintain positive relationships, make responsible decisions and handle interpersonal situations effectively (Payton et al., 2008). A research conducted by Ulug mucella et.al. (2011) on “The effects of teachers’ attitudes on students’ personality and performance teachers” showed that positive attitudes have positive effects on students’ performance and personality developments, negative attitudes have a negative effect on both the performance levels and personality development of students. The participants in this research identified teachers’ positive attitude as compassionate, understanding, helpful, seeing the student as an individual, being friendly and interested, communicating, being genuine and tolerant, supporting, motivating and encouraging participation in social events and teachers’ negative attitude is listed as discrediting, vengeful, too disciplined, uninterested, favouritism, being angry, not caring, being intolerant, not understanding and being inconsistent. When considering the effect of the teacher’s positive attitude on performance of the student, positive attitude by the teacher can improve student success. Research conducted by several others have established that a positive teacher–student relationship is a developmental asset for children from preschool to high school (Birch & Ladd, 1997; Crosnoe, Johnson & Elder, 2004; Howes, Hamilton, & Matheson, 1994; Ryan, Stiller, & Lynch, 1994; Wentzel, 1998). It has been seen that students whose relationships with teachers are characterized by greater closeness and less conflict exhibit lower levels of aggression and other conduct problems (Birch & Ladd, 1998; Hughes, Cavell, & Jackson, 1999; Ladd, Birch & Buhs, 1999; Pianta, Steinberg, & Rollins, 1995; Silver, Measelle, Armstrong, & Essex, 2005) are better accepted by classmates (Hughes, Cavell, & Willson, 2001; Ladd et al., 1999), and achieve at higher
levels (Birch & Ladd, 1997; Skinner & Belmont, 1993). Importantly, the quality of teacher–student relationships in the early grades has implications for children’s future academic, social, and behavioural outcomes (Hughes et al., 2001; Ladd et al., 1999; Ladd & Burgess, 2001; Pianta et al., 1995; Pianta & Stuhlman, 2004). The researchers have presented a number of models that have somewhat different ways of framing positive student-teacher relationships and the role students and teachers play in forming these. From an attachment perspective, warm, supportive, caring relationships characterized by open communication, trust, involvement, and responsiveness are necessary to help children in developing behavioural, social, cognitive, and emotional skills (Baker, J. A., & Bridger, R. 1997; Murray, C., & Greenberg, M. T. (2000).

Teachers also provide children with alternative models of adult authority (Read, Gardner & Mahler, 1988) and can, like parents, shape a child’s ability to regulate his or her emotions and to interpret other’s emotional ‘signals’ (Denham, 1998; Kusche, 2002). Also emotional support from teachers is important to children’s emotional well being in middle school (Eccles & Roeser, 1998). It has also been found that more the teachers converse with children in their care, the more considerate and sociable those children are (Phillips, McCartney, & Scarr, 1987). If teachers are more responsive when they engage with children, children are more cooperative (Clarke-Stewart, Vandell, Burchinal, O’Brien, & McCartney, 2002). When teachers respond to children using positive language, this has a beneficial effect on children’s social and emotional development (NICHD ECCRN, 2006).

Ahmad Anis (2017) in his research paper titled as “the role of teacher in students personality development” discussed that there are various psychological roles that are expected from a teacher in his life, for example, role of a representative of society, helper in the learning process, parent substitute, a referee etc. In each situation role is a mixture of four considerations, the images projected by the children, the expectations of the profession, the personal intent of the teacher and demands of the larger community. It is often seen that maximum development of students’ potentialities is the aim of any educational system.

**Intellectual Development**

Intellectual development is how individuals organise their minds, ideas and thoughts to make sense of the world they live in. Important areas of intellectual development are language and cognitive development. Language helps to organise thoughts and make sense of the world and cognitive development is about how we use our minds and organize thinking to understand the world. Teacher plays a pivotal role in the intellectual development of children. A teacher, in the most general terms, is a person working in educational institutes who enables students to reach cognitive, sensory and behavioural aim and gains within the range determined by the educational system (Gundogdu, Silman, 2007). Teaching is expected to be creative for
such development of the child. Teacher helps in developing an understanding of the specific skills and knowledge children need to develop. Once the children’s play begins facilitating social interactions as well as assisting children in joining play is a role the teacher will fill. The teacher can also narrate children’s actions as the play scenario unfolds. By being present during play, teacher interactions increase the frequency, duration and complexity of children’s play, with increased levels of linguistic and cognitive competence (McAfee & Leong, 2010). Schooling has direct effects on children’s educational achievement, their acquisition of literacy, numeracy and scientific knowledge. These basic skills provide the foundation for later "subjects" such as geography, physics and foreign languages. Formal educational qualifications are the key to a child’s entry into higher education or training and also employment. The learning of specific knowledge and skills is a direct effect of classroom teaching (Good & Brophy, 1986b). Teachers facilitate children’s explorations of their environment whilst playing a significant role in developing their verbal ability to reflect on their own beliefs (Yarlott, 1972). Most critical research findings have shown that Children’s language was more advanced depending on the quantity and quality of the teacher talk they heard (Belsky, et al., 2007; NICHD Early Child Care Research Network [ECCRN], 2000). Also Children’s cognitive and social development was more advanced when teachers increased the amount of high quality language (NICHD ECCRN, 2000, 2006). High quality language means that teachers ask many thought provoking questions, respond to children’s vocalizations and words, and talk frequently to children using a positive tone of voice.

Bissoli Freitas (2014) in his research on “Development of children’s personality: the role of early childhood education” revealed that teachers act, primarily, on the development zone close to the child, and thus their work impels the development of intellectual, affective, practical and artistic capacities of child personality.

**Physical Development**

Teacher plays a crucial role in physical development of students at elementary and secondary level. At elementary level teacher performs this task of physical development by incorporating movement into lessons that is asking students to read aloud while students walk at a moderate pace around the room. Movement Breaks are ideal when teachers notice kids are becoming restless and they can lead to improved focus and performance by students. Movement breaks can be short (doing ten jumping jacks behind desks) to long (a full recess period). Teachers can work with school administrators to incorporate fitness drills throughout the school day (Donna ricketts, Praxis Physical Education: Practice and Study Guide).

It has been found that Student attitude is influenced by many things, most notably the teacher and the curriculum. Teachers’ interactions with students and instructional decision making influence students’ attitudes toward Physical education (Bernstein et.al 2011; Silverman et.al 1999). Research studies has found that students
are likely to complete appropriate practice in the given time, if the teacher will be lucid in presenting the practice task, this will in turn enhance motor skill learning (Silverman et al. 1988; Silverman et al. 1995; Gusthart et al. 1997).

**Conclusion**

The role of teachers in shaping and moulding the personality of students is formidable. Down through human history, teachers have been assigned the responsibility to transmit the knowledge that has been accumulated over the ages, and to guide the students to assimilate the knowledge, and actualize it into their life experiences. The responsibility placed on the teachers is a challenging one. Thus on scrutinizing some of the research studies we found that teacher on the one hand is the facilitator of good learning and on the other hand is responsible for emotional, social, cognitive and physical development or in other words we can call teacher as the builder of sound personality of child.

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Teacher as the Moulder of Student’s Personality: A Scrutiny of Related Review of Literature


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IMMANUEL KANT – A PROFOUND VISIONARY
EDUCATIONAL THINKER

Najmah Peerzada

Abstract
The purpose of conducting the present study was to analyze the role and contribution of a model world citizen - Immanuel Kant to educational thought and practice of education. The main objective of the study was to examine his concept of philosophy of education. He approached philosophy from an epistemological stand point; hence, he was primarily concerned with the problems of knowledge. He made it clear that the objects do not exist by themselves, but are determined by our cognition. He showed that science and metaphysics depend upon the validity of synthetic a priori judgments. Both historical as well as philosophical methods have been used and both primary as well as secondary sources have been employed for the collection of data. The study revealed that the philosophers and educators should combine and develop the ideals of a new school system based upon moral laws and the dignity of the individual. In his educational thought, Kant stressed especially the importance of discipline. His contribution is transcendental rather than psychological. He believed that the main tasks for education are (a) disciplined thinking (b) creation of cultivated outlook; (c) imparting moral attitude. His contribution to metaphysics, epistemology, ethics and aesthetics has had a profound impact on almost every aspect of education.

Key Words: Philosophy, Aims, Curriculum, Teaching methods, Role of Teacher.

Introduction
Immanuel Kant was a German idealist and one of the most influential philosophers in the history of western philosophy. A philosopher whose comprehensive and
systematic work in epistemology, metaphysics, ethic and aesthetics have had a profound influence on all most every philosophical movement. Immanuel Kant was born on April 22, 1724 in Konigsberg (Russia). His father John George Kant was a German Craftsman from Memel. His parents were devout Christians and they educated him in the fundamentals of religion. They brought him up in such a way that their son remembered them with a “feeling of the utmost gratitude” and confirmed that he could have received no better moral education. He received his basic education at the Hospital School in the suburbs of Konigsberg. In 1740, Kant was admitted to the University of Konigsberg where he came into close contact with the philosophy of Leibniz. In 1755 he graduated in Konigsberg, qualifying in the same year as a university teacher.

Kant is generally considered the central-figure in modern philosophy. He studied astronomy, logic, psychology and was dipped into the abstractions and the realities of algebra, geometry and physics. As a young scholar Kant received a strict, punitive and disciplinary education that favored Latin and religious instructions over mathematics and science. Kant expressed his idealism in a more critical manner than did Leibniz. Among the main intellectual influences which had left their mark on Kant were Rousseau, Newton, Leibnizian- Wolffian philosophy and David Hume. In 1770, at the age of 45 Kant was finally appointed as a professor of Logic and Metaphysics at the University of Konigsberg. Kant’s professional career made him one of the leading German language intellectuals.

The renowned German philosopher was completely dedicated to his work and never married. During the last years of his life, he became embittered due to loss of memory which severely affected his ability to work but he continued to write nearly until the very end of his life. He died on February 12, 1804. Kant’s tomb is today in a Mausoleum adjoining the north east corner of Konigsberg Cathedral.

Works

Some of the important works of Kant are:

- Critique of Pure Reason.
- Critique of Practical Reason.
- Critique of Judgment.
- Practical Philosophy.
- Prolegomena to any future metaphysics.
- Metaphysical Foundations of Natural Science etc.

His Philosophy

Immanuel Kant was a reflective thinker, and one of the most eminent philosopher of the late 18th century. The key stone of Kant philosophy sometimes called critical philosophy examined the bases of human knowledge and created an
individual epistemology. He approached philosophy from an epistemological standpoint, and was primarily concerned with the problems of knowledge. Kant maintains that our knowledge does not entirely come through our senses which are but imperfect measures of reality. The real world is beyond our sensory comprehension but not beyond our intellectual comprehension. He said, “The eye without the mind is blind and impotent”. His philosophy is called transcendental; this means that it deals not with the content of phenomenon, but with a priori knowledge which we have of them. According to him whatever knowledge we have acquired about physical and metaphysical world is not absolutely real. It is only the phenomenon of reality. Original and absolute reality cannot be known as it is beyond our capacity. For example God, heaven or hell actually cannot be known by anybody. Kant’s idealism basically comes from his concentration on human thought process. He held that, the rationalist thinks analytically while the empiricist thinks synthetically. He worked out a system based on synthetic and analytic logical judgment that he called synthetic – a priori judgments. He viewed that analytical judgments do not add anything new to our knowledge. However, in synthetic judgments the predicate is not contained in the subject, and thus, they add new factors to our knowledge. Kant showed that science and metaphysics depends upon the validity of synthetic - a priori judgment.

In his epistemology Kant started with the traditional distinction between “truths of reason” which Kant called analytic propositions and “truth of fact” which Kant called synthetic propositions. He added to this two other concepts a prior knowledge (which comes purely from reasoning, independent experience and typically applies to analytic propositions) and a posteriori knowledge (which comes from experience alone, and typically applies to synthetic propositions).

Kant’s most original contribution to philosophy was the idea that it is the representation that makes the object possible, rather than the object that makes the representation possible. This introduced the human mind as an active originator of experience rather than just a passive recipient of perception, and placed the role of the human subject or knower at the centre of inquiry into our knowledge.

Kant explains the understanding in the Transcendental Analytic way which depends upon four kinds of categories: quantity, quality, relation and modality. Quantity is sub-divided into unity, plurality and totality. Quality contains reality, negation and limitation. Relation is divided into substance, cause and reciprocity. Modality contains the categories of possibility, existence and necessity. These categories are not based on experience but are a priori. But still, these categories cannot be applied to God; thus we cannot speak of God as a substance, and we cannot treat the concept of God according to the categories of causality.

Immanuel Kant believes that when we think about the universe as a totality, antinomies result. According to him there are four antinomies (i) the first antinomy deals with the possibility of creation. This thesis means that the world must be created
in time, and be contained in finite space. The anti-thesis states that the world is infinite and eternal. (ii) The second antinomy deals with the indivisibility of the universe. The thesis explains that the world is divisible into parts which are ultimately irreducible, while the anti-thesis states that the world can be divided indefinitely. (iii) The third antinomy holds the problem of freedom. The thesis maintains freedom, while the anti-thesis upholds necessity. (iv) The fourth antinomy deals with the problem of the creator. The thesis holds that there is a necessary force which has created the universe, and which is the cause of the universe. The anti-thesis maintains that no necessary being exists.

About the soul Kant showed his skeptical temper. His skepticism regarding the existence of soul has significant consequences. The scholastic theologians accepted the existence of the soul as a definite principle of knowledge, and they thought they could describe its attributes. However, Kant points out that our reason can say nothing definite about the existence of the soul, and that when we philosophize about it, our knowledge ends in contradictions.

To Kant, the belief in God, freedom and immorality, which brings happiness to man and fosters world peace, cannot be rationalized, indoctrinated and turned into an ideology (or dogma). He therefore issues a critical warning against the suppositions that this belief might be proved. Kant believed in freedom of consciences. A man’s beliefs were not to be determined by the state; they were his private matter.

His Concept of Morality

Kant is concerned not with the content of moral laws, but with their forms. Kant made it clear that every man is to be treated as an end in himself, and that man has an innate dignity. He never agreed to the doctrine that the end justifies the means. Above all, he emphasized goodwill both in philosophy and education. Unlike the pragmatists, he believed in the motive rather than in the consequences of moral action. Kant did not believe in force. Morality must be produced through education and must be founded upon an intense sense of duty. The greatness of man, according to Kant, lies in his moral power which gives meaning to human destiny. Man’s moral nature imbued Kant with hope for the future, and he thought that, eventually, the laws of morality would prevail, not only in religion, but also in politics and in international relations. Morality itself could not be produced through social reform; it could only be created through man’s insight and through his acceptance of a universal sense of duty. According to him morality has three important postulates which make it possible for a person to live an adequate moral life -- human freedom, immortality of the soul and belief in the existence of the God.

His Educational Philosophy

Kant believed that education is imperative for the development of mankind. Man is that which education makes of him and nothing more. It will be noted that man is always educated by other man who have themselves been educated previously.
To Kant man can become man only by education. The provision of true and good education holds the great secret of the true perfection of human nature. Kant finds it delightful to imagine that human nature can be increasingly enhanced through education and that education can be shaped in a manner which is appropriate to mankind. Good education is itself the source of all that is good in the world. Therefore we arrive at the conceptual principle that children must not be educated simply to achieve the present level but towards a possible better future level of the human race. In educating the child we should insure the safeguard of his independence and the child is to be trained in a truly moral manner. Education implies constant improvement and development of moral sense.

Kant’s thoughts concerning education is related closely with person’s nature. He viewed that there is no wickedness at the nature of person. In a person there is only goodness seeds and these seeds can improve with education. By education Kant believed development and perfection of man. Education should provide a person cultural things. Culture includes education and instruction and also express person’s talent.

Aim of Education

To Kant education was of utmost importance. Children should be educated not with reference to present conditions of things, but rather with regard to a possibly improved state of the human race – that is according to the ideal of humanity. Education should develop moral sense. He says morality must be produced through education and must be founded upon an intense sense of duty. The greatness of man according to Kant lies in his moral power which gives meaning to human destiny.

According to Kant the aim of education implies constant improvement of child’s abilities as there are many undeveloped powers in man. It is the task of education to unfold these natural gifts in due proportion to develop humanity from its germinal state and to lead man to a realization of his destiny. Education shall develop the good that lies hidden in his nature. It helps man to improve himself, to cultivate his mind and to develop his moral character. Through education we become truly human and we develop the pattern of civilization. We should educate with the view towards the future, for man is evolving, and he has within himself seeds of perfection. In educating the child, we should insure the safeguard of his independence. Kant favoured an enlightened system of education. Cultivation of the mind or intellect is a major goal of education.

Curriculum

Kant stressed on moral education and physical education. He believed that the positive part of physical education is culture. It distinguishes man from animals. The school curriculum includes skill training, discretion and morality which help in the development of the general mental abilities of a child. In his moral philosophy Kant explains how reasons can guide us to find morality in our actions.
Methods of Teaching

In his discussion of learning methods, Kant reminds us of the concept that the children learns and retains those things which are for child himself. The principle need is to teach children to think and not to train them like animals because for Kant the great power of teaching is its power to enable thinking. Learning to think can be best achieved using the Socratic Method. Further he advocated observation and transcendental – critical research method. Self-discipline is necessary to curb the undesirable choices and decisions in life. For Kant catechistic method is successful as it allows an individual to progress in this manner.

Concept of Discipline

Kant laid much stress on the importance of discipline. Discipline is fundamental to achieve. It transforms the animal nature into human nature. Discipline prevents man from being turned aside from humanity by his animal impulses. It subjects man to the laws of mankind and lets him feel their constraints. A person must be subjected to discipline from an early age so that later in life they will not follow the animal impulses. It must restrain him from venturing wildly and thoughtlessly into danger. Discipline thus is the process by which man is deprived of his brutality.

Role of a Teacher

Kant believes that the task of a school master is to develop the general abilities of a child. At the same time the child is to be trained in a truly moral manner. Moralization implies to acquire that type of mind which chooses good aims only. Effective teachers are those who provide pupil with maximum opportunities to learn. Teacher must follow the law rules and principles governing their duty which they have to teach. Teacher should develop among the students the power of thinking and reasoning.

Influence on Modern Education System

Immanuel Kant was one of the most influential and eminent philosopher of western culture. He is also the central in modern philosophy. Many of Kant’s ideas have great impact on modern education. He synthesized early modern rationalism and empiricism, set the terms for much of nineteenth and twentieth century philosophy and continues to exercise a significant influence today in metaphysics, epistemology, ethics and aesthetic. His philosophy focuses attention on the active role of human reason in the process of knowing the world and on its autonomy in giving moral law. Kant has profoundly influenced the modern world. Nowadays one of the most important aim of education is the teaching moral values. Kant insisted on developing moral sense in the child. In the modern schools these aims of education have been accepted as valid.

The great impact of Kant’s ideas is seen in the methods of education in more recent times. Kant suggested that education should be based on the constant
improvement of child’s innate abilities as these are many undeveloped powers in him. These ideas influenced modern teaching – techniques. As a result of Kant’s theorizing on the subject of discipline, now educand is trained in self-control. His ideas and original thought have informed almost every philosophical moment. So Kant’s influence on modern educational system is so deep and vast that it is very difficult to fully trace.

He is considered the great educational thinker of the modern enlightenment. His ideals of human dignity, universal rights, freedom, reason individualism etc. continues to be central theme to modern educational thought.

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INTER-INSTITUTIONAL LINKAGES: STRENGTHENING COORDINATION AND COLLABORATION OF SCHOOLS, COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES

Bilal Ahmad Kaloo

Abstract
Higher education plays a significant role in any society by creating new knowledge, transmitting knowledge to the young learners and also fostering innovation. Research-based education has lately received increasing interest both among researchers in higher education and in public discussion.

 Universities were traditionally seen as exclusive producers and providers of theoretical knowledge. Recently, the emphasis has gradually shifted, and the focus is now on collaboration and partnership between the varied sectors of education system including school education. This shift is particularly evident in the research area, wherein school-based educators have started to take an active part in designing and conducting research happening in their schools. This paper is aimed at highlighting the need to further strengthening the collaboration of centers of higher learning including colleges and universities with school education system and develop partnerships and thereby bringing improvement in education system. Apart from review of related literature, the paper contains reflections based on authors experience while serving as a teacher in school education department.


*Assistant Professor, Department of Education (South Campus), University of Kashmir.
Introduction

Education system occupies a core importance in the overall development of any nation. Human resource when properly nourished in an enriching and enabling educational set up, turns into an asset that lifts the society towards better quality of life. While addressing the serious ailments of the education system, a generalist approach opens up an unending list of lacunae including both highly sensitive and trivial issues. Debating and discussing such problems repeatedly ends up at a pessimistic note and at times over-magnifies matters as if the remedy is a remote possibility. Such redundant activities will keep on piling up problems without yielding any concrete output. Talking about the different levels, Education system is stretched over a canvas from school education to the higher education. This pyramid contains a broad base of school education that not only acts as the foundation but contains the bulk of the percentage of students enrolled in the system. A single stroke of reformatory action cannot convert the ugly picture into a pleasing one. To minimize the gap between ‘what is’ and ‘what should be’, education system has to gear up and make serious surgical interventions pertaining to the areas that need immediate attention. One such area that is highlighted in the research article is the disconnect between schools, colleges and universities as key institutions that if collaboration among these is ensured in letter and spirit, will definitely pave way for the better standards of education.

Most of the countries with an excellent system of education in place, also confront problems and challenges to be in the league of best schooling systems. The differences in the education systems are not solely a financial issue. The value placed in education, the amount of time devoted to it, and the distribution of education within a country play a crucial role in those differences.

At the international level, researchers in the field of education have produced wealth of substantial knowledge that is fed into policy making to devise educational planning. Such studies have highlighted that spending more money and employing more teachers is not so effective. Iceland and Norway spend more on their schools in comparison with the other countries yet they perform below the developed country average. Finland and South Korea spend less than most other developed countries, yet they rank at the top among the best schooling systems in terms of performance. Such achievements are not dependent on how much money is spent or how many teachers are employed, but how well that money is spent and how well those teachers teach.

Literature Review

Gray (1989) suggested that partners negotiate and renegotiate their relationship as they work together to solve a problem of common interest. The dynamic nature of partnerships as relationships may reveal stages or levels of interdependence including cooperation, coordination, and collaboration (Cook and Cookingham, 1980; Intrilligator, 1992).
Alexander Astin (1991) argues that inter-institutional collaboration could be expanded further to develop “cooperative systems” of performance based assessment and funding in which monetary incentives are based on the aggregate performance of an entire system. In 1983, the American Council on Education and the Education Commission of the States issued an influential national report titled, One Third of a Nation, which issued seven major challenges to our educational system, one of which was for its leaders to cooperate across all levels of education—from elementary through graduate school. During the 1990s, the American Association for Higher Education (AAHE) made school/college collaboration a key focus point of its national reform agenda (American Association for Higher Education, 1993).

Levin (1993) identifies three rationales – pragmatic, philosophical and political - for turning research into a collaborative effort. A pragmatic rationale argues that the work of researchers will only have an impact to the extent that it is conducted in a collaborative manner. In other words, the more school people are involved in research, the more confident in and committed to the results they are. In the center of the philosophical argument is the view that one can only learn about a social world from the people in it. Researchers should take teachers perspectives and ideas seriously rather than treating them as “subjects” or “objects” of their research. And finally, the political rationale states that researchers have a moral obligation not just to study, but also to act in the interests of those they study.

According to Austin and Baldwin (1991), effective collaborative instruction involves the recognition of common goals, coordinated efforts, and outcomes based on shared responsibilities. Establishing policies and guidelines for collaborative work is essential. However, constant interaction and communication are the real keys to success. As relationships between schools and universities grow and become more and more symbiotic, pre-service teachers engage in continuously improving levels of structured, well-defined, and implemented experience (Bernshausen & McMahan, 2011; Goodlad, 1994; Heath, 2005; Heath & Johnson-Taylor, 2006). Teachers can co-teach methods classes at the university, to bring in specific content for middle grades, and to collaborate with professors in presenting cutting-edge pedagogy (Walkington, 2007).

Working with pre-service teachers and collaborating with university personnel provide numerous opportunities for teachers to grow professionally and develop teacher leadership skills. Teachers who actively teach the crafts of effective classroom instructional planning, teaching, and classroom management will become better teachers in their own right. Through collaboration with professors, teachers gain ready access to the latest research on best practices – and may even find themselves as part of action research about teaching and learning. This kind of collaboration offers teachers and principals access to a new level of professional collaboration, and creates an environment rich in creative, research-based practices for improving instruction and

Discussion

The seriousness to fix the problems in education system is reflected in the urgency and rational approach that is adopted in such countries. The universities, colleges and schools are not compartmentalized but they complement each other in their functioning by having collaboration and coordination to overcome the problems and develop pragmatic solutions respectively.

As advanced countries are increasing the spending on research and development activities so as to be at the cutting edge of the competition in the fields of technology, defense, health care etc, research in education is not any exception. In this regard higher education centers especially the universities are the hub of such scientific endeavours. Be it developing better pedagogical methods for school teachers or digitizing the class room with incorporation of ICT, the university’s gaze encompasses the practical challenges that school education systems are facing. Universities conduct regular interactive sessions with school students and teachers to discuss varied issues concerning the daily activities of teaching learning. Such provisions and practices provide opportunities of exploring the problems faced by the school education and simultaneously sensitize the higher learning centers like universities to utilize their expertise and resourcefulness and play a positive role to mitigate the problems. The symptoms of mal-functioning school education system need not to be given a cosmetic touch of words, but thorough research based investigations are highly imperative and indispensable to study the problems in-depth. Such scientific studies aimed at knowing the root causes of the problems of school education will provide a realistic understanding to address them rationally. Both school administration and higher education authorities must have a mutual consensus to know each other’s strengths and jointly set the things right. Fund raising for such studies has to be explored within and beyond local institutions. For that, quality proposals meticulously designed and drafted with clear cut objectives and time bound completion of various activities need to be prepared and presented to different agencies for possible financial assistance. Even business establishments under corporate social responsibility (CSR) can also be approached to sponsor and support such research studies.

When we are discussing the loopholes of education system with the intention to improve upon them, involving different stakeholders is a blessing and an encouraging endeavor. Universities as the highest centers of learning owe a lot to the overall development of quality standards of education system by consistently getting involved with research and extension activities. Such engagements are not to be made confined to organizing one or two days seminar/conferences where problems are highlighted and some recommendations are set forth. To bring vibrancy and utility,
universities and school system should join hands to collaborate in making sustained efforts to overcome the problems. Proper identification of the problem in terms of its nature and extent is in itself an achievement. Given the richness of the faculties and subjects in a university system, from languages to management, there is no denying the fact that problems pertaining to school education system have relevance and scope for different departments. For example, in the recently conducted survey on reading comprehension of children in public schools by the Ministry of Human Resource Development (MHRD), the state of Jammu & Kashmir (India) has the lowest score. To analyze and understand the pros and cons of this problem, Department of English/Linguistics can jointly conduct thorough research to explore problems faced by students in reading and comprehension. The results of the study can best guide us how to address the issue in a proper manner.

Evidence indicates that the schools are ready to embrace partnership initiatives beyond that of the traditional practicum supervision model. Possibly one of the most helpful aspects of school–university collaboration is that of sharing resources, including such ideas as:

- Sharing expertise,
- Conducting action research,
- Service on school and university program improvement committees,
- Making joint presentations at conferences, and
- Providing meaningful, rich pre-service teaching opportunities in school classrooms.

Conclusion

An integrated approach is the need of the hour to set free education system from the clutches of low efficiency and poor standards. In this challenge the efforts from any one particular stakeholder is not going to provide any substantial success. The school education system is a vital sector and if this base is strengthened with adequate resources and practices and provisions that are rational and realistic, we can anticipate positive changes. For this radical shift, higher education learning centers including colleges and universities must extend their support and services by active participation and collaboration in purposeful academic assignments. Compartmentalization of primary, secondary and tertiary sectors of education has distanced and divided the landscape of education system. The common thread of education that connects them all must be intact with stronger connections and consistent collaboration to tackle the problems effectively and make a education system a real change agent for social and economic development.

References


JOB SATISFACTION OF EFFECTIVE AND LESS EFFECTIVE SECONDARY SCHOOL TEACHERS

Rayees Ahmad Dar*  
Najmah Peerzada**

Abstract

This study examined the job satisfaction of effective and less effective secondary school teachers in Kashmir valley. The sample of the study consisted of 800 secondary school teachers which were collected by random sampling. Job satisfaction scale developed by using Singh and Sharma was used. The results of the study revealed that the effective secondary school teachers are highly satisfied with their job as compared to less effective secondary school teachers. The results also revealed that effective teachers are more competent to their job and are more cooperative to the students and heads of institutions.

Key Words: Job Satisfaction, Effective, Less Effective, Secondary School Teachers

Introduction

Education in the largest sense is an act or an experience that has a formative effect on the mind, character or physical ability of an individual. In its technical sense, education is the process by which society deliberately transmits its accumulated knowledge, skills and values from one generation to another of society. Education in real sense is to humanize humanity and to make life progressive cultured and civilized. It is very important for the progress of the individual and society. It is through education that man develops his thinking and reasoning, problem solving and creativity, intelligence and aptitude, positive sentiments and skills, good values and attitudes. Education is a dialogue between the past, present and

* Research Scholar, Department of Education, University of Kashmir  
** Sr. Assistant Professor, Department of Education, University of Kashmir
the future, so that the coming generations receive the accumulated lessons of the heritage and carry it forward (UNESCO, 1998).

According to Kabir, teachers are literally the arbiters of a nation’s destiny. Teacher is the key to any education reconstruction. The role of teacher at present is changing in view of the socio economic, political and other pressures. There is no denying the fact that the efficiency of an educational system is primarily determined by the efficiency of teachers. Teacher acts as a pivot of the transition of the intellectual traditions and technical skills from generation to generation and helps to keep the lamp of civilization burning. The teacher is not only a custodian of national values but it is also an architect per excellence of new values (Radhakrishna, 1954).

Job satisfaction is defined as how much an individual is adjusted in his work. Every individual likes to seek a job which is fulfilling various needs besides paying well. People work not only for money but also to get a feeling of achievement and success. Job satisfaction is conceptualized as the sum total of an individual’s expectations met on the job. The more an individual expectations are met on the greater his satisfaction. Hence the index of job satisfaction is a result interaction between various variables. Any variable study in isolation cannot explain complex phenomena like job satisfaction. Job satisfaction is therefore, the whole matrix of job factor that makes a person to derive happiness from the work situation, an individual will perform better the job, if he enjoys doings the same. Job satisfaction and dissatisfaction are function of the perceived relationship between what one derives and what one expects may be an indicator of satisfaction or dissatisfaction from the job. Mores 1953 stress that job satisfaction is a function of the discrepancy between needs and outcome, he conceptualize job satisfaction as an end results of the degree to which job needs are perceived as being fulfilled by job. Smith and Kendall, 1963) revealed that job satisfaction is a function of the perceived characteristics of a job in relation to an individual’s frame of reference. The particular job condition can be a satisfier, dissatisfied or irrelevant, depending on the conditions in comparable jobs. Thus job satisfaction is not an absolute phenomenon, but is relative to the alternatives available to the individuals. Mehrotra (2000) in the trend report of the sixth survey of educational research highlights the need and importance of conducting studies on the various aspects of professional commitments, attitudes of teachers, job satisfaction of teachers. This would definitely help us to recognize and understand the different school phenomenon and processes. As we all are aware that present system of education has certain defects due to which there is much more tensions and stress on their part to impart knowledge, that too from an examination point of view, to the utter neglect of the other aspects pertaining to emotional and social development. It is felt heartily by everyone today that the standard of education in schools, colleges and universities cannot be improved, unless the teacher, who is the key role to have, is competent and involved in the teaching practice. The teaching process will
Job Satisfaction of Effective and Less Effective Secondary School Teachers

not improve until the teacher is satisfied with job, having positive attitude towards teaching-profession and must be professionally committed to their job.

Objectives:
1. To study and compare effective and less effective secondary school teachers on various factor of the job satisfaction.
2. To study and compare effective and less effective secondary school teachers on Composite score of job satisfaction.

Hypotheses
1. Effective and less effective secondary school teachers differ significantly on various factor of job satisfaction.
2. Effective and less effective secondary school teachers differ significantly on composite score of job satisfaction.

Method and Procedure
Sample:
The present study was conducted on 800 secondary school teachers from Kashmir valley (400 male and 400 female). The sample was taken randomly from various higher secondary schools in Kashmir division.

Tool Used
The data was collected with the help of job satisfaction scale developed by Singh and Sharma (2009). The inventory was administered to the sample subjects in the respective institutions in order to collect the data.

Statistical Treatment:
The data was analyzed by applying Mean .S.D and test of significance.

Analysis and Interpretation
Table 1 show that mean comparison between less effective and effective secondary school teachers on various factors including composite score of job satisfaction. The table also shows that there is significant difference between the less effective and effective secondary school teachers on *job concrete factor* at 0.01 level. The mean difference favors the effective secondary school teachers, which implies that the effective teachers are high on job concrete factor as compared to less effective teachers. They are reported to have good styles of life, habits and attitudes. Their job gives them time and opportunities to attend the family.

The table 1 shows that there is a significant difference between the less effective and effective secondary school teachers on *job abstract factor* at 0.05 level. The mean favors the effective secondary school teachers, which implies that effective secondary school teachers are more related to the job abstract factor of job satisfaction. They are reported that their bosses, colleagues are cooperative, helpful and inspiring to them. They are ready to work on the holidays also. They are cooperative and sympathetic to
the students. The less effective teachers are less obedient and are less cooperative. The table 1 shows that there is a significant difference between the less effective and effective secondary school teachers on psycho-social factor of job satisfaction and is significant at 0.01 level. The mean favors the effective secondary school teachers, which implies that the effective secondary school teachers have better psycho-social factor as compared to less effective secondary school teachers. They are reported to have a good social relation with others teachers. Their job gives them the opportunities for training, orientation experience and they are satisfied with the job. They reported that their job provides them horizontal and longitudinal mobility also promotion. Less effective teachers are not in favor of mobility.

Table 1: Showing the Mean comparison between Less Effective and Effective Secondary School Teachers on various factors of Job Satisfaction.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>Significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Job Concrete</td>
<td>LESST</td>
<td>216</td>
<td>11.03</td>
<td>2.22</td>
<td>8.86</td>
<td>0.01 level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ESST</td>
<td>216</td>
<td>13.86</td>
<td>2.46</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job Abstract</td>
<td>LESST</td>
<td>216</td>
<td>17.24</td>
<td>1.83</td>
<td>2.27</td>
<td>0.05 level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ESST</td>
<td>216</td>
<td>17.70</td>
<td>1.05</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Psycho-Social</td>
<td>LESST</td>
<td>216</td>
<td>15.06</td>
<td>4.61</td>
<td>11.12</td>
<td>0.01 level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ESST</td>
<td>216</td>
<td>20.42</td>
<td>1.93</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economic</td>
<td>LESST</td>
<td>216</td>
<td>9.78</td>
<td>2.48</td>
<td>0.54</td>
<td>Not Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ESST</td>
<td>216</td>
<td>9.96</td>
<td>2.49</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National Growth</td>
<td>LESST</td>
<td>216</td>
<td>10.12</td>
<td>3.49</td>
<td>9.38</td>
<td>Significant at 0.01 level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ESST</td>
<td>216</td>
<td>14.11</td>
<td>2.70</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Composite Score</td>
<td>LESST</td>
<td>216</td>
<td>63.23</td>
<td>6.24</td>
<td>16.12</td>
<td>Significant at 0.01 level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ESST</td>
<td>216</td>
<td>76.06</td>
<td>5.41</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

LEST = Less Effective Secondary School Teachers
ESST = Effective Secondary School Teachers

The table 1 shows that there is no significant difference between the less effective and effective secondary school teachers on economic factor of job satisfaction. They are reported that are satisfied with the salary, allowances. Their job provides them medical care, housing, subsidized rationing, travelling. They are reported that in emergency situations there are provisions of providing job to the children, family, and ex gratia-grants. They are reported to have a good freedom and decision making. Further the table 1 shows that there is a significant difference between the less effective and effective secondary school teachers on community/national growth factor of job satisfaction and is significant at 0.01 level. The mean favors the effective secondary school teachers, which implies that the effective secondary school teachers on more
related to the community factor as compared to less effective secondary school teachers. They are reported that their job improve the quality of life, it endeavors to make a better man. The effective teachers report that their job increases economy and development of nation. They treat their job as worship. They are friendly with their friends and relatives. They are friendlier with the principles and headmasters.

Table 2: Showing the Mean comparison between Less Effective and Effective Secondary School Teachers on composite score of Job Satisfaction.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Composite Score</th>
<th>LESST</th>
<th>216</th>
<th>63.23</th>
<th>6.24</th>
<th>Significant at 0.01 level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ESST</td>
<td></td>
<td>216</td>
<td>76.06</td>
<td>5.41</td>
<td>16.12</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The table no.2 shows that there is significant mean difference between effective and less effective secondary school teachers on composite score of job satisfaction. The mean score of effective teachers have been found to be 76.06 as compared to less effective teachers is 63.23. The calculated ‘t’ has been found to be 16.12, which is significant at 0.01 level. The results of the study revealed that effective teachers as more satisfied with their job as compared to less effective teachers.

Conclusions

1. The effective secondary school teachers are more satisfied in terms of job satisfaction. The effective teachers consider work as an act of worship.
2. There is a significant difference between effective and less effective secondary school teachers on job concrete factor of job satisfaction. The effective teachers are supportive and motivating to the teaching process.
3. The effective secondary school teachers have better psycho- social factor as compared to the less effective secondary school teachers.
4. The effective secondary school teachers have more community relation as compared to the less effective teachers.
5. No Significant difference was found between effective and less effective secondary school teachers on economic factor of job satisfaction.
6. There is significant difference between effective and less effective teachers on composite score of job satisfaction.

References


