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RAJ RAJESHWARI COLLEGE OF EDUCATION

Vill. Chorab (Mansui), P.O. Bhota, Tehsil Barsar,
 Distt. Hamirpur, Himachal Pradesh – 176 041

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Raj Rajeshwari Journal Of Psychological & Educational Research (RRJPER) Published by RAJ RAJESHWARI COLLEGE OF EDUCATION, Vill. Chorab (Mansui), P.O. Bhota, Tehsil Barsar, Distt. Hamirpur (H.P.) - 176041, Printed by RAKESH KUMAR for RAKESH PRINTING PRESS, New Road, Near Bus Stand, Hamirpur (H.P.) - 177001 and Published at RAJ RAJESHWARI COLLEGE OF EDUCATION, Vill. Chorab (Mansui), P.O. Bhota, Tehsil Barsar, Distt. Hamirpur (H.P.) – 176041.

RNI REG. NO. –HPENG/2016/73536

VOL. 3 (2) & 4(1)

International Journal

ISSN 2455-7900

April, 2019

Raj Rajeshwari Journal of Psychological & Educational Research

(A Half Yearly Peer-Reviewed & Refereed International Journal)

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District Hamirpur, Himachal Pradesh – 176 041**

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Place of Publication : Chorab (Mansui), P.O Bhota, Hamirpur (H.P.)

Periodicity of Publication : Half Yearly (April & October)

Chief Editor : Dr. Raj Kumar Dhiman

Printer : Rakesh Printing Press, Hamirpur (H.P.)

Publisher : Raj Rajeshwari College of Education

Nationality : Indian

Address : Raj Rajeshwari College of Education,
Vill. Chorab(Mansui), P.O. Bhota,
Tehsil Barsar, Distt. Hamirpur(H.P.)-176 041

Ownership : Raj Rajeshwari Education Society,
Vill. Chorab (Mansui), P.O. Bhota,
Tehsil Barsar, Distt. Hamirpur (H.P.) – 176041

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HUMOUR STYLES OF EFFECTIVE AND IN-EFFECTIVE SECONDARY TEACHERS

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ABSTRACT

The Teacher is the single most important key factor in the success of an educational program, reform and advancement. The present study was designed with the objective to study the difference in the Humour Styles of Effective and In-Effective secondary teachers. The Teachers employed in Govt. and Private recognized schools of Nadaun Block in District Hamirpur of Himachal Pradesh were selected for the study. Data was collected with the help of standardized tools viz. Teachers Communication Effectiveness Scale (TCES) by Dr. Raj Kumar Dhiman and Hindi adaptation of Humour Styles Questionnaire of Martin et al. (2003). by Prof. B. P. Verma. The statistical techniques of Mean, SD and the 't'-test were employed for data analysis. The findings of the study reported that teachers having effective teaching background were found to be more humorous in their teaching as compared to their in-effective counterparts.

KEY WORDS : Humour Styles, Teachers, Affiliative, Self-Enhancing, Aggressive, Self-Defeating.....

INTRODUCTION

Schools are making effort to ensure that their Teachers are effective in every way in subject delivery. A lot of emphasis is placed on the curriculum in schools / colleges but not on the methodology of delivery of the same. The main focus of this study was to investigate the extent to which Teachers use humour while teaching and the effect that the use of humour gives to their teaching. As human beings, we have the ability to laugh at others and ourselves, to make jokes, to add humour to situations which are seemingly without humour, and to be absurd. Humour is part of everyone's experience, and those who have no sense of humour would probably not admit it. Humour has also been used in Education. Teachers and Teacher Educators of all levels and disciplines have praised the ability of humour to aid the learning process, to help students' understanding

of key points and to relax students in moments of anxiety. In a departure from most previous humour - related research, Neuliep (1991) investigated the effects of humor by soliciting teacher (rather than student) perceptions of their own humour usage and its effects in the classroom. Injecting humour in the Classroom proceeding can make teaching interesting.

CONCEPT OF HUMOUR STYLES

Humour is defined as the tendency of particular cognitive responses to provoke laughter, physical reaction, and provoke amusement. Humour is a part of Human experience. Humour is experienced across all ages and culture. Humour seems to be developmental in nature, in that children must develop certain cognitive abilities in order to appreciate a wide variety of humour. One study (Spector, 1996) showed that children as young as 8 years are capable of understanding humour based on idioms where “piece of mind” is an idiom with both literal and figurative meanings. He states that the understanding of this humour is related to the students’ development of met linguistic abilities. In the same work, fifth graders were shown to have a significantly higher understanding of humorous idioms than third graders. Thus, the understanding of humour improves between third and fifth grade, lending support to the concept that humour improves with development for young people. The function of humour can be heavily influenced by style in which it is presented. Individuals tend to use humour in Styles that are meant to enhance the self and to enhance relationships with others. Martin et al. (2003) developed the Humour Styles Questionnaire (HSQ) as a result of examining the functions served by humour. Martin et al. proposed that Self-Enhancing Humour, Affiliative Humour, Self-Defeating Humour and Aggressive Humour are a result of the functions individuals want served by humour usage. Self-Enhancing and Affiliative Humour are proposed to lead to positive effects, while Self-Defeating and Aggressive Humour are proposed to lead to negative effects.

FORMS OF HUMOUR STYLES

Humour is one of the major components for effective teaching learning process. Various authors and educationists have classified humour in their own way but Martin et al. (2003) has given four styles of humour as under:

Affiliative Humour

Affiliative Humour is proposed to have mostly positive implications for individuals, as well as for groups (Martin et al. 2003). Martin et al. states that affiliative humour involves funny sayings and actions that are used to amuse others, facilitate relationships and reduce interpersonal tension.

Self-Enhancing Humour

Self-Enhancing Humour is proposed to have mostly positive implications for individuals, as well as on groups (Martin et al. 2003). Martin et al. (2003) describes Self-Enhancing Humour as humour that allows individuals to maintain a humorous outlook even in the face of stress or adversity.

Aggressive Humour

Aggressive Humour is the use of sarcasm, teasing, ridicule, derision, put-down, or disparaging humour (Martin et al., 2003). Aggressive humour is proposed to have negative implications for individuals, as well as on groups. Aggressive humour may involve the manipulation of others due to its implied threat of ridicule. Users of aggressive humour have no regard for the potential negative outcomes of its use. Humour used in this fashion is likely to hurt or alienate others.

Self-Defeating Humour

Self-Defeating Humour includes self-disparagement, where the user attempts to say or do funny things at their own expense (Martin et al. 2003). Self-Defeating Humour is proposed to have negative implications for individuals, as well as on groups. The user allows themselves to become the “butt” of others attempts at humour. The targeted individual laughs along while they are being ridiculed and disparaged by others.

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

The review of related literature pertaining to the present study has been given as under:

Research Studies Related to Humour Styles

Ornstein & Levine (1981) found that the use of humour by teacher can capture the interest of the students and reduce tension. The removal of distracting material can increase attention and decrease classroom disruption.

Ziv (1987) found that aggressive tendency was diminished significantly when frustrating subjects was given an opportunity to release tension through laughter.

Nezu et al. (1988) found that humour serve as a moderator of stress for depressive, but not anxiety a symptomatology, regardless of the measures of humour that was used in the analysis.

Gorham & Christophel (1990) found that the amount and the type of the humour influenced learning but not to the same extend as immediacy. Based on this data, they felt that the relationship between teacher' humour in the class room and learning is best understood when considered along with teacher immediacy. Humour is one type of immediacy behavior that teachers can capitalize on in the classroom.

Greenberg (2001) found that the best times to deliver serious points in teaching or a presentation to students is right after they laugh. This is because they need time to relax their minds in the midst of the intense learning and presentations.

Saroglou & Scariot (2002) found that the Humour Styles were related to personality indifferent fashions. Self-Enhancing and Affiliative Humour were positively related to agreeableness, openness, and self-esteem. Aggressive Humour was negatively related to agreeableness and conscientiousness. Emotional stability was negatively related to emotional stability, conscientiousness, security in attachment, and self-esteem. The results suggest that personality may be the best predictor in determining which humor styles are used by individuals.

Martin et al. (2003) found four different Humour Styles in the daily use of humour by individuals. This also refers to individual differences in the use of humour. Two of the Humour Styles are positive and healthy while the other two are negative and unhealthy within the context of psychological well-being while "Affiliative" and "Self-Enhancing" Humour Styles reflect the positive and adaptive characteristics of personality, "Aggressive" and "Self- Defeating" Humour Styles address negative and maladaptive aspects of personality traits. The first two positive styles are negatively correlated with anxiety and depression and positively correlated with self-esteem, extraversion, openness and agreeableness. The last two are negatively correlated with agreeableness and conscientiousness and positively correlated with neuroticism, hostility and aggression.

Verma (2007) & Powers (2005) found that if information is overloaded, it seems to sit in the short - term memory, which cannot process it all and within a short while, things

end up getting so confusing to the student. Humour can also help physiologically to connect the left-brain activities to the right - brain creative side and thereby allowing students to better assimilate the information presented. This is to say that humour presents, in the students, some sort of mental sharpness.

Research Studies Related to Effective and In-Effective Teachers

Chaya (1974) found that effective teachers have significantly better personality adjustment, favourable attitude towards teaching and emotional stability.

Arora (1976) found that effective teachers derive more satisfaction from their work than ineffective teachers.

Grewal's (1976) in his study found that main predictors of teacher effectiveness are home, health, social, emotional and total adjustment.

Kurian (1994) in a study, 'Teacher perception of effective classroom instruction at secondary school level' found that male and female teachers differ significantly in their perception of effective classroom instruction.

Kagathala (2002) in a study found that area of schools and higher qualification affects teacher effectiveness.

Prasad (2002) found that teacher effectiveness is significantly related to temperament variables.

Johnson (2004) in a project study, identified a number of supports for teacher effectiveness. They are mentoring a curriculum that is adaptable and supportive of teacher learning and a professional culture in which there is deep and sustained interaction between novice and veteran teachers.

Strong (2010) investigated that there is no doubt that most teacher in school are effective and are committed to their students and profession, an are trying there best to meet students need every day. Research has shown that effective teacher can lead the student to learn, even those from poor families or who have uninvolved parents.

After having reviewed the related literature, most of the researcher and their finding indicates that the humour in teaching is very important and makes teacher and his/her teaching effective. The use of humour by teacher can capture the interest of the student and reduce tension. The removal of distracting material can increase attention and decrease classroom disruption. It makes teachers' teaching effective.

OBJECTIVE OF THE STUDY

O. To find out the difference in Humour Styles of Effective and In-Effective Teachers.

HYPOTHESIS OF THE STUDY

H. There will be no significant difference in Humour Styles of Effective and In-Effective Teachers.

DELIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

- The study was delimited to fifty (50) Secondary Schools of Nadaun Block in District Hamirpur of Himachal Pradesh.
- The study was delimited with regard to size of sample. The study involved the sample of 200 Secondary School Teachers.
- The study was delimited to lottery method of probability sampling.
- The study was delimited to the statistical techniques of Mean, SD and the 't'-test only.
- The study was delimited to one major Null-Hypothesis.
- The study was delimited in terms of independent and dependent variables. In the present study dependent variable was humour styles and independent variable was teaching effectiveness.
- The study was delimited in terms of time, money and resources.

RESEARCH METHOD

In the present study descriptive survey method of research was used.

RESEARCH TOOL USED

The following research tools were used in the present study for data collection:

- Teaching Communication Effectiveness Scale (TCES) by Dr. Raj Kumar Dhiman.
- Hindi Version of Humour Styles Questionnaire of Martin et al. (2003) by Prof. B. P. Verma.

SAMPLING

In the present study lottery method of probability sampling was used.

STATISTICAL TECHNIQUES USED

In the present study the statistical techniques of Mean, SD and the 't'-test were employed for data analysis.

ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF THE DATA

The Table-1 presents the calculated statistics of humour styles of Effective and In-Effective Secondary Teachers.

Table-1
Significance of Mean Difference in Effective and In-Effective Teachers towards Humour Styles

| Humour Styles | N | | M | | SD | | df | 't'-Value | Significance |
|-----------------------|--------------------|-----------------------|--------------------|-----------------------|--------------------|-----------------------|----|-----------|--------------|
| | Effective Teachers | In-Effective Teachers | Effective Teachers | In-Effective Teachers | Effective Teachers | In-Effective Teachers | | | |
| Affiliative Humour | 55 | 44 | 28.76 | 28.11 | 2.83 | 2.51 | 97 | 1.20 | NS |
| Self-Enhancing Humour | 55 | 44 | 28.85 | 27.05 | 2.72 | 2.70 | 97 | 2.46 | * |
| Aggressive Humour | 55 | 44 | 21.54 | 19.54 | 3.66 | 4.16 | 97 | 2.52 | * |
| Self-Defeating Humour | 55 | 44 | 20.89 | 19.97 | 2.23 | 2.79 | 97 | 1.76 | NS |

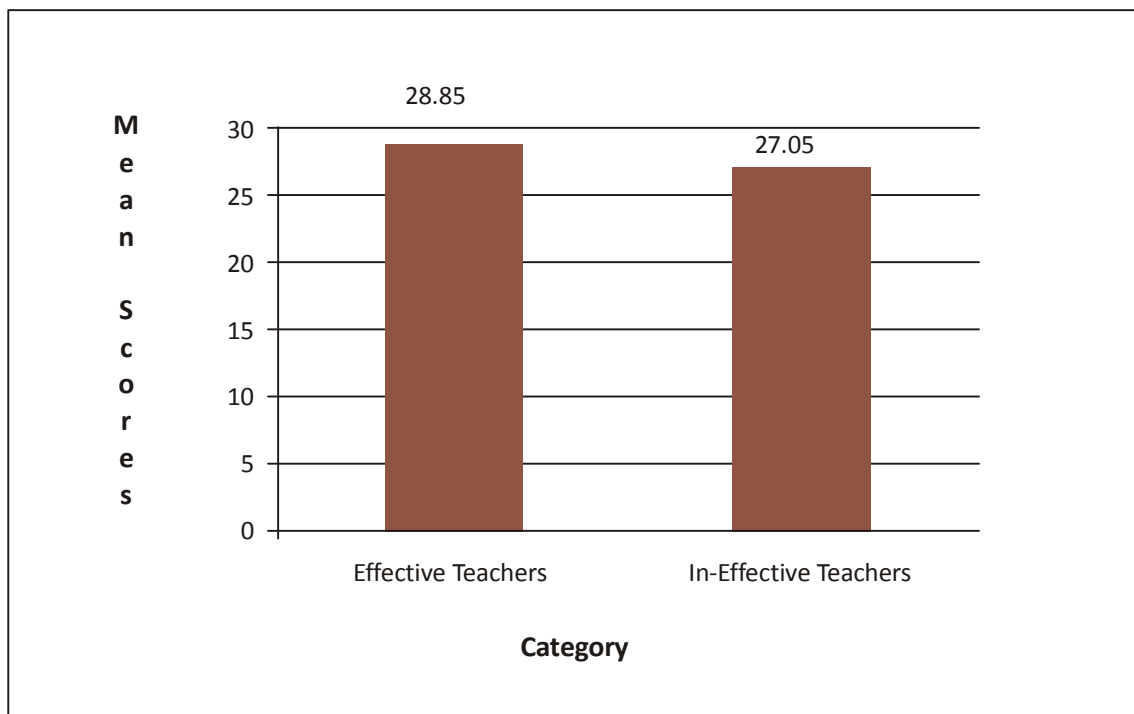
***= Significant at 0.05 Level of Significance and NS= Not Significant**

The Table-1 indicates that the obtained 't' values were found to be 1.20 and 1.76 with respect to Affiliative Humour and Self-Defeating Humour styles, which are not significant. It means that Effective and In-Effective secondary Teachers do not differ significantly with regard to Affiliative and Self-Defeating Humour styles. Hence, the null hypothesis that, 'There will be no significant difference in Humour Styles of Effective and In-Effective Teachers', was accepted in case of Affiliative and Self-Defeating Humour styles.

The Table-1 also reflects that the obtained 't' values was found to be 2.46 for Self-Enhancing Humour style, which is significant at 0.05 level of significance. The mean value of effective teachers (M=28.85) is greater than the mean value of in-effective teachers (27.05) for self-enhancing humour style. This implies that effective teachers were more prone to use of self-enhancing humour style as compared to their in-effective counterparts. The Figure-1.1 shows the significant difference in the mean scores of effective and in-effective teachers with regard to self-enhancing humour style.

Figure-1.1

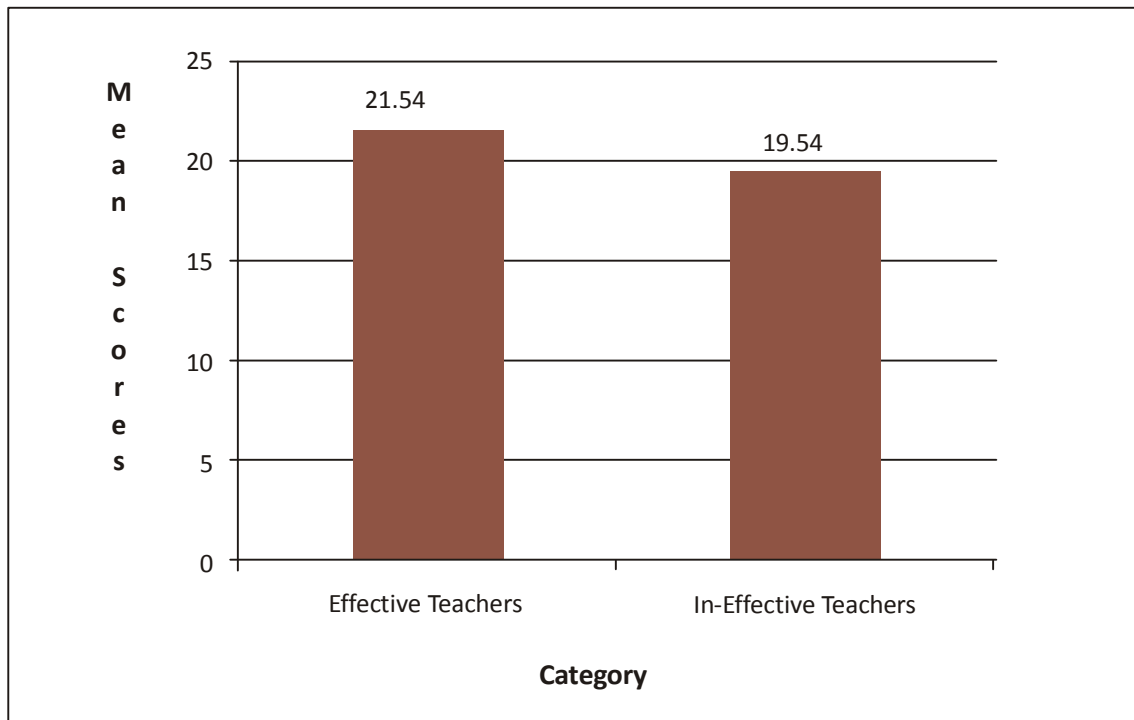
Showing the Significant Difference in Mean Scores Of Effective and In-Effective Secondary Teachers With Regard to their Self-Enhancing Humour Style



The Table-1 also shows that the obtained 't' values was found to be 2.52 for Aggressive Humour style, which is significant at 0.05 level of significance. The mean value of effective teachers (M=21.54) is greater than the mean value of in-effective teachers (19.54) for aggressive humour style. This implies that effective teachers were more oriented towards prone towards aggressive humour style as compared to their in-effective counterparts. The Figure-1.2 shows the significant difference in the mean scores of effective and in-effective teachers with regard to aggressive humour style.

Figure-1.2

Showing the Significant Difference in Mean Scores Of Effective and In-Effective Secondary Teachers With Regard to their Aggressive Humour Style



Hence, the null hypothesis that, 'There will be no significant difference in Humour Styles of Effective and In-Effective Teachers', was not accepted in case of self-enhancing and aggressive humour styles.

FINDINGS OF THE STUDY

On the basis of the analysis and interpretation of the data the following conclusions were drawn:

- The Effective Teachers were found to be more oriented towards Self-Enhancing and Aggressive Humour styles as compared to their In-Effective counterparts.
- No significant differences were found in Affiliative and Self-Defeating Humour styles of Effective and In-Effective Teachers was found.

EDUCATIONAL IMPLICATIONS

The present study holds several implications for teachers regarding teaching learning-process.

- First, teachers should use Humour in the classroom communication. This study shows that the Teachers having effective background were found to be more humorous as compare to their In-Effective background counterparts.
- Second, teachers should use Humour in the Self-Enhancing Style for positive outcome. This research shows that Effective Teachers having Effective Teaching background were found to be more oriented towards Self-Enhancing Humour.

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Received on 20/02/2019
Accepted on 18/04/2019

EMOTIONAL MATURITY OF PROSPECTIVE SECONDARY SCHOOL TEACHERS

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ABSTRACT

Education in its broadest sense is any act or experience that has a formative effect on the mind, character or physical ability of an individual. In its technical sense education is a process by which Society deliberately transmits its accumulated knowledge, skill and values from one generation to another. Education has become one of the most important human activities. Its benefits are immense and without education one cannot live like an efficient human being. A sound and effective system of education result in the enfoldment of learners' potentialities and transformation of their interest's attitudes and values. Education is a man making process: its specific role is to accelerate the holistic development of body, mind, intellect and emotions. It develops all the intellectual and emotional powers of the individual, so that he is able to meet the problems of the life squarely and solve them successfully. This paper has been designed to discuss the study of emotional maturity of secondary school teachers in relation to their marital status and Socio-Economic Status.

KEY WORDS: Marital Status, Socio-economic Status, Physical Ability, Knowledge, Skill, Values, Attitude, Emotional Maturity.....

INTRODUCTION

Education is a process of human enlightenment and empowerment for the achievement of a better and higher quality of life. A sound and effective system of education results in the enfoldment of learner potentialities and transformation of their interests, attitudes and values. It develops all the intellectual and emotional powers of the individual, so he is able to meet the problems of life and solve them successfully. Education to be complete must have five principle aspects relating to the five principal activities of human being: the physical, the vital, the mental, the psychic and the spiritual. Education not only provides us job and livelihood, but also develops our personality. It shapes our character and makes us mannered and cultured. It expands the intellect of mind. It controls our mind and heart leading to overall self- control. Education is essential for the growth and development of an individual as well as of society. Education in any

society does not depend so much on the other factor as on the teacher. The whole system of education revolves around the teacher. The teacher plays a significant role in improving the quality of education. They should have mastery over contents and pedagogical skills. To be an effective teacher, the teacher should have gone through the training programme. For this B.Ed. training programme is of utmost importance.

CONCEPT OF EMOTIONAL MATURITY

Emotion is one of the important aspects of behaviour. Emotions play an important role in providing a particular direction to our behaviour thus shaping our personality. "An emotion is a strong feeling accompanied by marked physiological changes inside the body leading to changes in behaviour in the form of overt responses in an organism". The concept "mature" emotional behaviour at any level reflects the fruit of normal emotional development. In the present circumstances, youth as well as children are facing difficulties in their life. These difficulties are giving rise to many psychosomatic problems such as anxiety, tensions, frustrations and emotional disturbance.

Emotional maturity is the ability to assess a relationship or situation and to act according to what is best for oneself and other person in the relationship. Emotional maturity is a state wherein one's emotional reactivity is considered appropriate and normal for an adult in a given society. Generally a person can be called emotionally mature if he is able to display his emotions in an appropriate degree with reasonable control.

According to Walter D Smitson (1974), "Emotional maturity is a process on which the personality is continuously striving for greater sense of emotional health both intra-physically and intra-personally".

CHARACTERISTICS OF EMOTIONALLY MATURE PERSON

A person is said to be emotionally mature when he feels proper emotion in a proper situation and express it in a proper quantity. An emotionally mature person will possess the following characteristics :

- Almost all the emotions can be distinctly seen in him and their pattern of expression can be easily recognized.
- Manifestation of emotions is very refined. Usually he expresses his emotions in a socially desirable manner.
- He is able to exercise control over his emotions. He is able to hide his emotions.
- The intellectual powers like thinking, reasoning etc. are properly exercised by in making any decision. He is more guided by his intellect than his emotions.

- He does not possess the habit of rationalization i.e he never gives arguments in defence of his undesirable or improper conduct.
- He has the potential to exercise his emotions at a proper time in a proper place. Mature emotional behaviour is characterised by greater stability. Person having such maturity shows no sudden shift from one emotion to another.

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

The review of related literature has been given systematically pertaining to the present study.

RESEARCH STUDIES RELATED TO EMOTIONAL MATURITY

Lipton et al. (1975) revealed that emotional maturity was a major factor especially as a predictor of success in essay tests among medical students.

Choudhary & Uppal (1996) investigated that adolescents staying at homes with parents had higher level of achievement motivation (mean 53.58) and had more emotional maturity (mean 89.5) as compared to their counterpart staying in the orphanages the means score of achievement motivation (51.08) and emotional maturity (53.58).

Jha (2002) observed that self-confidence and emotional maturity were positively associated with vigilant style of decision making in case of executives.

Mittal & Bajaj (2003) found that the mother's emotional maturity is significantly correlated to their children's intelligence. The child who receives maternal love, conducive home environment and proper care and facilities during their impressionable period of life help to develop an intellectual competence in their future life. Further, working women were found to be more emotionally matured than non-working women. Also, children of working mothers were more intelligent than children of non-working mothers.

Singh & Thukral (2010) reported that there exists no significant relationship between emotional maturity and academic achievements of high school students. No significant differences were observed between boys and girls as well as rural and urban high school students on the basis of emotional maturity.

RESEARCH STUDIES RELATED TO SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS

Banjamin (1965) concluded that each and every aspects of socio-economic status of the students is not equally effective but family income plays a relatively important role in having better scholastic attainment.

Blood (1976) investigated the relationship between self- esteem, family authority

ability structure, socio-economic status and academic achievements of high school students. The researcher found that a firm but loving family environment has significant influence on academic achievement positively.

Jain (1981) found that the academic achievement of the pupils of urban area was better than that of the pupils of the rural areas and socio-economic level of the pupils achievement in all the subjects. The pupil belonging to the upper socio-economic level achieved better than the pupils, whose parents belong to the middle socio-economic level followed by those who belong to the lower socio-economic level.

Singh (1981) conducted a study on the relationship of socio-economic status and home environment with academic achievement. He found that socio-economic status and home environment is positively and significantly related to academic achievement.

Mishra (1986) studied the influence of socio-economic status on academic achievement of higher secondary school students in rural and urban areas and found that there was a positive relationship between socio-economic status and academic achievement of students.

Kaur (2010) found that different students have different socio economic status and their socio economic status score ranged from 46 to 224.

OBJECTIVE OF THE STUDY

- O.** To study marital status wise difference in emotional maturity of prospective secondary school teachers with respect to Emotional Stability, Emotional Progression, Social Adjustment, Personality Integration and Independence.

HYPOTHESIS OF THE STUDY

- H.** There will be no significant marital status-wise difference in the emotional maturity of prospective secondary school teachers with respect to Emotional Stability, Emotional Progression, Social Adjustment, Personality Integration and Independence.

RESEARCH TOOL USED

In the present study 'Emotional Maturity Scale' developed by Dr. Mahesh Bhargava was used. It comprises of 48 items in Hindi language with five alternative responses.

SAMPLING

In the present investigation, a representative sample of 340 prospective secondary school teachers was drawn from Mandi and Bilaspur Districts of Himachal Pradesh through convenient sampling.

STATISTICAL TREATMENT OF DATA

Descriptive statistics like Mean, S.D and the t'-test were employed.

ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF DATA

Analysis and interpretation of the obtained data was made by keeping in mind the objective of the study as given below:

MARITAL STATUS-WISE COMPARISON OF EMOTIONAL MATURITY OF PROSPECTIVE SECONDARY SCHOOL TEACHERS

In order to study the marital status-wise significance of difference in the emotional maturity of prospective secondary school teachers, the statistical technique of t-test was applied. The dimension wise summary of statistical calculations is presented in the Table-1.

Table-1

| Variable | Married Group | Unmarried Group | t'-Value | Significance |
|-------------------------|---------------|-----------------|----------|--------------|
| Emotional Stability | N= 245 | N= 95 | 8.14 | ** |
| | M= 15.8 | M=20.85 | | |
| | SD= 5.1 | SD= 5.2 | | |
| Emotional Progression | N= 245 | N= 95 | 2.46 | * |
| | M= 16.56 | M=18.32 | | |
| | SD= 5.7 | SD= 6.0 | | |
| Social Adjustment | N= 245 | N= 95 | 1.14 | NS |
| | M= 14.62 | M=15.22 | | |
| | SD= 4.2 | SD= 4.4 | | |
| Personality Integration | N= 245 | N= 95 | 1.37 | NS |
| | M= 13.64 | M=14.22 | | |
| | SD= 2.95 | SD= 3.7 | | |
| Independence | N= 245 | N= 95 | 2.14 | * |
| | M= 17.86 | M=16.43 | | |
| | SD= 5.5 | SD= 5.55 | | |

**=Significant at 0.01 level of significance, *Significant at 0.05 level of significance and NS= Not Significant

It is evident from the Table-1 that comparing the mean scores of married and unmarried prospective secondary teachers according to all aspects of emotional maturity scale, the hypothesis of the study that, 'There will be no significant marital status-wise difference in the emotional maturity of prospective secondary school teachers with respect to Emotional Stability, Emotional Progression, Social Adjustment, Personality Integration and Independence', was rejected for emotional stability, emotional progression and independence, whereas it was accepted for social adjustment and personality integration dimensions of emotional maturity.

CONCLUSIONS

On the basis of statistical analysis and interpretation of data, the following conclusions have been drawn:

- Married and unmarried prospective secondary school teachers differ significantly with respect to their emotional stability. The mean score of emotional stability of prospective married secondary school teachers (20.85) is significantly higher than prospective unmarried secondary school teachers (15.8), and thus reflecting higher emotional stability.
- There is significant marital status-wise difference in the emotional progression of prospective secondary school teachers. Prospective married secondary school teachers possess significantly higher emotional progression than prospective unmarried secondary school teachers.
- There is no significant marital status-wise difference in the emotional maturity of prospective secondary school teachers in social area.
- There is no significant difference in the mean scores of personality integration of married and unmarried prospective secondary school teachers.
- Married and unmarried prospective secondary school teachers differ significantly in their emotional maturity with respect to independence area. Thus, it may be interpreted that the unmarried prospective secondary school teachers have higher independence than married prospective secondary school teachers.

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Received on 20/02/2019

Accepted on 28/03/2019

TEACHING LEARNING PROCESS IN CHEMISTRY AND ITS IMPACT ON ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT OF SENIOR SECONDARY SCHOOL STUDENTS

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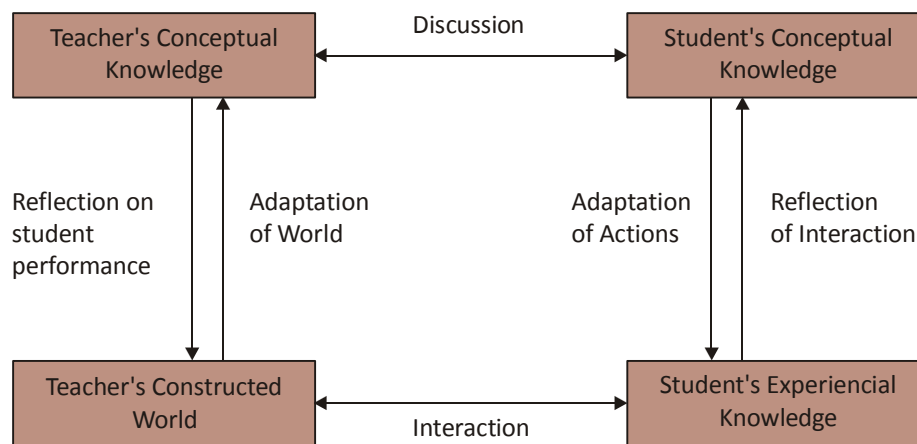
ABSTRACT

This paper has been designed to discuss the teaching-learning process of government and private senior secondary schools in the subject of chemistry in Himachal Pradesh. The data was collected from 200 students of +2 Class from 10 senior secondary schools of Una District in Himachal Pradesh with help of self developed scale namely, 'Scale on Teaching-Learning-Process in Chemistry' through Purposive technique of non-probability sampling. The t' test was computed to find out the difference in perceptions on teaching-learning process in chemistry among students of government and private schools. The findings of the study indicates that government school students were found less than in their perceptions on teaching-learning process in chemistry as compared to private school students.

KEY WORDS: Teaching-Learning Process, Quality Education, Technological Advancements, Imaginative and Artistic Abilities.....

INTRODUCTION

India is a fast developing country and the basic aim of science education in India is to improve quality of instruction. Quality of education is directly related with quality of instruction in the classroom. The teacher is considered to be the most crucial factor in implementing the educational reforms at grass root level. It is a fact that academic qualifications, knowledge of the subject matter, competence and skill of teaching affect teaching-learning process. Hence, there is a need to use appropriate methods of teaching in order to present the concepts in an effective way.



Teaching-Learning Process

Teaching-learning process in science involves teacher, learner and instructional material. The instructional material serves as an essential link between the teacher and the learner. The teacher uses the instructional material according to modern method of teaching to educate children to realize the predetermined aim of education. The components of teaching learning process are objective, content and evaluation. Objectives include course objectives, seasonal objective, subject objectives, topic objectives and lesson objectives. Content or subject matter, include the sequence and organization of components of knowledge.

THE TEACHING PROCESS

The teaching process starts with the teacher. In teaching-learning process of sciences the role of teacher has become very challenging , complex and multifaceted on account of the explosion of knowledge and radical changes occurring in the current areas, emerging concepts , new technologies , mass media , heterogeneous socio – economic status groups of students and the explosion of expectations from the teachers. Teaching is the communication of factual and interpretive knowledge between teacher and student

Phases of Teaching

Teaching is a system of action intended to induce learning. The process of teaching has been divided in to three phases or stages by Jackson (1966). These stages are:

- ❑ Pre-Active Phase of Teaching
- ❑ Interactive Phase of Teaching
- ❑ Post-Active Phase of Teaching

The first Pre-active phase is the planning phase / stage, which includes all that a teacher does before he actually enters the classroom to teach. the operations in this phase includes ; specifying instructions objective , selection of content , sequencing of the content deciding strategies to be employed and deployment of the strategies .

Secondly we have the Interactive phase with includes all the behaviors and activities between the time a teacher enters the classroom and the time a lesson has been delivered by him. Its operation includes the sizing up of the class, diagnosis of the learner's action or achievement which includes selection and presentation of stimuli reinforcement or feedback and deployment of strategies.

Lastly, the post-active or evaluation stage. Its operation includes defining the exact the dimensions of behavior change that is ,the teacher compares the expected and at the end of his teaching , selection of appropriate testing devices , that is ,the teacher chooses testing the techniques and tools to measure the various dimensions of behavior and thus not the changes caused by his teaching and results obtained with enable – the teacher to understand where he lagged behind in his teaching goals ,why and how he can improve his teaching by restructuring the teaching situation .

THE LEARNING PROCESS

The learning process starts with the learner. According to psychological findings and democratic feelings, education starts from the child. According to Gestalt view learning is a relativistic process by which a learner develops a new insight or changes the old ones. The change in insight is referred to as change in the cognitive structure like facts, concepts, beliefs etc.

Instructional Process

To maintain and to make teaching learning process more effective teacher specify teaching objectives , select and organize content and learning experiences and evaluate the whole instructional process.

Taba (1962) secondary school headmistress was very critical about the superficial nature of education. She says, “a curriculum is essentially a plan of learning and to make it more dynamic it should be orderly designed according the following eight steps:

- ❑ Diagnosis of needs
- ❑ Formulation of course objectives
- ❑ Selecting content
- ❑ Organizing content
- ❑ Selection of learning experiences
- ❑ Organization of learning experience
- ❑ Evaluation
- ❑ Checking for balance and sequence

Diagnosis is a very important part of curriculum development. It is a process of determining the facts which need to be taken account while making curricular decisions. Curriculum should accommodate different types of learner and this can best be done after determining what the students know, what they can understand, the skills they have acquired and the mental processes, they had already mastered.

ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT

The term academic derived from the term academic a school where special types of instruction are imparted. The term academic means institutional system of formal education with school, college and university. The scholastic achievement is the most important goal of education. With the achievement in the field of science, education and culture, the people have understood the importance of education and have become education minded.

Academic achievement means the amount of knowledge gained by the students in different areas of study. Its measurement encourages the students who work hard. It is also helpful for teacher to know whether teaching methods are effective or not and helps him in bringing improvement accordingly. Thus assessments help both teachers and students to know where they stand.

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Several studies has been conducted on the teaching learning process in chemistry

which includes fields like curriculum, use of audio-visual aids, teachers effectiveness, various strategies' of teaching and their effect on teaching.

Sharma & Kumar (1992) conducted a research on 300 secondary school teachers of Himachal Pradesh and determined the relative importance of various teaching skills in term of preference of practicing teachers. the result of the study shows that the teachers consider these skills relatively more important which either produced maximum student involvement in teaching learning process or were helpful in accelerating the pace of teaching by compensations. The skill of promoting pupil participation, using teaching aids and questioning were thus judged as the most important teaching skill.

Rani (1997) in her study found that the rural science teachers were found to be ignorant of the objectives of the science teaching .Inadequate reference materials in libraries, non existence of library as well as laboratory assistants was observed. Science clubs were found to exist only 30% of school students who participated in science clubs activities and science quiz competition were found to posses' favorable and positive attitude toward science.

Dinesh (2006) in his study on the present status of teaching learning process in science used by science teachers at high school level and revealed that;

- 87.5 % of science teacher were aware about objectives in teaching and 12.5 % of teachers were not aware.
- 87.5% of teachers went to classroom without any prior plan on design. Most of them felt that there experience as teacher had taught them much more as compared to what they had learnt.
- 50% of teachers asks question about previous knowledge while starting the lesson.
- 100% of teacher used the lecture method, chalk board method and text book method.
- 89% of the teachers did not take their students to educational trips related to their subject.
- Another very important fact highlighted was regarding practical work
The practical laboratories were not in good condition.

Hofstein & Namman (2007) reviewed the status of practical work in science education and criticized the effectiveness of practical work and claimed that the practical work is

entirely fruitless and has frequently been used without precise and unelaborated purpose and demanded for looking into the real essence of practical work.

Shadreck (2012) evaluated the advanced level chemistry teaching in Gweru district schools, Zimbabwe and indicated that the teaching of chemistry is faced with a number of challenges which include the overloaded curriculum such that there is too much to cover in the available time, inadequate resources, equipment apparatus and consumables. Inadequate equipment, apparatus and consumables do limit the conduction of laboratory practical work in the schools. Apart from the lack of resources which significantly limit the teaching and learning of chemistry, the chemistry teachers themselves are not well positioned to teach chemistry effectively due to deficiencies arising from the use of inappropriate teaching methods for teaching chemistry. The teachers also do not have support staff that is essential adjuncts to allow teachers the time required to plan and implement an inquiry-based chemistry curriculum.

Several studies have been conducted in the field of curriculum and use of audio visual aids and their effect on teaching. The researcher felt the need to take up this study a teaching of chemistry to senior secondary classes is a challenging job and there is a need to look in the teaching learning process so as to find out the possible gaps

OBJECTIVE OF THE STUDY

The objective of the present study was:

- O.** To find out the difference towards perception in teaching-learning process in chemistry of +2 students in government and private schools.

HYPOTHESIS OF THE STUDY

The hypothesis of the study was:

- H.** There is no significant difference towards perception in teaching learning process in chemistry of +2 students in government and private schools.

DELIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The delimitations of the study were:

- 1.** The study was delimited to the senior secondary school students of Una District in Himachal Pradesh
- 2.** The study was conducted only on chemistry subject of +2 class.

3. The study was delimited to only 10 senior secondary schools.
4. The study was delimited in terms time and resources.

RESEARCH METHOD

The present study is descriptive in nature. To evaluate teaching-learning process in chemistry and its impact on the educational achievement of +2 students, the researcher has used descriptive survey method.

SAMPLING

The present study was conducted in ten senior secondary schools of Una District in Himachal Pradesh. The samples were selected on purposive bases without any consideration to gender and social background. 100 Government and 100 Private +2 students were selected purposively.

TOOL USED

The investigator had constructed a scale namely, 'Scale on Teaching- Learning- Process in Chemistry' was used to collect the data from subjects.

STATISTICAL TECHNIQUES USED

To find out the difference in teaching-learning process of the government and private schools, the t' -test was computed.

ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

The analysis and interpretation of data led to draw rational conclusions on the research problem. The data has been analyzed through statistical techniques to yield certain results.

The objective was designed to find out the difference towards perception in teaching-learning process in chemistry of +2 students in government and private schools in Himachal Pradesh. On the basis of related literature review, the hypothesis for this objective was formulated as there is no significant difference in perception towards teaching-learning process in chemistry of +2 students in government and private schools. In order to verify the hypothesis, t' - value was computed and results obtained from the t' -test are shown in Table-1.

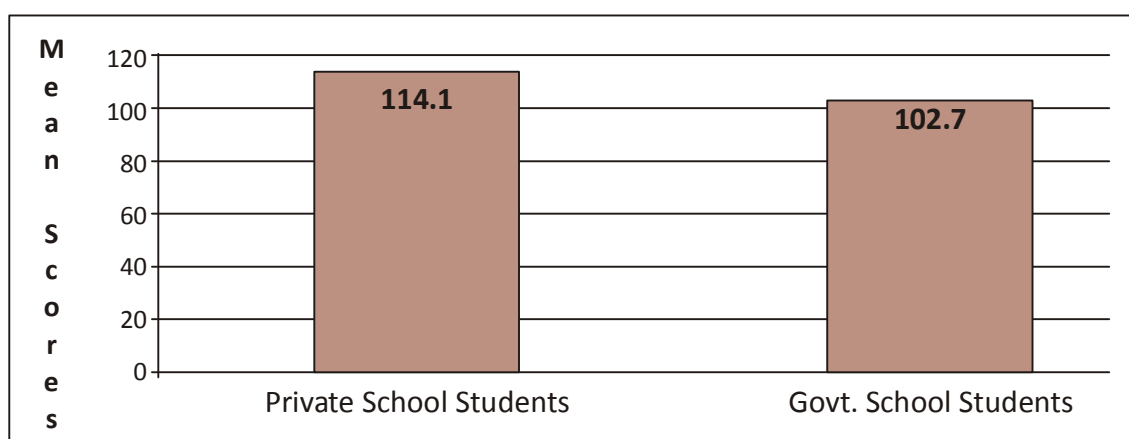
Table-1

| Group | N | Mean | SD | SED | t' - Value | Significance |
|-----------------------------------|-----|-------|-------|------|-------------|--------------|
| Govt. Sen. Sec. School Students | 100 | 102.7 | 21.91 | 2.80 | 4.08 | ** |
| Private Sen. Sec. School Students | 100 | 114.1 | 17.38 | | | |

****= Significant at 0.01 Level of Significance**

The Table-1 depicts that mean score of government students is 102.70 and standard deviation is 21.91. The mean score of private students is 114.12 and standard deviation is 17.38. Standard error of difference of mean is 2.80 and finally calculated t' value is 4.08 and is significant at 0.01 level of significance. This means that private school students were found to have greater perception towards teaching- learning process in chemistry as compared to government school students. Hence, the hypothesis that, 'There is no significant difference towards perception in teaching-learning process in chemistry of +2 students in government and private schools' was rejected.

The following Graph-1.1 shows the significant difference in mean scores of government and private +2 students towards perception in teaching-learning process in chemistry.

Graph-1.1

Showing Significant Difference in Perception towards Teaching-Learning Process in Chemistry among +2 Students Of Government and Private Schools

FINDING OF THE STUDY

In the light of analysis & interpretation, private school +2 students were found to have greater perception towards teaching- learning process in chemistry as compared to government school +2 students.

EDUCATIONAL IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY

On the basis of literature review and finding of the study, the followings may be helpful in bridging the gap between government and private school teachers to improve and provide equal opportunities to students in teaching-learning process in chemistry in both settings:

1. Chemistry teachers should be made aware with the objectives of teaching chemistry at secondary level.
2. Technological aids should be used while teaching or demonstrating concepts in chemistry.
3. Learners should be involved in teaching learning process for developing concepts and improvised apparatus.
4. In-service training programs for chemistry teachers should be organized.
5. More emphasis should be given on practical work.
6. While teaching more emphasis should be given on scientific methods like heuristic, project, problem solving and inductive and deductive approaches.
7. CCE should be done in an impartial manner.

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Received on 24/03/2019
Accepted on 03/04/2019

NATURE AND DIMENSIONALITY OF ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR

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ABSTRACT

The article discusses the existing literature on organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB) to bring out a comprehensive theoretical framework for the construct, along with the multiple dimensions as proposed by research scholars. Specifically, the purpose is to highlight the nature of OCB in terms of its dimensionality. Implications for further consideration on the OCB domain have also been presented.

KEY WORDS : Organizational Citizenship Behaviour, Framework, Construct, Dimensionality.....

INTRODUCTION

The way the organizations operate in today's globalized world is altogether different from the industrial age, where the main emphasis was on improving productivity of workers. In today's time, the competitive ability of an organization and behaviors that improve individual as well as organizational efficiency are valued (**Turnipseed & Murkison, 2000**). As a result the interest in the field of organizational citizenship behavior has increased over the years for managers as well as scholars (**Howard, 1995; Le Pine, et al., 2002**). The increased interest has resulted in more than 650 research articles being published on OCB and related constructs since inception, (**Dekas et al., 2013**). Also the willingness of the employee's to "go above and beyond" the formal job description is considered a vital condition for effective organizational functioning. (**Barnard, 1938; Katz & Kahn, 1978; Organ, 1990**). Such behaviours were termed as discretionary behaviours which reflected cooperation, but not compulsory gestures exhibited by the employees, and were neither rewarded nor compensated by the official reward system, (**Bateman & Organ, 1983; Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983; Organ & Konovsky, 1989**). The results of several empirical researches indicate that the organizations have benefitted through OCB in terms of improving sales performance, customer satisfaction, resolving customer complaints and improving in terms

of quality and quantity of product or the services offered, (Karambayya, 1990; Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1994; MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Ahearne, 1998; Walz & Niehoff, 1996; Koys, 2001; Podsakoff, Whiting, Podsakoff, & Blume, 2009).

Several terms closely linked with OCB have been used in literature by different scholars : extra-role behaviour (Van Dyne, Cummings, & Parks, 1995), organizational spontaneity (George & Brief, 1992; George & Jones, 1997), civic organizational behaviour (Graham, 1991), pro-social organizational behaviours (Brief & Motowidlo, 1986; George, 1990, 1991; George & Bettenhausen, 1990; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986), and contextual performance (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993, 1997; Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994, Borman, White & Dorsey, 1995;).

This diversification brings in the issue of conceptual clarity of organizational citizenship behaviour. There has been a lack of consensus among the researchers regarding the construct itself as well as model for OCB, (Yen, Li & Niehoff, 2008). Also the rapid growth of OCB has made it difficult for the scholars to keep up with the developments in the field, (Podsakoff et al., 2000).

In context with the above discussion, the purpose of this paper is to give theoretical framework for OCB including its dimensionality as proposed by various researchers since inception in early 1980s.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK OF OCB

The origin of OCB concept can be traced back to 1938, when Chester Barnard gave the theory of “cooperation and organization”, (Barnard, 1938). According to Barnard, “willingness to cooperate” is essential for the growth and survival of the organization. Taking into account, the observations of Chester Barnard, (Katz, 1964), identified three basic types of behaviours that are important for an organization to survive and function well, 1) people must be induced to enter and remain within the system, 2) they must carry out their role assignments in a dependable fashion, and 3) there must be innovative and spontaneous activity in achieving organizational objectives which go beyond the role specification. According to him the in-role behaviours are the assigned roles well defined by the job description. Extra- role behaviours are actions which are not specified by role prescriptions but they surely facilitate the accomplishment of organizational goals. Katz didn't use the term organizational citizenship behaviour then, rather he classified the extra-role behaviours as “innovative and spontaneous behaviours”. Katz (1964, p132),

stated “an organization which depends solely upon its blueprints of prescribed behaviour is a very fragile social system”. It is extremely essential for the organizational survival and effectiveness that the employees must engage themselves in the extra-role behaviours. **Katz (1964)**, gave five different dimensions of “innovative and spontaneous behaviours”: cooperating with others, protecting the organization, volunteering constructive ideas, self-training, and maintaining a favourable attitude toward the company. According to **Katz and Kahn (1966)**, Organizational well-functioning depends heavily on extra-role behaviours, therefore managers need employees who contribute more than what is prescribed in their work contract.

It was **Bateman & Organ (1983)**, who gave the term “citizenship”, which in turn gave rise, to the term “Organizational Citizenship Behaviour” (OCB), (**Bateman & Organ, 1983; Smith, Organ & Near, 1983**). **Organ (1988: 4)** defined organizational citizenship behaviours as “individual behaviour that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organization. By *discretionary*, we mean that the behaviour is not an *enforceable* requirement of the role or the job description, that is, the clearly specifiable terms of the person’s employment contract with the organization; the behaviour is rather a matter of personal choice, such that its omission is not generally understood as punishable.” **Borman & Motowidlo, (1993, p 73)** termed these behaviours as “Contextual performance”, and defined as “behaviours that do not support the technical core itself so much as they support the broader organizational, social and psychological environment in which the technical core must function”. One thing that differentiated contextual performance (**Borman & Motowidlo, 1993, 1997; Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994, Borman, White, & Dorsey, 1995**), from OCB was that it was not required for these behaviour to be extra-role and neither was it non rewarded. The contextual performance, just like OCB included actions like helping others, following work rules and regulations, volunteering for extra job activities.

According to (**Borman & Motowidlo, 1993**) contextual performance differed from task performance in the sense, that such contributions have a generalized value across jobs and organizations whereas the task performance varies in nature. These behaviours and their contribution were valued by the leaders in the organization which gained support from several studies, (**Orr, Sackett & Mercer 1989; MacKenzie, S. B., Podsakoff, P. M., & Fetter, R. 1991; Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994; Borman, White & Dorsey, 1995**)

The working definition of OCB given by **Organ (1988)**, was also criticized by **Morrison (1994)**. He stated that “OCB is ill-defined and varies from one employee to the next and between employees and supervisors, (**Morrison, 1994, p 1561**). Overlap of several constructs of ERB: OCB, principal organizational dissent, (POD), pro-social organizational behaviour, (POB) and whistle blowing (WB) were also addressed regarding the working definition, (**Van Dyne et al., 1995**).

The issues faced by **Organ (1997)** in defining OCB as extra-role behaviour lied in blurred usage of concepts “roles” and “jobs”. These roles were found to have evolved, from leader -subordinate, give and take relationship (**Dansereau, Graen & Haga, 1975**). It was further suggested that some forms of OCB lead to monetary compensation, (**MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Fetter, 1991; Werner, 1994**).

Giving a due recognition to the conceptual difficulties with the working definition (**Organ, 1988**), Organ, redefined OCB as behavior that contributes “to the maintenance and enhancement of the social and psychological context that supports task performance” (**Organ, 1997, p. 91**). This definition was much similar with contextual performance as defined by (**Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; 1997, Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994**). Although OCB has been defined specifically as stated still, there seems to be lot of overlap as far as its dimensionality is concerned. In the next section, the dimensionality of OCB as proposed by different research scholars is emphasized upon with an objective to synthesize the literature on the same and bring in the similarities and differences in the given constructs.

DIMENSIONALITY OF OCB

Since the time organizational citizenship behaviour was first introduced by Bateman and Organ (**1983**), there has been a lot of advancement in this field. The rapid development in the area has brought in several issues along with, one of them being the issue of keeping up with the developments, and the other most crucial issue is the overlap of different dimensions proposed by the scholars, (**Podsakoff et al., 2000**). The following section summarizes the contribution of research scholars in terms of dimensionality of the OCB construct.

Smith, Organ & Near (1983), conducted a study to elaborate on the nature and predictors of citizenship behavior. Two separate dimensions: Altruism and Generalized Compliance were identified as a result. While Altruism captured behaviour that was directly and intentionally aimed at helping a specific person in face-to face situations (e.g. , helping

people who have been absent, assisting someone with heavy workload, guiding new people even though not required), Generalized Compliance on the other hand depicted a more impersonal form of conscientiousness citizenship behaviour. This dimension involved behaviour of an individual like being punctual, not wasting time, and complying with the organizational rules and regulations. Although this dimension did not aim to help a specific individual but was in the best interest of the organization.

Five years later, **Organ (1988)** proposed a five dimension model of OCB: Altruism, Conscientiousness, sportsmanship, Courtesy and Civic Virtue. Altruism refers to voluntary behaviour of an individual with an objective to help the other person in case he faces an issue with a task or problem, helping new employee, and guiding them even if it is not required. Courtesy refers to proactive behaviours in order to avoid potential problems which may arise in the organization, not creating problem for the co-workers. Sportsmanship refers to tolerating the inconveniences and work impositions without complaining. Conscientiousness refers to behaviours that go beyond the minimum job requirements and include actions like punctuality, following organization rules and regulations. Civic virtue refers to those behaviours that are in best interest of the organization e.g. attending meetings, responding to emails on regular basis, keeping abreast of the developments that may help organization.

Organ, (1990 a; 1990b) came up with another classification two years later after he proposed the five-dimensional model to include Peacemaking and Cheerleading. This model had the dimensions: Altruism, Courtesy, Peacemaking, Cheerleading and Sportsmanship. (**Podsakoff, Whiting, Podsakoff, & Blume, 2009**). Here Altruism was referred as those voluntary actions by an individual that aimed at helping other person having problems with work, helping a co-worker in case of backlog, getting materials needed by a colleague that can't be procured by his own. Courtesy signified all those behaviours that prevented problem for others, providing advance notice to someone for work scheduling. Peacemaking dimension aimed at helping to prevent and resolve conflict. Cheerleading referred to the motivating behaviour, encouraging co-workers for professional development and sportsmanship referred to behaviour reflecting tolerance, and not complaining in spite of the inconveniences.

Williams & Anderson (1991), were of the opinion that Organ's five-dimension model of OCB could be reduced into two broad categories (**Hoffman et al., 2007**). They came up

with the concept of OCB-I (OCB-individual) and OCB-O (OCB-organization). OCB-I included two dimensions of Organ's (1988) model: Altruism and Courtesy whereas the remaining three dimensions : conscientiousness, civic virtue, and sportsmanship formed part of OCB-O. Here OCB-I were the behaviours that directly benefitted the specific individuals, and in this manner contributed towards the organization. OCB-O on the other hand signified those behaviours that benefitted the organization in general. Such behaviours include giving advance notice when on leave, abiding rules and regulations.

Graham (1991) identified the following dimensions of OCB: Organizational loyalty, organizational obedience, and organizational participation. Organizational loyalty is identification with the organization as a whole. Such behaviour includes defending the organization against threats, cooperating with the fellow workers and working in order to create a good reputation for the organization. Organizational obedience is following the protocol, respecting the rules and regulations, working as per the job description, respecting the organizational policies. Organizational participation is reflected by behaviour like active participation in the organization functions, attending meeting not mandatory but important for the organization image, building on new ideas.

Borman & Motowildo (1993, 1997) identified behaviour of employees that endorsed, supported and defended the organizational objectives. The other dimension they identified was helping and cooperating with others. This behaviour included assisting the co-workers, helping customers. It was identical with the OCB-I (**Williams & Anderson, 1991**). Another dimension compliance which meant respecting and obeying the organizational rules and regulations, meeting deadlines was identical with OCB-O (**Williams & Anderson, 1991**). They also highlighted the behaviours like persistence and exhibiting extra efforts for attainment of goals. Volunteering for carrying out the activities that are not prescribed in the job description.

Morrison (1994) identified a five-dimensional framework for OCB: altruism, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, involvement, and keeping up with changes. Here involvement means keeping abreast of the changes, participating in the organizational activities, meetings (**Morrison, 1994, p 1552**). Keeping up with the changes means being aware about the organization events and being aware of the changes that are happening. These two dimensions involvement and keeping up with changes clearly overlap with civic virtue (**Organ, 1988**). There was an overlap in given altruism dimension with altruism

and courtesy dimensions, (**Organ, 1988**). However the conceptualization of the conscientiousness dimension was a bit narrower in comparison to the one proposed by (**Organ, 1988**).

Moorman & Blakely (1995) gave four dimensions for OCB: interpersonal helping, individual initiative, personal industry, and loyal boosterism. Interpersonal helping means assisting colleagues in work related problems, and voluntarily helping new employees to settle in their new jobs. Individual initiative implies positive communication with the co-workers for improving individual and group performance. Personal industry is performing extra tasks and making extra effort which is beyond the call of duty. Loyal Boosterism means the act of promoting the organization image to the outsiders. The last dimension of loyal boosterism is very much similar to spreading goodwill concept by (**George & Brief 1992**).

Van Scotter & Motowidlo (1996) gave two dimensions of OCB: interpersonal facilitation and job dedication. Interpersonal facilitation encompasses wide range of interpersonal actions that help maintain the interpersonal and social context needed to support the effective task performance in organizational setting; (**Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996**). These behaviours are similar to other dimensions as defined by scholars. Interpersonal behaviours include altruism and courtesy (**Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983; Organ, 1988**) and helping co-workers (**George & Brief 1992**). Job dedication on the other hand was found to be similar to generalized compliance dimension of **Organ (1988)**.

George & Brief (1992) and George and Jones (1997) identified two dimensions: Helping behaviours and Spreading Goodwill. The first dimension was identical with OCB-I (**Williams & Anderson, 1991**). It included voluntary form of help that the employees provided to each other for facilitation and attainment of goals. It also included helping co-workers with a heavy workload, giving instructions while using new technology. The other dimension, spreading goodwill is a way of voluntarily contributing to the organizational effectiveness by representing the organization to wider communities for the organizational benefit. This behaviour is basically aimed at highlighting one's organization as supportive and caring .

In view of the above context, considering the issue of overlap among the categorizations and usage of different labels for the same dimension, over thirty different forms of OCBs were identified by (**Podsakoff et al., 2000**). These were clubbed in seven

common themes: (1) Helping Behaviour, (2) Sportsmanship, (3) Organizational Loyalty, (4) Organizational Compliance, (5) Individual Initiative, (6) Civic Virtue, and (7) Self Development .

A person exhibiting “helping behaviour” prevents problems at work by helping co-workers voluntarily or helping co-workers once a problem had occurred. He also does not create problems for co-workers. Helping behaviour has been identified as one of the most important forms of citizenship behaviour by all the researchers who have worked in this field, (**Organ, 1988, 1990a, 1990b; Smith, Organ & Near, 1983; Williams & Anderson, 1991 Borman & Motowidlo, 1993, 1997; Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996**). An attempt has been made by (**Podsakoff et al., 2000**) to bring out the commonalities in the dimensions given by different scholars. The first part of Helping behaviour as identified by (**Podsakoff et al., 2000**) covers altruism, peacemaking and cheerleading dimensions (**Organ, 1988, 1990b**), interpersonal helping (**Graham, 1989, Moorman & Blakely, 1995**), OCB-I (**Williams & Anderson, 1991**), interpersonal facilitation (**Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996**), and helping co-workers (**George & Brief, 1992; George & Jones, 1997**). The second part of the definition (not creating problem for the co-workers) coincides with Organ’s (**1988, 1990b**) courtesy dimension, which involves helping others by taking steps to prevent the creation of problems for co-workers.

Organ (1990b: 96) defined sportsmanship as “a willingness to tolerate the inevitable inconveniences and impositions of work without complaining.” As opined by (**Podsakoff et al., 2000**), by being a “good sport,” an individual would not take rejection of his ideas on a personal level and would not complain if he was inconvenienced by others, maintains a positive attitude when things are not favourable, and is willing to sacrifice his personal interest in favour of the group.

A person staying committed to the organization even in unfavourable circumstances is considered to have a strong organizational loyalty. Organizational loyalty in essence includes promoting the organization, protecting it against threats and remaining committed in adverse conditions, (**Podsakoff et al., 2000**). Organizational loyalty coincides with **Graham’s (1989)** loyal boosterism and organizational loyalty, **George & Brief’s (1992)** spreading goodwill, **Borman & Motowidlo’s (1993)** endorsing, supporting, and defending organizational objectives dimension, means promoting the organization to outsiders, protecting and defending it against external threats.

When a member accepts the rules, regulations, and procedures of the organization even when no one is supervising or monitoring compliance is seem to display behaviour termed “organizational compliance”. An organizational member who volunteers for extra responsibilities or shows extra enthusiasm in accomplishing his goal reflects “individual initiative”. Organizational compliance has been labelled as generalized compliance by **Smith et al.,(1983)**, organizational obedience by **Van Dyne, Graham, & Dienesch (1994)**, **OCB-O** by Williams and Anderson, abiding organizational rules and procedures by **Borman & Motowidlo (1993)**, and some features of **Van Scotter & Motowidlo (1996)** job dedication.

Individual initiative refers to employees voluntarily working above and beyond the call of duty, making extra efforts and displaying high amount of enthusiasm. This dimension is termed as extra-role just because of the fact that it involved the engagement of an individual in task related behaviours and that is on a voluntary level. This dimension overlaps with conscientiousness (**Organ, 1988**), personal industry and individual initiative (**Graham, 1989; Moorman & Blakely, 1995**), making constructive suggestions (**George & Brief, 1992**), volunteering to carry out task activities, and persisting with enthusiasm (**Borman & Motowidlo, 1997**), and partially the job dedication dimension (**Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996**).

Civic virtue is yet another dimension showing commitment to the organization at macro-level. Such behaviour is reflected by willingness to participate in the governance of the organization, keeping abreast with the latest developments in the environment, and looking for larger interest of the organization as a whole. This dimension corresponds with civic virtue (**Organ, 1988, 1990b**), organizational participation (**Graham, 1989**), and protecting the organization dimension (**George & Brief, 1992**).

The last dimension of self development is voluntarily improving one’s knowledge, skills, and abilities in one’s job, (**Podsakoff et al., 2000**). Self development might include “seeking out and taking advantage of advanced training courses, keeping abreast of the latest developments in one’s field and area, or even learning a new set of skills so as to expand the range of one’s contributions to an organization”, (**George & Brief, 1992: 155**). A careful examination reveals that the OCB dimensions identified and grouped under the seven common themes by and far are very similar to the five dimensions of “innovative and spontaneous” behaviour, given by **Katz (1964)**, (**Podsakoff et al.,2000**)

THREE-DIMENSION INTEGRATED MODEL OF CITIZENSHIP PERFORMANCE

Coleman & Borman (2000) observed that the number of behavioural elements that fit in definition of OCB have increased rapidly, but the extent to which these elements represent the broader underlying constructs had not been identified by the research scholars. Hence by comparing the previous models of OCB and related constructs in terms of similarities and differences (**Smith et al., 1983; Organ, 1988; Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996; Van Dyne et al., 1994**), **Coleman & Borman (2000)** developed a “three-dimension integrated model of citizenship performance”. The model was divided into three categories: interpersonal, organizational, and job/task citizenship performance.

The interpersonal dimension of the model refers to behaviours that benefit members of the organization and corresponds partly with the altruism of **Smith, Organ & Near (1983)**, courtesy by **Organ (1988)**, with OCB-I by **Williams & Anderson (1991)**, social participation by **Van Dyne et al., (1994)**, interpersonal facilitation by **Van Scotter & Motowidlo (1996)** and **Morrison (1994)**.

The second dimension, organizational citizenship performance depicts the behaviours that benefit the organization. Such behaviours add on to the efficiency of the organization by enhancing the performance and shares similarity with OCB-O by **Williams & Anderson (1991)**, generalized compliance of **Smith et al., (1983)**, civic virtue, sportsmanship, and conscientiousness given by **Organ (1988)**, involvement, keeping up with changes sportsmanship, and conscientiousness dimensions of **Morrison (1994)**, loyalty and obedience of **Van Dyne et al., (1994)**, and the job dedication dimension of **Van Scotter & Motowidlo (1996)**.

The final dimension of job/task citizenship performance are the behaviours that benefit the job/task, and correspond with functional participation of **Van Dyne et al., (1994)** and job dedication of **Van Scotter & Motowidlo (1996)**.

DISCUSSION

According to **Hoffman, Blair, Meriac, & Woehr (2007)**, OCB is considered a relatively recent concept and there have been several repetitions in terms of definitions over the past 20 years. The ambiguity concerning the definition of OCB and how OCB should be measured has always been existent. The linkage of OCB with several other terms such as

: extra-role behaviour, (Van Dyne, Cummings, & Parks, 1995), organizational spontaneity (George & Brief, 1992; George & Jones, 1997), civic organizational behaviour (Graham, 1991), pro-social organizational behaviours (Brief & Motowidlo, 1986; George, 1990, 1991; George & Bettenhausen, 1990; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986), and contextual performance (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993, 1997; Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994, Borman, White & Dorsey, 1995;) has always been a point of concern for the research scholars.

In this study, an attempt was made to provide a comprehensive theoretical framework for better understanding of the OCB construct. Starting from the idea conceptualization of Chester Barnard (1938), contribution of Daniel Katz (1964) and the definition of the construct by Organ (1988) is presented. The criticism of definition given by Organ (1988), in terms of its discretionary behaviour and non rewarding nature of OCB to its modification by Organ (1997), is brought into light. Also the similarity of OCB construct with contextual performance, Borman and Motowidlo (1997) has also been highlighted.

In context with the dimensionality of OCB, it has been found that varied dimensions had been explored by the scholars from time to time. The prime issue that comes with multidimensionality of the construct is the overlap of these dimensions. Hence an attempt was first made to highlight the contribution of various research scholars along with the dimensions they had given followed by the consolidated framework given by Podsakoff et al.,(2000) and three-dimensional integrated framework by Coleman and Borman (2000).

IMPLICATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

The current study intended to provide a comprehensive theoretical framework for the OCB construct, with an objective to provide a background on its evolution and clarity on the construct. It also highlighted the similarities and the dissimilarities with other related terms used in OCB literature. The other major objective of the study was to highlight the work of research scholars and present the dimensionality of organizational citizenship behaviour, giving an insight into the shared similarities within the given dimensions.

The current study provides a base for the research scholars for clarifying their doubts on the OCB construct and get a better understanding by going through its multiple dimensions as explored from time to time.

Although the study gave an insight into the similarity and dissimilarity between OCB with contextual performance, further exploration is needed in terms of other related constructs i.e extra-role behaviour (EOB), principle organization dissent (POD) and whistle

blowing (Van Dyne, Cummings, & Parks, 1995), organizational spontaneity (George & Brief, 1992; George & Jones, 1997), civic organizational behaviour (Graham, 1991), and pro-social organizational behaviours (Brief & Motowidlo, 1986; George, 1990, 1991; George & Bettenhausen, 1990; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986).

Though the study highlighted the value of OCB by managers and Organizations, (Orr, Sackett & Mercer 1989; MacKenzie, S. B., Podsakoff, P. M., & Fetter, R. 1991; Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994, Borman, White & Dorsey, 1995) yet the issue of distinction between the in-role and citizenship behaviours still exists for the employees and managers, which requires further attention.

The intent of the study was to bring out the multiple dimensions of the construct, but in no way an attempt has been made to focus on either the determinants, antecedents or the consequences of OCB. The current study does provide a base for the researchers to explore the construct and dive further in the OCB Ocean to come out with the determinants, antecedents and the consequences thereof.

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Received on 20/11/2018
Accepted on 23/02/2019

WOMEN EMPOWERMENT: IMPORTANT ARTICLES AND MOVEMENTS**Savita Devi**

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ABSTRACT

Education is globally acknowledged as the most powerful means of empowering girls and women and protecting them from the violation of their human rights. Investing in girls' and women's education can transform, and even save, lives-the lives of girls and women, and the lives of their families and communities. It is one of the most effective ways to achieve positive, sustainable change in the world, for everyone. Women and girls in the developing world are often denied opportunities for education. Lack of education limits prospects, decreases family income, reduces health, puts women and girls at risk of trafficking and exploitation, and limits the economic advancement of entire countries. World Education believes that education for girls and women is the single most effective way to improve the lives of individual families as well as to bring economic development to poor communities worldwide. Experience has shown that when women have the freedom to make their own economic and social choices, the chains of poverty can be broken; families are strengthened; income is used for more productive purposes; the spread of sexually transmitted disease slows; and socially constructive values are more likely to be handed down to the young. The principle of gender equality is enshrined in the Indian Constitution in its Preamble, Fundamental Rights, Fundamental Duties and Directive Principles. The Constitution not only grants equality to women, but also empowers the State to adopt measures of positive discrimination in favour of women. Within the framework of a democratic polity, our laws, development policies, Plans and programmes have aimed at women's advancement in different spheres. India has also ratified various international conventions and human rights instruments committing to secure equal rights of women. Key among them is the ratification of the Convention on Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) in 1993. So, the present article has been designed to discuss the important articles and movements pertaining to women empowerment.

KEY WORDS: Empowerment, Constitutional Articles, Movements, Population, Equality, Development, Discrimination, Educational opportunities, Employment.....

INTRODUCTION

The principle of gender equality is enshrined in the Indian Constitution in its Preamble, Fundamental Rights, Fundamental Duties and Directive Principles. The Constitution not only grants equality to women, but also empowers the State to adopt measures of positive discrimination in favour of women. Within the framework of a democratic polity, our laws, development policies, Plans and programmes have aimed at women's advancement in different spheres. India has also ratified various international conventions and human rights instruments committing to secure equal rights of women. Key among them is the ratification of the Convention on Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) in 1993.

World Education has a long history of successfully working with local partners to design, manage, and evaluate community-based initiatives to advance the conditions of girls and women. World Education's programs help Girls enrolment and stay in school and help women gain access to or create new educational, financial, and social resources in their communities. World Education is also committed to empowering girls and women to improve their own lives, the lives of their families, and the conditions in their communities. For parents—and especially mothers—this means creating conditions that ensure their daughters have equal access to basic education, are able to make informed decisions about their futures, and are able to protect themselves from trafficking, sexual exploitation, and HIV, for example by improving educational opportunities for girls and women, World Education helps women develop skills that allow them to make decisions and influence community change. In turn, these programs have a positive impact on some of the most profound issues of our time: Population growth, HIV, peace and security, and the widening gap between the rich and poor.

Educated women will participate more in the labour force and, in turn, contribute to the GDP. Children of educated mothers (especially daughters) are more likely to go to school and have higher levels of educational attainment.

“The persistent constraints and deprivations that prevent many of the world's women from achieving their potential have huge consequences for individuals, families, communities and nations. Expanding women's ability to make decisions and take advantage of opportunities is critical to improving their lives as well as the world we all share.”

“Experience has shown that when women have the freedom to make their own economic and social choices, the chains of poverty can be broken; families are

strengthened; income is used for more productive purposes; the spread of sexually transmitted disease slows; and socially constructive values are more likely to be handed down to the young.”

Today more girls than ever go to school. However, despite progress, women and girls continue to face multiple barriers based on gender and its intersections with other factors, such as age, ethnicity, poverty, and disability, in the equal enjoyment of the right to quality education. This includes barriers, at all levels, to access quality education and within education systems, institutions, and classrooms, such as, amongst others:

- Harmful gender stereotypes and wrongful gender stereotyping
- Child marriage and early and unintended pregnancy
- Gender-based violence against women and girls
- Lack of inclusive and quality learning environments and inadequate and unsafe education infrastructure, including sanitation
- Poverty

The international community has recognised the equal right to quality education of everyone and committed to achieving gender equality in all fields, including education, through their acceptance of international human rights law. This means that states have legal obligations to remove all discriminatory barriers, whether they exist in law or in everyday life, and to undertake positive measures to bring about equality, including in access of, within, and through education.

The principle of gender equality is enshrined in the Indian Constitution in its Preamble, Fundamental Rights, Fundamental Duties and Directive Principles. The Constitution not only grants equality to women, but also empowers the State to adopt measures of positive discrimination in favour of women. Within the framework of a democratic polity, our laws, development policies, Plans and programmes have aimed at women’s advancement in different spheres. India has also ratified various international conventions and human rights instruments committing to secure equal rights of women. Key among them is the ratification of the Convention on Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) in 1993.

CONSTITUTIONAL PROVISIONS

The Constitution of India not only grants equality to women but also empowers the State to adopt measures of positive discrimination in favour of women for neutralizing

the cumulative socio economic, education and political disadvantages faced by them. Fundamental Rights, among others, ensure equality before the law and equal protection of law; prohibits discrimination against any citizen on grounds of religion, race, caste, sex or place of birth, and guarantee equality of opportunity to all citizens in matters relating to employment. Articles 14, 15, 15(3), 16, 39(a), 39(b), 39(c) and 42 of the Constitution are of specific importance in this regard.

Constitutional Privileges

- (i) Equality before law for women (**Article 14**)
- (ii) The State not to discriminate against any citizen on grounds only of religion, race, caste, sex, place of birth or any of them (**Article 15 (i)**)
- (iii) The State to make any special provision in favour of women and children (**Article 15 (3)**)
- (iv) Equality of opportunity for all citizens in matters relating to employment or appointment to any office under the State (**Article 16**)
- (v) The State to direct its policy towards securing for men and women equally the right to an adequate means of livelihood (**Article 39(a)**); and equal pay for equal work for both men and women (**Article 39(d)**)
- (vi) To promote justice, on a basis of equal opportunity and to provide free legal aid by suitable legislation or scheme or in any other way to ensure that opportunities for securing justice are not denied to any citizen by reason of economic or other disabilities (**Article 39 A**)
- (vii) The State to make provision for securing just and humane conditions of work and for maternity relief (**Article 42**)
- (viii) The State to promote with special care the educational and economic interests of the weaker sections of the people and to protect them from social injustice and all forms of exploitation (**Article 46**)
- (ix) The State to raise the level of nutrition and the standard of living of its people (**Article 47**)
- (x) To promote harmony and the spirit of common brotherhood amongst all the people of India and to renounce practices derogatory to the dignity of women (**Article 51(A) (e)**)

- (xi) Not less than one-third (including the number of seats reserved for women belonging to the Scheduled Castes and the Scheduled Tribes) of the total number of seats to be filled by direct election in every Panchayat to be reserved for women and such seats to be allotted by rotation to different constituencies in a Panchayat **(Article 243 D(3))**
- (xii) Not less than one- third of the total number of offices of Chairpersons in the Panchayats at each level to be reserved for women **(Article 243 D (4))**
- (xiii) Not less than one-third (including the number of seats reserved for women belonging to the Scheduled Castes and the Scheduled Tribes) of the total number of seats to be filled by direct election in every Municipality to be reserved for women and such seats to be allotted by rotation to different constituencies in a Municipality **(Article 243 T (3))**
- (xiv) Reservation of offices of Chairpersons in Municipalities for the Scheduled Castes, the Scheduled Tribes and women in such manner as the legislature of a State may by law provide **(Article 243 T (4))**

Legal Provisions

To uphold the Constitutional mandate, the State has enacted various legislative measures intended to ensure equal rights, to counter social discrimination and various forms of violence and atrocities and to provide support services especially to working women.

Although women may be victims of any of the crimes such as 'Murder', 'Robbery', 'Cheating' etc, the crimes, which are directed specifically against women, are characterized as 'Crime against Women'. These are broadly classified under two categories :

(1) The Crimes Identified Under the Indian Penal Code (IPC)

- (i) Rape (Sec. 376 IPC)
- (ii) Kidnapping & Abduction for different purposes (Sec. 363-373)
- (iii) Homicide for Dowry, Dowry Deaths or their attempts (Sec. 302/304-B IPC)
- (iv) Torture, both mental and physical (Sec. 498-A IPC)
- (v) Molestation (Sec. 354 IPC)
- (vi) Sexual Harassment (Sec. 509 IPC)
- (vii) Importation of girls (up to 21 years of age)

(2) The Crimes Identified Under the Special Laws (SLL)

Although all laws are not gender specific, the provisions of law affecting women significantly have been reviewed periodically and amendments carried out to keep pace with the emerging requirements. Some acts which have special provisions to safeguard women and their interests are:

- (i) The Employees State Insurance Act, 1948
- (ii) The Plantation Labour Act, 1951
- (iii) The Family Courts Act, 1954
- (iv) The Special Marriage Act, 1954
- (v) The Hindu Marriage Act, 1955
- (vi) The Hindu Succession Act, 1956 with amendment in 2005
- (vii) Immoral Traffic (Prevention) Act, 1956
- (viii) The Maternity Benefit Act, 1961 (Amended in 1995)
- (ix) Dowry Prohibition Act, 1961
- (x) The Medical Termination of Pregnancy Act, 1971
- (xi) The Contract Labour (Regulation and Abolition) Act, 1976
- (xii) The Equal Remuneration Act, 1976
- (xiii) The Prohibition of Child Marriage Act, 2006
- (xiv) The Criminal Law (Amendment) Act, 1983
- (xv) The Factories (Amendment) Act, 1986
- (xvi) Indecent Representation of Women (Prohibition) Act, 1986
- (xvii) Commission of Sati (Prevention) Act, 1987
- (xviii) The Protection of Women from Domestic Violence Act, 2005

SPECIAL INITIATIVES FOR WOMEN

(i) National Commission for Women

In January 1992, the Government set-up this statutory body with a specific mandate to study and monitor all matters relating to the constitutional and legal safeguards provided for women, review the existing legislation to suggest amendments wherever necessary, etc.

(ii) Reservation for Women in Local Self -Government

The 73rd Constitutional Amendment Acts passed in 1992 by Parliament ensure one-third of the total seats for women in all elected offices in local bodies whether in rural areas or urban areas.

(iii) The National Plan of Action for the Girl Child (1991-2000)

The plan of Action is to ensure survival, protection and development of the girl child with the ultimate objective of building up a better future for the girl child.

(iv) National Policy for the Empowerment of Women, 2001

The Department of Women & Child Development in the Ministry of Human Resource Development has prepared a “National Policy for the Empowerment of Women” in the year 2001. The goal of this policy is to bring about the advancement, development and empowerment of women.

Some of the major constitutional provisions on women education in India are as follows:

There are some changes regarding the 42nd Amendment to the Constitution. During 1976 our constitution was amended in many of its fundamental provisions. Under the Constitution of India, the Central Government has been specifically vested with several educational responsibilities. One of the unique features of Modern Indian Education is the tremendous advancement of Women’s Education. Education of the girls is considered to be more important than that of the boys.

The Constitution makes the following provisions under different articles:

Article 15(1) provides that the State shall not discriminate any citizen on groups only of sex.

Article 15 (3) reads: “Nothing in this article shall prevent the State from making any special provision for women and children.”

The well-known National Policy on Education was concerned about the status and education of women in the country. It envisages that education would be used as a strategy for achieving a basic change in the status of women. It opined that the national system of education must play a positive role in this direction.

The Policy states, “Education will be used as an agent of basic change in the status of women. In order to neutralize the accumulated distortions of the past, there will be a well conceived edge in favour of women.”

WOMEN’S MOVEMENTS IN INDIA: FORMS AND MAIN NATIONAL ORGANISATIONS

The status of women has been the central concern of many reform movements before and after independence. Leaders of the **BrahmaSamaj** and the **AryaSamaj** were concerned with issues like sati, remarriage, divorce, female education, purdah system, polygamy, and dowry.

Justice Ranade criticised child marriages, polygyny, restrictions on remarriage of widows, and non-access to education.

Raja Ram Mohan Roy played an important role in getting the sati system abolished. **Ishwar Chandra Vidyasagar** and **Maharishi Karve** pleaded for remarriage of widows. **Gandhiji** took interest in collective mobilisation of women to fight for political freedom as well as for their social and political rights.

Some scholars have examined the role of women in political independence movements at micro level, i.e., on regional basis. For example, **Aparna Basu** (1984) and **Pravin Sheth** (1979) studied it in Gujarat, **Raghavendra Rao** (1983) in Karnataka, and **Uma Rao** (1984) in Uttar Pradesh.

According to **Govind Kelkar** (1984), women's role in the freedom movement was that of the 'helpers' rather than that of comrades.

Ghanshyam Shah has referred to some scholars who have pointed out women's role in tribal, peasant and other movements in Bihar and Maharashtra. For example, **Manoshi Mitra** (1984) and **Indra Munshi Saldanha** (1986) have analysed women's militant role in tribal movements when women confronted authorities, wielding traditional weapons and maintaining lines of supplies to the rebels in their hidden places.

Sunil Sen (1984), **Peter Custers** (1987), etc., have analysed their role in peasants' movements in Telengana, West Bengal and Maharashtra. **Meera Velayudhan** (1984) has analysed their role in communist-led movement of coir workers in Kerala. Sen has pointed out women's participation in struggles launched by trade unions in iron ore mines in Madhya Pradesh.

The important national organisations were:

- Bharat Mahila Parishad (1904),
- Bharat StriMahamandal (1909),
- Women's Indian Association (1917),
- National Council of Women in India (1925) and
- All India Women's Conference (1927) and
- Kasturba Gandhi National Memorial Trust.

These organisations took up issues like women's education, abolition of evil social customs (purdah, child marriage) equality of rights and opportunities and women's suffer-

age. Some women leaders with the support of the Congress party, demanded right of franchise and representation in legislatures.

It could be said that Indian women's movements worked for two goals: one, liberation or uplift of women, i.e., reforming social practices so as to enable women to play a more important and constructive role in society; and two, equal rights for men and women, i.e., extension of civil rights enjoyed by men in the political, economic and familial spheres to women also.

Jana Everett (1979) calls the former as 'corporate feminism' and the latter as 'liberal feminism'. The strategies used by women's bodies were: making demands by organising public meetings, presenting views to government officials, forming committees to investigate conditions and holding conferences to mobilise women.

The factors that provided the required incentive to women's movements were: effect of western education on the male domination on women and on the concept of complementary sex roles, leadership provided by educated elite women, interest of male social reformers in changing social practices sanctioned by religion, changing socio-religious attitudes and philosophies, and decreasing social hostility and opposition of males to women's associations engaged in self-help activities, and benevolent attitude of political national leaders towards fledgling women's movements and their enthusiastic support to women campaigns.

The declaring of 1975-85 decade as the International Women's decade also gave impetus to women's movements for removing the notion of inferiority of women and giving them a sense of identity. The Central Social Welfare Board (CSWB) established by the Government of India in 1953, also promotes and strengthens voluntary efforts for the welfare of women. The Ministry of Welfare, Government of India, too gives grants to voluntary organisations for activities like construction/expansion of hostels for working women in cities.

We may now conclude our discussion on social movements by stating that social movements in India mainly focused either (a) on achieving system stability by arresting the onslaught of rapid social change and reinforcing the existing values and norms and (b) attempting system change through the destruction and replacement of the old and induction of new structures.

It can be averred that social movements were either change-resisting or change-

promoting, i.e., those which aimed at the participants' deprivation and concerned with their welfare and uplift. We concentrated on those reform movements which pursued their goals through institutionalised means, without unleashing violence and were initiated by some ideological groups through mobilisation process.

The analysis of six types of movements suggests that movements are generally initiated and spread by charismatic leaders or by political parties and religious organisations. In the former case, the ideologies are transmitted downwards while in the latter case, these are transmitted upwards. Once any movement based on certain ideology changes, it is not necessary that it will spread in course of time, it can gain in strength and it can also lose its vitality either because it is considered irrelevant or because it is suppressed by the government.

Other thing which emerges from the analysis is that:

- (i) Social movements are products of a social structure and emerge out of certain conditions in the social structure,
- (ii) Social movements themselves have a structure which makes them functional relative to their goals, and
- (iii) Social movements have consequences for the social structure of which they are the products.

CONCLUSION

Things are better for everyone. Just by improving the education of girls, improves the whole group that they are a part of society. Girls' education is a strategic development priority. Better educated women tend to be healthier, participate more in the formal labour market, earn higher incomes, have fewer children, marry at a later age, and enable better health care and education for their children, should they choose to become mothers. All these factors combined can help lift households, communities, and nations out of poverty. Empowering women to participate fully in economic life across all sectors is essential to build stronger economies, achieve internationally agreed goals for development and sustainability and improve the quality of life for women, men, families and communities.

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Received on 20/02/2019
Accepted on 11/04/2019

Raj Rajeshwari Journal of Psychological & Educational Research
(A Half Yearly-Reviewed & Refereed International Journal)

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