



A STUDY TO ASSESS THE EFFECTIVENESS OF STRUCTURED TEACHING PROGRAM ON KNOWLEDGE REGARDING WOMEN RIGHTS AMONG FEMALE STUDENTS IN SELECTED COLLEGE OF NURSING KISTHWAR.

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ABSTRACT

Gender equality is at the very heart of human rights and United Nations values. Gender-based discrimination is prohibited under almost every human rights treaty. Despite much progress made in securing women's rights globally, millions of women and girls continue to experience discrimination and violence, being denied of their equality, dignity and autonomy, and even a life. This discrimination and violence against women and girls, deeply rooted in the fabric of societies, is persistent and systematic. And in recent years, there has been a recurrence of scepticism against and denial of international standards concerning women's human rights, gender equality and gender-based violence, while women and girls are increasingly raising voices to demand equality, including through feminist movements. Promoting women's human rights and achieving gender equality are core commitments of the UN Human Rights Office. We promote women and girls' equal enjoyment of all human rights, including freedom from violence, sexual and reproductive rights, access to justice, socio-economic equality, and participation in decision-making. We do this by monitoring and advocating for women's rights, building capacity of stakeholders, and providing technical advice. We promote gender integration within the UN. We also support UN mechanisms and treaty bodies working to promote gender equality. Keeping in view all these things, the study was intended to conduct a study to assess the effectiveness of structured teaching program on knowledge regarding women rights among students in selected college of nursing kistwar. A quantitative research approach one group pre-test post-test research design was adopted to achieve the objectives of the study. The target population was B. Sc female students of college of Nursing Kistwar. Sixty subjects were selected for study by non probability convenience sampling technique. The study was approved by the institutional ethical review board and informed consent was obtained from all the respondents. The findings revealed that in post-test most of subjects 47(78.3%) had adequate knowledge. The results also depicted that post-test mean was 29.12 higher than pre-test mean 12.85 with mean difference 16.27 t-test 21.31 and table-value 2.00. The findings also concluded that no association was found between post-test knowledge score with selected demographic variables.

Key words: Assess, Effectiveness, Structured Teaching programme, Knowledge, Women Rights.

INTRODUCTION

The story of the global struggle for women's rights since 1945 is just beginning to be told. For a proper understanding of the continuities and changes in the struggle for women's rights during this period, we need to go back to the League of Nations, the predecessor to the United Nations. In addition, we need to consider more fully the important role of what are now often called "traditional women's organizations" in advancing women's rights on the international level, at least until 1975.¹

In 1975, the International Women's Year, there were three & not; international women's organizations with "Consultative Status 1" at the United Nations, -- the International Council of Women (ICW), the International Alliance of Women (IAW) and the Women's International Democratic Federation (WIDF) -- out of a total of 24 international non-governmental organizations (NGOs) with that status. The reasons why these three women's organizations had received that status will become apparent below, in a very brief survey of the history of women's rights from 1945 to 2009.²

The international women's organizations that were active in the League of Nations, including the ICW, established in 1888, and the IAW, established in 1904, together achieved two things that would be crucial for the struggle for women's equality in the long run. The first was the recognition that women's status was an issue that belonged on the international level. The second was the establishment in 1937 of the League of Nations Committee of Experts on the Legal Status of Women, which laid the foundations for the United Nations Commission on the Status of Women (CSW).³

This League of Nations Committee consisted of three men and four women, including Kersten Hesselgren from Sweden, Suzanne Bastid-Basdevant from France, both involved with the ICW, and Dorothy Kenyon, a judge from the United States, who would be on the CSW from 1946-1950 and was IAW vice-president from 1946-1952.⁴

A small number of feminists from different countries and backgrounds participated in the founding conference of the UN in 1945 as members of their national delegations. Continuing what had been started in the League of Nations, but also building on women's recent experiences in war and resistance and the related conviction that women had to contribute to creating a more peaceful world, they cooperated to get women's rights acknowledged as part of the broader UN commitment to human rights. Thus, Bertha Lutz, IAW vice president 1952-1958, Minerva Bernardino, ICW vice president 1947-1957, Amelia Caballero de Castillo Ledón, Isabel Sanchez de Urdaneta, Isabel P. de Vidal and Jessie Street worked together for the inclusion of the equal rights of men and women in the Preamble to the UN Charter and the acceptance of a sub-Commission on the Status of Women.⁵

During an inaugural session of the UN General Assembly in early 1946, Eleanor Roosevelt read "An Open Letter to the Women of the World", described as the "first formal articulation of women's voices in the UN and an outline of the role for women to play in a new arena of international politics and cooperation". The letter had been initiated by Hélène Lefauchaux, a member of the French delegation, and subsequently CSW chair 1948-1952, president of the French National Council of Women, and ICW president 1957-1963. Her predecessor in CSW was Bodil Begtrup, president of the Danish National Council of Women and IAW board member from 1946-1949.⁶

In December 1948, the UN adopted the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. Thanks to the efforts of women such as Minerva Bernardino during the process of drafting the Declaration, Article 1 reads, "All human beings are born free and equal in dignity and rights" -- instead of the proposed "All men.". Begum Anwar G. Ahmed, CSW chair in the 1950s, was an IAW board member, vice president and president from 1955-1970. The list of prominent ICW and IAW women involved with the UN goes on and includes Helvi Sipilä, who in 1972 was the first woman Assistant Secretary-General, and, at the time of her appointment, ICW vice president as well as president of the Finnish National Council of Women.^{7,8}

The Women's International Democratic Federation (WIDF), established in Paris in late 1945 with an anti-fascist, left-feminist orientation, was the third major international women's organization involved in the UN. In 1947/8, the ICW, IAW and WIDF received "Consultative Status B" with the UN Economic and Social Council, which allowed them to participate as observers at CSW sessions and access its reports and documents. With the CSW's approval, they could also address its sessions. The archives and publications of these three organizations show that they have always made active use of these rights and have conscientiously acted as liaisons between the UN and the women they represented.⁹

However, after the initial period of cooperation between feminists of different backgrounds and persuasions, the unfolding cold war decisively changed the climate and had very negative impact on the global struggle for women's rights, although the CSW managed to "secure the legal foundations of equality" in the period until 1962.¹⁰

A very concrete example is that the largest and probably most active international women's organization of the time, WIDF, lost its Consultative Status in April 1954 entirely due to contemporary cold war politics, and in what friends and foes recognized as an undemocratic procedure. Among those who protested, in vain, were Jessie Street (in a personal letter to UN Secretary-General Dag Hammarskjöld) and Dora Russell from the United Kingdom. WIDF was readmitted to the UN only in June 1967. Once they were back, this organization contributed decisively to the women's cause: it was WIDF president Hertta Kuusinen from Finland who in 1972 proposed to the CSW to hold an International Women's Year.¹¹

International Women's Year had an impact worldwide beyond expectations and was followed by the UN Decade for Women. The global women's movement as we now know it largely came into being in the context of the four UN World Conferences on women: Mexico City (1975), Copenhagen (1980), Nairobi (1985) and Beijing (1995) -- each consisting of an official UN conference and a parallel NGO conference, and each bigger and more diverse than the previous one.¹² Women of the & not; global South and North clashed during the first two world conferences, but at Nairobi "consensus was found when women of the South were [...] ready to speak more freely about male-female relationships, and women of the North [...] saw firsthand that women's issues are not limited to gender equality and accepted at last that global factors affect women's conditions. [...] New global feminist organizations, such as Development Alternatives with Women for a New Era (DAWN) were created".¹³

In 1979, the UN adopted the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW), incorporating "the principles of women's rights and equality between the sexes in the provisions of international law". However, the fact that this Convention was needed indicated "that universally-recognized human rights are still not enjoyed equally by women and men. If they were, no convention on the elimination of discrimination against women would be needed".^{14, 15}

Since 1985, the notion of "women's rights" has become more encompassing and influential. A breakthrough occurred at the 1993 World Conference on Human Rights in Vienna, where women's rights were finally explicitly recognized as human rights -- not less, not separate. In addition, the Beijing Platform for Action, adopted at the 1995 Fourth World Conference on Women, included "the elimination of all forms of violence against women" as a key objective, whereas the 1979 CEDAW does not even mention violence against women! And although there is still no Convention on the elimination of all forms of violence against women, the UN now understands violence against women as an issue of security, human rights and war crimes, as exemplified in Security Council Resolution 1325 on Women, Peace and Security, and Secretary-General Ban Ki-moon's support for the effort to end sexual violence.¹⁶

A long-term perspective not only helps to understand the various phases of women's struggle, but also to appreciate the historical nature of what has been accomplished. Women's oppression is not "natural" but historical, and as such it is thousands of years old. Only some 200 years ago, in 1793, did the French Government guillotine Olympe de Gouges, who during the French Revolution had composed "The Declaration of the Rights of Woman and the Female Citizen." Building on the achievement of feminists within the League of Nations, the UN since 1945 has become the transnational centre and "unlikely Godmother" of women's rights, not as a given, but thanks to the hard work of and cooperation between mainly women who represented their governments and/or international women's organizations,

and women working within the UN system. In that process, but especially since 1975, the international women's movement has become a global grassroots women's movement and less dominated by elite women from the North. In addition, within UN policy, a discursive shift has taken place from women as victims and objects to women as actors, with a concomitant focus on their empowerment.¹⁷⁻²⁰

In direct relation to the irreversible growth and greater diversity of the women's movement, another key development is that the meaning of "women's rights" has expanded enormously since the 1940s, from a mainly legal interpretation prioritized by Western countries, to the acceptance of socio-economic rights as equally fundamental to political rights, to the inclusion of the right to "family planning", i.e., a woman's right to control what happens to her own body and, most recently, to the right to live free from violence. The notion that women's rights are human rights has become more accepted since 1993, and the links between women's rights and both development (nowadays, "sustainable development") and peace have become clear. Task Ahead But as important as it is to understand the progress that has been made, it is equally crucial to be aware of the enormity of the task that lies ahead. Despite the almost universal recognition of women's rights at the formal level, the "deep[er] structure" of women's secondary status and oppression persists, whether in countries that top the UN gender equality index or those at the bottom. There is no country in the world where women enjoy equal status with men. Moreover, the gulf between rich and poor countries has increased, and the rise of various religious fundamentalisms is a threat to women's rights in many places.²¹

Finally, although their literacy rates are rising, women still make up nearly two-thirds of the world's illiterate people. They also continue to be two-thirds of the world's poor (living on \$1 a day or less), perform two-thirds of the world's work, and produce 50 per cent of the food, while earning only 10 per cent of the income and owning one per cent of the property. These overall figures are as mind-boggling as on their first publication a few decades ago, when they were nearly the same. In addition, violence against women is a worldwide phenomenon of immense proportions. The United Nations Development Fund for Women reports that "for women aged 15 to 44 years, violence is a major cause of death and disability".^{22,23}

Thus, whatever may have been achieved is a work in progress at best. For most women, their human rights still exist only on paper. The "women of the world don't want any more words from their governments -- they want action". Whether the current shift away from the UN and "toward global justice movements as the pivots of the global women's movement's attention" will help is an open question.^{24,25}

In the past few decades, organisations and movements working on human rights have become more aware of the pervasive and systematic attacks against human rights defenders, including the particular challenges faced by women human rights defenders. Human rights defender is a broad term which includes people who act to promote or protect human rights—this could be a lawyer arguing for civil rights in courts, an indigenous person defending their land, or ASHA workers who help realise the right to health in their communities. Women human rights defenders (WHRDs) face threats both externally, from the state and business sectors, but also internally from their families and community members. When women enter the public sphere as activists, they defy patriarchal norms and challenge societal expectations. This in turn can lead to resistance and backlash from family and community members. In addition to gender, caste, class, and religion also shape the backlash women defenders face—poor, indigenous, Dalit, and Muslim women are more vulnerable. A recent report from Nazdeek (the organisation where I work) shares the stories of six women defenders—from Assam's tea plantations to Delhi's informal settlements—who have faced serious threats and attacks while advocating for socio-economic rights. The report also provides strategies for security that draw from their experience, along with resources for the same. Based on it, here are three lessons we learned: Increasing knowledge about rights through training and workshops helps defenders advocate better, and demand redressal for human rights violations. Seema, a frontline government health worker who also works as a community paralegal and lives in an informal settlement in Delhi, echoes this when she says, "People like us are afraid to fight for our rights and do not even know what we are entitled to. I hope that more women can break free from this cycle of fear and learn to fight even with the government, for their rights." With this in mind, it is important to have training and workshops on rights and entitlements, as well as what legal steps can be taken after a threat

or attack has been made, including how to file a criminal complaint. Defenders should also know their legal rights, including The right to access a lawyer. After a person is arrested, they have the right to call a lawyer. It is important to have the contact of a reliable lawyer for such instances, The right to request a copy of the arrest warrant, Women may be detained only by a female officer. This cannot happen before sunrise and after sunset and within 24 hours of being detained, they must be produced before a magistrate, The right not to face unnecessary force or restraint. WHRDs should also know about First Information Reports (FIRs) and how to respond to them. An FIR is a document filed by anyone with knowledge of the offence, at the local police station, which contains the information related to an alleged offence which forms the basis of an investigation.²⁶

The modern women's rights movement arose in a time of revolution and culminated in the winning of suffrage in a world shaken by war. From 1792, when Mary Wollstonecraft's *A Vindication of the Rights of Women* appeared in London, to 1920, when ratification by the Kentucky legislation assured enactment of the 19th Amendment, women strove to achieve political, legal, social, economic, and educational equality. They sought to overthrow the customs and prejudices of centuries, not through war but through persuasion. It was, in some ways, the great revolution of the 19th century. Their texts were as varied as the women and men themselves, crossing genres and national boundaries. Out of the many tracts, treatises, novels, plays, journals, and essays written on the subject of women's rights which proved the most influential. *A Vindication of the Rights of Women* (1792) is the first great landmark title of the modern women's movement. Mary Wollstonecraft educated herself despite an alcoholic, wastrel father and she saw education as key to women's dilemma. *Vindication's* first words established her theme: "I have turned over various books written on the subject of education, and patiently observed the conduct of parents and the management of schools; but what has been the result? -a profound conviction that the neglected education of my fellow-creatures is the grand source of the misery I deplore; and that women, in particular, are rendered weak and wretched by a variety of concurring causes..." The book appeared in January of 1792, received two printings in the United States that fall, was published in Dublin the following year and reprinted in both London and American through 1796. The education of women was the theme of Emma Willard's 1819 "An Address to the Public; Particularly to the Members of the Legislature of New-York; Proposing a Plan for Improving Female Education." Emma Willard wanted not only for women to be educated, but their education to be a matter of public policy. Thomas Jefferson, James Monroe and John Adams approved the proposal, but Willard had to establish her Troy Female Seminary without monies from New York State. ("An Address," we should point out, is a rarity of the first order.)²⁷

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

- To assess the pre-test and post-test knowledge scores of female students regarding women rights in selected college of Nursing Kishtwar.
- To determine the effectiveness of Structured Teaching Programme regarding women rights among female students in selected college of Nursing Kishtwar.
- To determine the association between pre-test and post-test knowledge scores of female students with selected demographic variables.

RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

H1: There will be a significant difference between pre-test and post-test knowledge scores of students regarding women rights after intervention.

H2: There will be a significant association between knowledge levels of students with their selected socio-demographic variables.

METHODOLOGY

A quantitative quasi-experimental one group pre-test post-test research design was conducted to assess the effectiveness of structured teaching program on knowledge regarding women rights among female students in selected college of nursing kishtwar. Sixty subjects were selected for study by non probability convenience

sampling technique. The study was approved by the institutional ethical review board and informed consent was obtained from all the respondents. Socio-demographic data and self structured questionnaire was adopted in this study. Pre-test was conducted on the first day followed by structured teaching programme on the same day. On 6th day post-test was conducted to assess the knowledge. After data collection, the data was analysed by using descriptive and inferential statistics.

RESULTS

Table 1: Frequency distribution of pre-test and post-test knowledge score among subjects regarding women rights.

Knowledge	Score	Pre-test		Post-test	
		Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Inadequate knowledge	(1-13)	36	60%	0	0
Moderate knowledge	(14-26)	21	35%	13	21.67%
Adequate knowledge	(27-40)	3	5	47	78.3%

The data presented in table 1 depicted that in post-test most of subjects 47(78.3%) had adequate knowledge, 13(21.67%), had moderate knowledge while as in pre-test most of the subjects 36(60%) had inadequate knowledge, 21(35%) had moderate knowledge and 3(5%) had adequate knowledge respectively.

Table 2: Pre-test Post-test mean knowledge score among subjects.

Knowledge Score Mean				
Level	Mean	Standard	T-test	Table-value
pre-test	12.85	3.19	21.31	2.00
post-test	29.12	3.17		

The data presented in the table 2 revealed that mean post-test 29.12 was higher than the mean pre-test knowledge score 12.85 with mean difference 16.27 t-test 21.31 and table-value 2.00 which indicated that structure teaching programme was effective in enhancing the knowledge regarding women rights among female students in selected college of Nursing Kishtwar.

Table 3: Association of post-test knowledge score with selected demographic variables.

Demographic variables	Level of knowledge		df	χ^2	P	Remark
	Adequate	Moderate				
Age (years)			2	0.537	0.764	NS
18-19	36	11				
20-21	10	2				
22-23	1	0				
Marital status			1	0.8735	0.3499	NS
Married	3	0				
Unmarried	44	13				
Religion			2	1.508	0.4702	NS
Muslim	42	13				
Hindu	3	0				
Source of information			3	1.8501	0.6040	NS
Family	15	2				
Friends	13	5				
Mass Media	10	4				
others	9	2				

The data presented in table 3 depicted that no association was found between post-test knowledge score with their selected demographic variables such as age in years, marital status, religion and source of information. According to data presented in the above table, revealed that the research hypothesis was rejected while as null hypothesis was accepted by using chi-square at $p \geq 0.05$.

CONCLUSIONS

The focus of this study was to evaluate the effectiveness of the structured teaching programme regarding women rights among pre-university female students. In this study quasi-experimental pre-test post-test research design was used. 60 samples were drawn from population using simple randomization with lottery method. The data was collected by the structured knowledge questionnaire. Data was analysed and interpreted by applying the knowledge of the female students regarding women rights was inadequate in the pre-test whereas the knowledge level has improved after structured teaching programme.

STP was effective in improving the knowledge of the pre-university students regarding women rights. There is a significant difference between the pre-test and post-test knowledge level. These scores were demonstrated by using paired 't' test. The analysis of the mean and standard deviation of the knowledge score in pre-test and post-test revealed that the mean pre-test knowledge score was 14.40 whereas post-test score was 32.7. This high mean difference 18.3 shows the effectiveness of STP. Overall findings revealed the effectiveness of STP.

This study proved that there was significant association between the level of knowledge and socio demographic variables like age and previous knowledge regarding women rights and there was no significant association between level of knowledge and selected demographic variables namely gender, Educational Status of the father, educational status of mother, annual income of the family, source of information in both pre-test and post-test.

RECOMMENDATIONS

On the basis of the finding of the study it is recommended that:

- A similar study can be undertaken with a large sample for better generalization of the finding.
- A similar study can be done among high school female students.
- A descriptive study can be done to identify the knowledge and attitude of students women rights.
- A similar study can be conducted to identify knowledge, attitude and practice among students regarding women rights.
- A comparative study can be conducted among pre-university students of urban and rural areas on women rights.
- A comparative study can be conducted between the effects of self-instructional module and structured teaching programme regarding women rights.

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3. Miller 1994; Winslow 1995.
4. IAW Congress Reports; Lake 2001; Miller 1994; Offen 2001; Whittick 1979; Women in a Changing World 1966.
5. Coltheart 2004; Galey 1995; Pietilä 2007; Whittick 1979. The sub-Commission became a full Commission in 1947.
6. Pietilä 2007, 12.
7. Pietilä 2007, 18.
8. IAW Congress Reports; Newsletter ICW; Reports of the CSW.
9. From 1970, Consultative Status A, B, and C were named 1, 2 and 3. ICW, IAW and WIDF were upgraded from "B" or 2 to "A" or 1 between 1969 and 1975 (Yearbooks of the United Nations).
10. Pietilä 2007, 21.
11. The earliest proposal for IWY and CEDAW that I have seen came from the Union of Australian Women, affiliated with WIDF, in a letter to the UN Secretary-General, dated 23 February 1972. See UN Archives New York, S-0446-0228-0005, file "Consultative Arrangements and Relations with WIDF." (UN archives; Yearbooks of the United Nations; Pietilä 2007, 39; De Haan 2009; Popa 2009; on the CSW, see esp. Reanda 1992).
12. For more information on these conferences, see the WomenWatch website (<http://www.un.org/womenwatch/directory/>); see also Pietilä 2007, available on line.
13. Snyder 2006, 36; see also Walter 2001, xxi.
14. Pietilä and Vickers 1996, 126.
15. Pietilä 2007, 27.
16. Pietilä 2007, 30-32.
17. Lerner 1986.
18. Snyder 2006.
19. Antrobus 2004; Basu 1995; Ferree and Tripp 2006; Fraser and Tinker 2004; Jain 2005; Peters and Wolper 1995.
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