CHAPTER - II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1. Introduction

The researcher has thoroughly undertaken a review of earlier studies relevant to the present study by referring different international and national journals and studies conducted by different individuals at different periods. Though many studies have been done on women empowerment, exclusive studies on higher education and women empowerment in rural areas is a rarity. The present study covers the whole domain of women’s profile, their existing status in the study area.

2.2. Theoretical Studies on Education and Economic Growth

Before analyzing the empirical relationship between women’s education, and empowerment, a discussion of the relevant theories is useful. It is important to understand the different avenues through which higher education, gender equality in decision-making and power over resources and freedom of mobility might have an impact on empowerment. The inequalities concerning women are a very complex social phenomenon and therefore, on the basis of theoretical assumption, no aspect of it must be excluded from analysis (Jain 2006).

Ancient scholars in many countries highlighted the importance of widespread education in development. Education, Plato believed, is indispensable to the economic health of a good society, for education, he said,
makes citizens ‘reasonable men’. Education was regarded important on its own. Since education has high value in the society, Plato argued that a considerable part of a community’s wealth must be invested in education. The positive contribution of education was emphasized by many philosophers and thinkers over centuries. Among economists, Adam Smith made extensive references to education, including generation of public benefits by education of all levels, university education included, and hence the role of the ‘publik’ in providing it. He was followed by a long and honourable tradition of classical and neo-classical economists. By the end of the 19th century the thesis was clear: education makes significant contribution to development. John Stuart Mill, who followed Adam Smith, recognised the social benefits more clearly and more explicitly than Smith and others. In the early 20th century, Marshall emphasised that “the most valuable of all capital is that invested in human beings” and that “knowledge is our most powerful engine of production it enables us to subdue Nature and force her to satisfy our wants...” (Marshall, 1920) While there is a long tradition of economists who recognised the value of education in development, the importance of education in the well-being of the nations is more clearly recognised since the heralding of the human capital theory by Theodore Schultz (1961). Schultz has convincingly demonstrated that education is an investment leading to human capital formation that contributes to economic growth. According to the human capital theory, education transforms raw human beings into productive ‘human capital’ by imparting knowledge and inculcating skills required by both the traditional sector and the modern sector of the
economy, and makes individuals more productive members of the society, not only in the market place but also in the households and also in the whole society. The core of the human capital theory lies in the thesis that education increases productivity of the population in general and of labour force in particular, leading to increase in individual earnings and thereby contributing to economic growth and reduction in poverty.

The process of education influencing growth and income distribution is as follows: education creates a more skilled labour force, which produces a shift from low-paid, unskilled and below-poverty employment levels, to better-paid, skilled and above-poverty levels of employment. This shift produces higher labour incomes, a reduction in skill differentials, and an increase in the share of wages in total output. The increase in the number of more educated and skilled people increase the ratio of such people and decreases the ratio of less educated people in the total labour force. However, in the labour market over-supply of highly educated people results, given no change in demand, in lowering their wages and increase in wages of those with less education, thus contributing to overall reduction in income differences in the labour market (Ahluwalia, 1976). Thus, expansion of education influences not only the wages of those who receive better education, but also of those who do not have education or have less education. Education also compensates for adverse socio-economic opportunities for weaker sections of the society leading to faster mobility and to higher wages. In short, education reduces poverty and improves income distribution at the same time.
The human capital theory propounded by Schultz laid a strong foundation for treating education as an investment in human beings and for treating it as an important source of economic growth. It is now widely accepted that investment in human capital is one of the important factors of economic growth and development and the research that followed further highlighted the number of ways in which education influences socio-economic well-being of the individuals and the society. First and directly, at individual level, it increases one’s human capital, increases one’s productivity in the labour market, and increases his/her earnings. Second, there are consumption effects of education. Educated people make more informed choices in their consumption patterns. Third, education reduces search time in labour markets for employment. Fourth at societal level, there is found to be a positive correlation between education and health of the people. Fifth, there is an inverse relationship between average level of education and fertility rates, meaning that education reduces growth of population, which in developing countries is generally regarded as a positive aspect. Sixth, there is a direct relationship between education level of children and their parent’s education. Seventh, education has an inverse effect on crime, a direct positive effect on social cohesion and technology development. Lastly, education produces several other positive externalities simple and dynamic-social, economic, political and cultural, some of which can even be inter-generational.
The theoretical development on the examination of the contribution of education to economic growth is very important. The neo-classical growth theory (Solow 1956-1957) did not recognise education as a major input for production and hence education was not included in growth models. Economic growth in the long run was explained by assuming an exogenous technological development; initially it focused much on physical capital accumulation. Schultz’s human capital theory has indeed created a “human investment revolution in economic thought” (Bowman 1966). The contributions of Schultz (1961), Becker (1964) and Mincer (1974) have formalised the treatment of education as in investment and as a factor in growth theory. The seminal contributions of Arrow(1973), Spence (1973) and Stiglitz (1975) raised questions on the human capital theory and the possibility of treating education as a signal to the employer instead of having any economic value on its own, a thesis which remained as a hypothesis, and which did not last (Blaug 1985). Schultz and Denison’s growth accounting equations were again considered to be valid. According to the endogenous growth theories (Lucas 1988, Romer 1986, 1990a, b) stock of human capital affects the growth rates of the economy: education facilitates technological development higher levels of human capital lead to more innovations and higher efficiency or total factor productivity, which causes higher growth rates of aggregate income. The level of human capital is co-integrated with the growth rate of the aggregate income. The production function now is a two-step simultaneous process, in which resources are used to produce education, and education enters the production
process in a way that allows increasing to returns to scale. These endogenous growth theories (e.g. Mankiw 1995, Mankiw et al 1999) use two sector growth models and consider manufacturing firms as producing goods and (research) universities as producing knowledge, which in is used in both sectors. The research on endogenous growth theories was enriched by consideration of externalities (Webbink 2000). The endogenous growth models show that the steady state growth rate of output per worker depends positively on the level of available stock of human capital or endowment of skilled labour. Hence, an increase in the average educational attainment of the labour force will lead to a permanent increase in the long-term growth rate of per capita income. When a country reaches an advanced stage of development, the role of human capital on economic growth moves from direct impact on labour productivity to an indirect impact through increase in capability of labour force as a whole to manage innovation and technical progress (Funke and Strulik, 2000) As Chen and Lee (2008) stated, in the subsequent R&D based growth models, growth rate of per capita income depends only on parameters that are usually taken as exogenous, such as the growth rate of population, and no longer depends on the level of R&D resources or the stock of human capital. In such models, the levels of human capital and other R&D resources affect only the long-run level of per capita income, but not the growth rate.

Thus, as Psacharopoulos (2004) summed up, the major landmarks in theoretical contributions, beginning with Schultz’s pioneering contributions, are as follows
Table 2.1

Landmark Theoretical Contributions on Education and Economic Growth

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Period</th>
<th>Theory</th>
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<tr>
<td>1960s</td>
<td>Human Capital Theory</td>
<td>Theodore W. Schultz, Gary Becker, Jacob Mincer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1970s</td>
<td>Signaling and Screening</td>
<td>Kennet J. Arrow, Michael, Spence, Joseph Stiglitz</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1980s</td>
<td>Endogenous growth theory</td>
<td>Robert Lucas, Paul Romer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1990s+</td>
<td>Externalities, Non-market</td>
<td>R. Venikker</td>
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2.3. Theoretical Studies on Women Empowerment

Women’s subjugation seemed inextricably tied to their economic status. During the last few decades, there has been a tremendous concern on women’s economic interests. Development literature and the role of international agencies, including the UN bodies, spurred by the women’s movement, national and international, have identified some major issues, unequal treatment in the labour market, unequal access, control and ownership of productive resources like land, credit technology, education, skills, inequitable work burdens, invisibility and under valuation of women’s subsistence production in third world countries in data systems, the link between women’s unpaid work and paid work, the inequitable distribution of consumption resources within the household, absence of a focus on women in national policies or if at all there is a focus, in a limited, narrow perspective and finally...
the relevance of all these not only to development issues such as fertility control, children’s wellbeing and productivity of the economy but most of all their contribution to women’s autonomy, agency and freedom (Krishnaraj 2001).

2.3.1. Gender in Classical Economics

In the classical thought, women’s wages and conditions of their employment first drew attention. Adam Smith (1776) devoting hardly a page to women in his scholarly time rationalized gender roles. While he recognized that women work for her wages, he argued that men’s wages must be enough to raise a family and that the material conditions of families require the care of children by mothers and hence women’s reproductive role is important for the good of society.

John Stuart Mill (1879) advocated egalitarian economic reforms, which would promote women’s economic autonomy. Women’s lower wages, he pointed out, was unrelated to productivity and was the result of custom and prejudice. He said that restrictions to women’s employment arose from their economic dependence as wives and mothers, which imposed a double day and led to patriarchal power in the family. However he did not see the productive contribution of women’s work at home but saw it as production of utilities. Mill, though by far the most progressive thinker of his time, in line with many others including some feminists with socialist ideas, did not perceive the contradictions in capitalism and liberalism which espoused individualism and free entry in the market along with prevalent sexual division of labour.
Alfred Marshall (1907) propounded the human capital theory. He contended that the productivity of workers would improve, if given education by the state, which would improve their wages. He linked infant mortality to women’s employment, mothers must be given motherhood skills. Women’s lower wages were because of custom. But Pigou (1952) addressed the issue of unequal wages from purely an economic angle. He said wages were unfair if they were below marginal productivity of if they were lower than their reward in similar labour elsewhere in the economy. He observed that women’s wages in some place or occupation may be fair relative to women’s wages elsewhere but may be unfair compared to men’s wages in that occupation.

2.3.2. Gender in Marxian Economics

The Marxist school placed social structure as the determinant factor and the individual agent as conditioned by it, thus acknowledging interdependencies and the existence of a conflict of interest. In so far as it makes a distinction between the ideological superstructure and the material base, it has the problem of explaining the relative autonomy of the superstructure; Feminists point out how in the Marxist theory of capitalism, while gender gets attention, it has limitations because it fails to theorize the problem of women’s unpaid labour, sexual division of labour and the role of gender ideology which even in the event of women moving into paid labour under socialism do not disappear.

Discourse on power frequently includes reference to both Marxist and post-modern positions. In Marxism, power operating in the social formation is ultimately grounded in the economic power of the dominant class. In a post-
modern analysis, power is no longer seen as a rectified possession, but as capillary, that is exercised in every moment of social life. In this construction, power is conceptualized as a generative, productive phenomenon, as well as repressive (Morley 1995).

The Marxist doctrine of women’s socialized labour and the management of the double burden was, men and women found refuge as citizen in the home, the household and family became the locus of resistance to state power in the communist countries and was not perceived as a locus of gender conflict (Metcalfe and Afanassieva 2005).

2.3.3. Gender in Institutional Economics

Institutional economics admits the role of power and institutional processes explicitly but unlike the Marxist school, goes beyond class analysis and does not give primacy only to the ‘public’ sphere. For these reasons feminists have found the Institutional School more friendly to gender analysis. Feminist work falls in this genre (Waller and Jennings 1990).

2.3.4. Gender in Feminist Economics

Feminism and feminist theory developed rapidly after the 1960s. Here Marxist feminists began to note the inadequacy of Marxist theory to explain gender subordination even though it was the first to pay attention to it. These feminists used categories and tools from the Marxist toolbox. These efforts for the first time shifted the focus to ‘domestic labour’ as the terrain, which was the site of women’s exploitation. This direct focus on sexual division of labour and its impact was a pioneering step.
2.3.5. Gender in Household Economics

In the 1960s there came up the New Household Economics. The division of labour between men and women was explained in a model that imitated the market model. The best-known architect of this theory is the Nobel laureate, Gary Becker (1971). In a hypothetical two person household, a man and a woman through exchange of market work and household production, maximize each person’s own utility as well as total utility of the household. Assuming both can do both types of work, women’s returns from the market were lower because they were less skilled. Their returns from domestic labour were more because they had the expertise. Likewise men were better at wage work and less equipped for domestic work. The best solution was therefore where men did more market work and women did more non-market work. The model has this merit that for the first time, it analysed the household as a productive unit where domestic labour was equated to home production of goods and services. Secondly it did not take the household as a composite glued together unit. The trouble was that it did precisely what feminists were protesting against – the justification of status quo.

2.3.6. Gender in Neo-Classical Feminist Economics

Collier (1991) locates four distinct processes, based on underlying ‘social conventions’ that account for why women face differential constraints upon economic activity. The first is discrimination outside the household in labour and credit markets. The second is that role model (in production) is gender-specific, i.e., girls copy women, while boys copy men. If men initially
take up a new economic opportunity, it may be diffused over the male population by a mechanism that will not transmit it to the female population. The third is that within the household, rights and obligations between husband and wife are asymmetric, such that women have little incentive to increase their labour input. The final element is the ‘burden of reproduction’ with its attendant demands or women’s health and time.

Palmer views that the social aspects of gender impose their own definitions of correct exchange, which tend to reflect bargaining power and status, and inevitably mean that the terms of trade are biased against women. This can be described as an asymmetry of obligations and responsibilities between women and men.

Gender asymmetries in rights and obligations in terms of ‘social convention’ the mode provides an extremely static picture. These asymmetries are to simply given by society, as the term ‘social convention’ seems to imply. They are in fact constantly created and re-created through the everyday relations between men and women, those with power against those without power actively mobilize them. Women’s obligation to use their income and savings to feed the family in some social settings is not just socially given concept. It is through conjugal conflicts underpinned by power asymmetries that the more powerful household member (adult men) are able to shift these responsibilities onto women while they maintain personal control over other income flows.
2.3.7. Gender in Feminist Critical Economics

Feminist economics seeks to move beyond a gender disaggregating of roles and activities to emphasize the power relations underpinning the gender division of labour (Folbre 1986, Kabeer 1994). Questions are asked about how social institutions and norms shape or constrain individual choices in ways that perpetuate gender inequalities.

Feminist economics challenges the conceptualization of the gender division of labour in new-classical micro economics, particularly ‘new household economics’ as the outcome of free choices of economic agents specializing according to their innate comparative advantage. From the neo-classical perspective, gender differentiation is depicted as generally rational, efficient and mutually advantageous to men and women, with women undertaking unpaid domestic labour because of their preference and skills. The neo-classical perspective does not attempt to explain how such skill differentiation comes about.

2.3.8. Discourse on Gender versus Patriarchy

The first attempt to comprehend the unequal social situation of men and women concentrated on the concept of “patriarchy”. Walby (1990) defines patriarchy as “a system of social structures and social practices in which men dominate oppress and exploit women”. This concept descriptively draws attention to ways men discriminate and exploit women. It helps illuminate the unfavorable position of women in relation to men, and it unquestionably also has explanatory power concerning several in equalities, for example in the family or communicative processes.
But patriarchy fails as a general explanatory principle. It does not take into account the multiple causes which influence women’s situation. Explanation by patriarchy supposes intentional acts of suppression and the homogeneity of men. It makes the role women play in reproducing their unfavorable situation invisible. Patriarchy as a universal principle of explanation does not take into consideration the unintentional consequences of human actions or the routines of everyday life. On the other hand, it also does not differentiate between inequalities based on the explicit intention of discriminating against women and those gender-neutral inequalities where other group can replace women with still lower access to life chances.

Because of these objections, feminist scientists tried to develop more inclusive and comprehensive approaches, which were similar in one respect, they attempted integrating gender into Marxist theory as a central category by combining the role of women and men in the productive and reproductive spheres and in the division of labour (Hartman 1981, Beer 1990). Because of this background, they concentrated on specific social phenomena, especially the mutually reinforcing disadvantages in the work and the family. They took it for granted that there is one general explanation for all inequalities, a combination of men’s domination over women and of capitalists over workers (e.g. patriarchy and class in “feminist dualist” theories).

The most important critique of these theories is that this concept of two mutually reinforcing discriminatory mechanisms cannot explain improvements in the situation for women in specific fields. These are areas, which up to now,
have had far-reaching consequences with their participation in social life. From a theoretical point of view, Wright’s work (1995) is representative of the attempt to explain discrimination against women in the contest of class theory. He distinguishes between a direct and a mediated class relation. The first refers to direct access to the production sphere via employment, while the second type of relation refers to the distribution of resources resulting from employment.

The mediated class relations are the ones which link class members who are not integrated into any employment with the production process via the institution of the family. In this way, gender is recognized as an autonomous influencing factor, which may modify access to life chances, however extensive areas of gender-specific inequalities remain outside the scope of this theoretical framework. Such inequalities are for example, hindered access to education, disadvantages regarding social interaction, control over reproductive behaviour and the power structure of this institution is determined by the dominance of men.

Work by Kreckel (1992) is a further step in the analysis of gender inequalities, integrating them both with class theory and the analysis of the political system. It proves that any kind of inequality is dependent on the power structure of society. Groups and also domains in life suffer disadvantages when they are at the periphery when it comes to allocation of power and access to dominant groups and institutions.
The dominances in the class structure is only one dimension (even if an important one) of the political center influencing the distribution of social goods. The Contrast of periphery and center makes it possible to also take into consideration the women’s movement that tries to influence unequal distributions. In this model, women are not passive victims of patriarchal power but actors in the political arena.

2.4. Empirical Studies

2.4.1. Higher Education and Development

Higher Education is also positively related to several human development indicators, in addition to economic development. Higher education is found to be very significantly related to the human development index and also to the gender development index. The higher the level of higher education in a society, whether in stock or flow forms, the higher can be the level of human development, through its influence on two main components of human development index, viz., the life expectancy, and GDP per capita.

Very few major empirical estimates are available on the quantitative effect of specialized human capital (Schultz 1988) on economic development. In a relatively recent growth accounting exercise, Mathur (1987) estimated the contribution of technological change to economic growth in India to be quite significant. Such research is relatively abundant particularly referring to agricultural productivity in India (see Tilak 1994) Malathy and Duraisamy (1993) estimated rates of return (using Mincerian earnings function) to scientific and technical education in India. The average rates of return based on
1981 census survey data, are high and vary between 17.4 percent (Under – Graduate Diploma) and 70.8 percent (Ph.D. Degree). Though few studies are available on the effect of research and development on other aspects of national development, its contribution is well noted.

Higher education has a very significant role in the development of the societies – in terms of economic development, human development, gender-based development, improvement in health, life expectancy and reduction in fertility, infant mortality and poverty. But there does exist some important research, some of which is, however, more recent, that analysed the relationship between post primary education and development, and did find significant impact of secondary and higher education on growth (e.g., Barro 1991, Barro and Salai-i-Martin, 1995, Lucas 1988, Mankiw et al., 1992, Barro and Lee 1993a, b; Benhabib and Spiegel 1994, Petrakis and Stamatakis 2002, Romer 1986). For instance, the panel analysis of real per capita GDP growth rates in about 100 countries over three periods, 1965-75, 1975-85 and 1985-90 by Barro (1991) showed that secondary and tertiary levels of education attainment of male adult population have significant effects on growth, and more over the growth is not significantly related to primary education. An increase in male secondary schooling by one standard deviation is estimated to raise the growth by 1.1 percentage points annually and higher education by 0.5 percentage points. According to Barro and Lee (1994), countries where the labour force had one year of secondary level or more experienced a higher annual growth rate of about 1.34 points more. This is robust even with the
introduction of additional variables like political stability, openness of the economy and black market. Benhabib and Spiegel (1994) have found that secondary education helps in innovating technology and in sustaining growth. Self, Sharmistha and Grabowski (2004) found significant impact of secondary education on economic growth and the relationship is causal and statistically significant when secondary education is measured in terms of enrolments or in the form of stock of human capital. Jorgenson (2000) estimated that a considerable part of the growth during the 1990s was attributable to research innovations at universities and larger proportion of higher educated workforce. While primary education serves as a threshold level of human capital development for economic growth (Azariadis and Drazen 1990) it is secondary and higher education including investment in science and technology that accelerates and sustains high economic growth (see McMahon 1999).

Even in case of India, there are a few important studies on this subject. Using recent data Mathur Mamgain (2004) found significantly increasing effects of education on economic development (NSDP per capita) by increasing levels of education. It is important to note that the regression coefficient for not only illiteracy but also for just literacy are negative and highest effects are found of higher education, followed by higher secondary and secondary education.

Estimates based on production functions on a cross section data on India (Tilak 2007) similar cross-section studies on 49 countries in Asia (Tilak 2003a) and larger number of countries (Tilak, 2006a) indicate a strong effect of higher
education on development. Higher education measured in terms of the gross enrolment ratios or in terms of higher education attainment, i.e., proportion of population with higher education – is found to have a positive effect on the level of economic development and if time lag is allowed in the production functions, the effect is found to be higher.

It is not only life expectancy that is significantly related to higher education, but also infant mortality, another measure of health is significantly related to higher education. Poverty is also found to be inversely related to the level of higher education in these analyses. The relationship between poverty and gross enrolment ratio in higher education is negative and is statistically significant. An analysis of logarithmic trend value of enrolment ratio in higher education on poverty on data on 77 developing countries indicates as the enrolment ratio crosses 40 percent, poverty ratio tends to reach nearly zero levels. In general, one can argue that while basic education may take people out of poverty, this can be sustained well by secondary and higher education, which help in upward mobility and offer better economic opportunities.

The level of achievement in technology critically depends upon the level of higher education in a given economy. After all, it is higher education and research that help in developing new technology; it is higher education and research that contribute to innovations and in their diffusion. So one can expect a very strong effect of higher education on the development of technology in any society. In fact, the level of achievement in technology may be a close indicator of economic growth itself. Most countries with high enrolment ratios
in higher education become leaders in technology, with high levels of achievement in technology. The converse is also true: a large number of countries with low enrolment ratios (say less than ten percent) are marginalized in the area of technology. Those with medium level of enrolment ratios, nearly 20 percent, like Singapore and Hong Kong are indeed potential leaders in technology. A few countries like Philippines and Thailand with medium and high levels of enrolment ratios are classified by the UNDP (2001) as dynamic leaders. The rest who did not expand their higher education systems well, are indeed marginalized. We find not even a single country with a low enrolment ratio (less than ten percent) in higher education to have achieved high or medium level of achievement in the technology achievement index. The simple coefficient of correlation between enrolment ratio in higher education and technology achievement index on the Asian countries is as high as 0.8 and that between technology and higher education attainment is 0.65 (Tilak 2003).

Thus the available, though meager, research evidence shows that higher education has a very significant role in the development of the societies – in terms of economic development, human development, gender-based development, improvement in health, life expectancy and reduction in fertility, infant mortality and poverty. Hence, the general presumption that higher education is not necessary for economic growth and development, particularly in developing countries and on the other hand, and that is literacy and primary education that is important, is not a correct presumption. But these findings are not yet as popular as the rate of return estimates and other findings described
earlier that emphasised the role of primary education vis-à-vis other levels of education. As a result attention continues to be focused on primary education and at best on lower secondary education.

Substantial research has shown very clearly that education of women matters a lot. It significantly contributed towards demographic improvement by reducing fertility and improving the use of better methods of population control, by influencing the age of marriage, desired family size, improvements in infant mortality, child nutrition, health of the members of the family, improvement in participation of children in education and in their levels of educational achievement through improving pre-school abilities of children, and improvement in the economic status of the family with increase in the labor force participation of women, thereby in the household earnings, etc. The effects of women’s education on women’s behaviour on decisions relating to fertility, family welfare and health, etc., are very significant (Noor 1980, Cochrane 1988) which in turn enhance the productivity of the people and yield higher wages. In fact, a large amount of research has concluded that women’s education has a higher effect than the education of men on several dimension of development, which are not only related to women, but also related to the total population.

2.4.2. Gender Inequalities

Gender inequality exists in most parts of the world, from Japan to Morocco, from Uzbekistan to the United States of America. However, inequality between women and men can take very many different forms.
Indeed gender inequality is not a homogenous phenomenon, but a collection of disparate and interlinked problems. Amartya Sen (2001) discusses seven dimensions of inequalities, mortality inequality, natality inequality, basic facility inequality, special opportunity inequality, professional inequality, ownership inequality and household inequality. Based on these dimensions gender inequality arises and affects empowerment of women.

**2.4.3. Causes for Gender Inequality**

The ideology of gender inequality is inculcated in both men and women from birth, before they can think for themselves, religion, mythology, social and cultural labour and superstitious behavioural training, seclusion, veiling, curtailment of physical mobility, distribution of work, dietary discrimination and rewards and punishment all are used to socialize girls to accept and participate in their own oppression (Batliwala 1993). Gender disparity could be seen in terms of histological advantages. Even in the womb, the male fetuses have a lower rate of miscarriage than their female counterparts, says Waldron (1983). Yadav (2000) states that the quality and quantity of women’s work is governed by a host of social, religious and traditional factors. It results in constraining women from taking up occupation and education and thereby gender discrimination has been raised. Becker (1981) views that gender division of labour is the root cause of gender discrimination.

Gender discrimination caused by cultural traditions reserves the best food for men or feeding men first or devoting more time to the care of boys than to girls when children fall side. Shortage of food in the household offers
poorer nutritional status to the girls than to the boys. Although women usually bear primary responsibility for safeguarding family health and often find health care for others in the family, they may have difficulty in obtaining health care for themselves. Sometimes women need a male relative’s permission to seek health care (World Bank Report 1992). Patriarchy is the main reason for gender discrimination in the family (Jyothi Rani 1991, Nandini Azad 1998). Furthermore women themselves cause gender discrimination. Female infanticide, child marriage, dowry deaths and so on continue to be a part of the Indian women’s life. These problems are due to women themselves.

2.4.4. Gender Quality and Gender Specific Policies

Human Resource Development Programme should include empowerment strategies such as educating girls and women, facilitating their involvement in economic activities through development of their entrepreneurial and income earning and access to credit, involving women in policy formulation and decision making, encouraging socio-cultural change by exploring gender issues and promoting the effective implementation of equal rights legislation. Cart (1997) is of the same view that an organization is needed to remove structural inequalities inherent in the gender system. Many researchers suggest that gender specific policies with emphasis on activities and resource beneficial to women may help in providing equal opportunities and reaping the benefits of development. These policies would enhance women to take decision in their life and the socio economic status of women can be improved (Kawabatta 1995, Agarwal 2001, Venkata Subramaniam 2001, Shelly 2004).
2.5. Women’s Educational Benefits

Education will address the historical, socio-economic and political factors, which have acted to define the poor in general, and poor women in particular. Education is a dynamic process of learning in which women gain access to meaningful information, engage in critical reflection and act as a collective to transform the material and social conditions of their existence in some way. Education enables people to become more active participants. With education, individuals and societies have more responsibilities and choices (Keller 1992).

Nalini Srivastava (2005) recommended women’s studies centres for enhancing the status of women. Women’s participation in higher education has been improved and considerable progress has been made. Provision of training, employment and income generation activities should be available to women. Women should be allowed to enjoy rights and fundamental freedom on par with men in all spheres. Samungou Singh, (2007) exerts profound influence in acquiring higher education. He studied the linkages between the socio-economic background of the students and their higher education participation. The study carried out with one hundred and twenty undergraduate students comprising of 58 men and 62 women from three colleges of Manipur. The results of the study showed that the students whose parents were engaged in white-collar occupations had better chances of receiving higher education than those coming from other occupational background. The study also found that there is a relationship between socio economic background of the students and their occupational choices.
Pushpa Sinha and Ratna Mitra (2008) in their article on “Women Empowerment and Role of Education” pointed out the status of women before and after independence. The study also analysed the enrollment rate of women in different states and Union Territories. It was observed that improving the condition of women in the Indian society and empowerment of women can be possibly achieved only when women are educated. Education will impart in them decision making capacity. It helps them know their legal rights and they can be economically independent having their own identity. Sandhya Rani Das (2008) emphasized the importance of women’s education for the socio-economic development of the third world countries. It pointed out the social and economic benefits derived out of female education. By highlighting census of India 2001, the study explored the gap between male and female literacy in different states. Correlation analysis was used to study the impact of education on economic growth. Based on the findings, the study concluded that education is indispensable for economic development. Education, especially female education affects the income considerably and plays a major role in controlling fertility. Steps should be taken to reduce the gender gap in education by appropriate policy measures by planners. Mahore (2008) assumed female primary education promotes growth indirectly by encouraging lower fertility. Moreover, the perception of higher education as an important public good has eroded. Higher education is viewed by some as a private good with benefits accruing to the student in the form of higher future wages and quality of life. The researcher also stressed the importance of education for sustainable
development. By highlighting different studies at various countries the article explored the fact that how an additional year of schooling has helped to increase the personal income. It also added that, in order to be more productive and to contribute to society, students will need to understand what they learn deeply enough to use it to solve the complex problems they will encounter in the real world.

2.5.1. Education and Decision Making Power

Education is strongly related to decision making on accessing own health care, ability to set aside money for own use and mobility (Sengupta and Johnson 2003, Singh 2004). Malhotra and Mather (1997) view that education is critical in determining women’s decision-making impact on financial issues, but not on social and organizational matters. Education is related to increased decision making on economic issues in the household, very strongly in Malaysia, Thailand and Pakistan more moderately in Philippines and not at all in India. Jejeebhoy (1996) observes that education is more closely related to decision-making, autonomy, mobility indicators in Tamil Nadu. The effect of education (Primary and Secondary) is positive on women’s decision-making authority (Kritz and Makinwa – Ade busoye, 1999).

Education is immaterial in defining control over finances or household decision-making, but does increase women’s freedom of movement (Bloom 2001). There is another view that education is positively related with women’s decision making control of resources, and autonomy except mobility with which it is negatively associated (Balk 1997). Many studies find a positive
relationship between education and women’s decision making power (Kishor (1995) and Govindasamy and Malhotra (1996), Kritz and Makinwa – Adebusoye (1999)). Women with higher schooling are more likely to say that their opinion has weight in household decision, and they are also more likely to think that women should have decision-making input on matters both within and outside the customary female domain. In India based on the National Family Health Survey- II (NFHS-II) reports a strong and consistent positive relationship between women’s schooling and their input on health care decisions for themselves and their ability to set aside money for personal use (Sengupta and Johnson 2003).

In Indonesia, Asian Marriage Survey demonstrates a strong and positive effect of girl’s education on their decision-making input in the selection of a spouse (Malhotra 1991). In contrast education does not lead to greater decision-making power in certain specific settings. It is well-demonstrated by the three studies in the State of Uttar Pradesh, India (Jeffery and Jeffery 1994. Jejeebhoy 1996, Hindin 2000). Agnihotri (1999) says that even without education women are liberal and enjoy the power of autonomy in decision-making. Niraula and Morgan (2000) have stated in another way that education has strong effects on women’s freedom of movement but has no effect on their decision making capacity.
2.5.2. Education and Freedom of Movement

Jejeebhoy and Sathar (2001) opine that secondary schooling is associated with higher autonomy in Punjab, U.P and T.N. Primary schooling is moderately associated with higher autonomy only in Tamil Nadu. There is another view that education is immaterial in defining control over finances or household decision-making, but does increase women’s freedom of movement (Bloom 2001), Hollos (1998) is of the same view that less educated women have more independence and autonomy than educated women.

Studies on Asia and the Middle East countries reported a positive relationship between women’s education and their freedom of movement. But Balk (1997) finds a strong negative association between women’s education and their mobility. Studies by Kishor (1995) and Govindasamy and Malhotra (1996) in Egypt, Sengupta and Johnson (2003) in India find support for a positive relationship between education and not just decision-making, but also mobility.

Other studies based on primary data, which found a null or conditional relationship on decision-making in specific settings, find that for mobility the relationship to education is more clearly positive. Bloom (2001) and Jejeebhoy (1996) report a positive impact of schooling on aspects of women’s mobility. Similar findings are also reported by Niraula and Morgan (2000) for Nepal. Education does not increase women’s autonomy on decision regarding household purchases, wife working outside home, fertility and other household decisions (Hindin, 2000).
2.5.3. Education and Gender Equality

Greater prosperity, modernization and more widespread education for girls have reinforced patriarchal structures by defining an economically depended role for women relative to their husbands (Vlassoff 1994). The gender gap in education grew with girls having lower level skills and lesser access to higher paying jobs (Green Halgh 1985). The effect of women’s education on gender relations is minimal because of the power of gender ideology and practice, lack of economic opportunities for women, and the largely irrelevant content and poor quality of education. (Vlassoff 1994).

Vlassoff (1994) argues that greater prosperity, modernization and more wide-spread education for girls have actually reinforced patriarchal structures by defining an economically dependent role for women relative to their husbands. Moreover, it is only in theory that education is seen as a means of financial independence for girls. In practice, girls are educated to secure a husband, not to get a job.

2.5.4. Education and Absence of Home Violence

Severe and on-going domestic violence has been documented in almost every country in the past decade. On one hand it reflects gender asymmetries in power relations and on the other challenges to gender ideology. Violence towards women may be considered a sensitive index of their wellbeing and status. Educated and uneducated women report different forms and precipitating factors for violence, and higher levels of education are associated with lower reported physical or psychological violence (Sen 1999, Visaria
The extent to which women are willing to report violence may be influenced by education (Visaria 1999, Koening 2003). Moreover the direction of this bias is not certain. If violence is more stigmatized among the educated, then educated women may be more likely to under-report violence. On the other hand, educated women may be more willing or able than uneducated women to recognize and vocalize violence, perhaps because of greater exposure to the issue (Duvvury and Allendorf 2001).

Koenig (2003) found in Bangladesh that education remained strongly and negatively associated with domestic violence even when community level variables of education, autonomy and credit group membership were included. In contrast, other studies in India and Bangladesh show that at least some part of the protective effect attributed to education is due to women’s participation in community level organization, whether they are credit-based groups (Schuler, Hashemi et al. 1994) or activist organizations involved in campaigning against violence (Sen 1999).

Some research in India (Rao 1997, Block and Rao 2000) and in Sierra Leone (Coker and Richter 1998) find no evidence that education protects women from violence. Moreover, Bloch and Rao (2000) view that wife’s education does not have a significant impact on whether the wife gets severely beaten. Thus, any negative or positive relationship of violence with women’s education may at least partly reflect education related differences in reporting rather than in actual experiences of violence.
2.5.5. Education, Employment and Empowerment

Tapen (1998) opines that education provides information about health and nutrition, reproductive and sexual rights, family planning decision, gender quality, environmental awareness, religious objectives, political consciousness, economic opportunities, women’s rights and legal provisions, production and consumption patterns, etc., which definitely empower women in a complete sense.

Education is a fundamental right to women. The educational policies should link education to empowerment, say Ramachandran (2002), Berhman (2003). Dreze and Sen (1991) are of the view that education is likely to increase their role in household decision making which in turn increases the level of empowerment. Education is an investment, which enhances the skill and credentials of women by increasing their knowledge. Moreover, it increases the freedom of women to choose their career, whatever they prefer (Barua 2002). Right education is one of the most important means or empowering women with knowledge, skill and self-confidence, (Neelima 2001, Agarwal 2001, Singh 2001)

Sundaram (2000) is of the view that education to rural women is highly essential to increase their earning activities. Learning by doing and earning is the apt way of empowering the rural women in India. Moreover employment with education augments financial position of women which in turn leads to economic independence. Thereby the productive and creative energies of women should be properly utilized and streamlined by education (Seth 2001).
Education is an investment in opening up employment opportunities – access to credit, land ownership and power to decision-making and there by empowerment is achieved. Sharma (1991) says that education is the potent instrument of empowerment, which refers to capacity building. Education is the major determinant to make the women self-reliant and pursue their goals and achieve their success in diverse fields which they like. Careful planning on the part of women education will result in enhancing the empowerment of women (Jayanthi 2001). Educated women are the forerunner in making awareness among the other women in the society, says Manonmoney (2000). Education equips women to assess their position and to participate in all socio-economic activities (Keller 1992).

2.5.6. Education and Employment

Women with education and employment make for themselves in society by the flowering of their personality while retaining their essential womanliness. Their mental orientation is more prepared than a typical household. In the event of working outside, the traditional division of labour has been rearranged to meet the situation. Nair and Siddagangamma (2000) are of the view that the low rate of employment of women is due to low level of female literacy. Agarwal (2001) states in another way that education and employment are the significant factors that influence women’s empowerment.

Women’s education increases labour market participation and provides better employment opportunities for women and hence raises their incomes (Cameron et al. 2001). Khandekar (1998) finds a positive relationship between
women’s education and labour force participation in Bangladesh and also finds that the husband’s education is likely to reduce his wife’s labour force participation rate because of the positive wealth effects of potential earnings.

Female labour force participation is governed by the reflection of economic hardship and suggests that the female labour force participation widely differs among the states, which is due to the differences in the rate of female literacy. Education is a marginally significant determinant of female labour force participation of labour market work and earnings (Psacharopulos 2002). Probability of participation in wage work increases with pose-secondary education less so with lower levels of education (Mammen and Paxson 2000; Kingdom and Unni 1998).

Tertiary education increases the probability of being in the labour force (Cameron et al. 2001). Duraisamy (2002) views that graduate and above increase probability of women entering regular salaried government or private sector or wage work. Thus, primary schooling has no effect on earning for women (Tansel, 1993). Education is associated with better earnings for women, its effect varies with level of education. It is evidently seen from the study conducted in Ethiopia, Uganda and Cotede Ivoira by Appleton, Hoddinott and Krishnan (1999).

The returns to school for both men and women increase with each level of education and are higher for women than for men (Aromolaran 2002, Duraisamy 2002, Berhman 1995). On the contrary Esim (2001) states that education has positive effect on earnings of both female and male self-
employed, but impact on men’s earnings is greater. The impact of schooling on earnings is positive and significant for females in the formal sector, but not in the informal sector and domestic sectors (Mammen and Paxon 2000).

2.6. Employment and Power Over Resources

Employment has given women an opportunity to shoulder responsibility, play new roles, react with new people, face new situation, etc. (Lalitha Devi 1982). Many studies reveal that female earnings in the household by employment status would increase the power of financial management and decision making (Kalpagam 1991, Dixon-Muller 1993, Rowlands 2000, Agarwal 2001). Not only can employment be a source of economic independence, but also it can help to give women a sense of self-work.

2.7. Indicators of Empowerment

UNDP (1990) measures women empowerment in terms of choice, such as the choice to live long healthy life, to have better education, access to resources needed for a decent standard of living. Karl (1995) measures in terms of collective awareness building, capacity building and skills development participation and greater control and decision making power and action to bring greater gender equality.

Sydney Schuler and Syed Hasheme (1996) measure on the basis of sense of self an division of future, mobility and visibility, economic security status, decision-making power within the household, ability to interact effectively in the public sphere and participation in non-family groups. Lalitha (1997) is of the view that empowerment means equality of work and wages, autonomy over
reproductive life, access to ownership of land learning, access to bank credit and market, sage water and energy. Iyyampillai and Theresa (2001) assess women empowerment in terms of decision making process, Political awareness, psychological strength, provision of credit and education are the factors that determine empowerment.


Gender issues in terms of power relation and inequality have received much attention only among feminist economists. Besides efforts taken by Gary Becker and Amarthya Sen, others have registered a good spread effect. Sen’s cooperative conflict model of household dynamics (1990) treats women as decision maker influence by endowments, perceptions, etc. No researcher affords to neglect the theory of capabilities and entitlements while discussing the term ‘empowerment’. In Sen’s model bargaining power varies through differential capacities of men and women and it can be increased by wage, work and other support system.

2.8. Social Empowerment

Gupta and Malhotra (2006) stated that the higher fertility reduces women's employment while there is a strong link between female education and lower fertility which is virtually universal. A World Bank 100-country
study found that for every four years of education that girls attain, fertility rates drop by roughly one birth. Lewis and Lockheed (2008) identified that the negative relationship is due to several effects of higher education levels, including that early marriage declines as girls gain an education and women's education results in lower infant and child mortality rates due to providing better care and nutrition for the children. It is estimated that an extra year of girls’ education cuts infant mortality by 5-10 percent. Imai and Eklund (2008) noted that the women's community based organization in rural Papua New Guinea to assess the electiveness of autonomous women's groups compared to those that receive external support. Their analysis using a Heckman Selection Model as well as Propensity Score Matching shows that the autonomous groups are more elective in improving child welfare. Thus, community-level interventions targeted at women can generate significant benefits to children's well-being. Neelakantan and Tertilt (2008) stated that the local sex ratio works through the spousal age ratio to influence marriage markets and therefore household bargaining power. Scholars have found that, particularly in the Indian context, women have less bargaining power if their husbands are significantly older. Hall (1992) referred that women’s understanding of their conditions of subordination and the causes of such conditions at both micro and macro levels of society. It involves understanding the self and the need to make choices that may go against cultural and social expectations, and understanding patterns of behavior that create dependence, interdependence, and autonomy within the family and in the society at large. Janssens (2010) suggested that the
program significantly increases trust and engenders social capital. Participants are more likely to contribute to local educational and infrastructural community projects. Significant spillovers also exist with non-participants; non-participant households in program villages exhibit higher levels of trust and are more likely to engage in community building activities than households in non-program villages.

2.9. Economic Empowerment

Roa et al., (1991) noted that women be able to engage in a productive activity that will allow them some degree of financial autonomy, no matter how small and hard to obtain at the beginning. Income generating programs are difficult to implement because they are risky, time-consuming, and inefficient in the initial phases. But they can improve over time if accompanied by such necessary skills as marketing, accounting and sufficient funding. Beneria and Roldan (1987) found that while no simple relationship existed between women's economic resources and decision making, paid work increased the women's self-esteem and wives who made a considerable contribution to household expenditures (more than 40 percent) had augmented their domestic and conjugal decision making. Cheston and Kuhn (2002) noted that the investments in women’s general education, including literacy is considered one of the most important elements, complementary to income-generating activities that are considered essential for women’s economic empowerment. Post-primary education has the greatest payoff for women’s empowerment in that it increases income earning opportunities and decision making autonomy.
Johnson *et al* (2003) found that high school dropouts tend to experience both lower wage growth within jobs and lower wage growth in starting wages across jobs than do females with more education. Different empirical studies estimated returns to women's education in terms of wage growth. World Bank studies indicate that an extra year of schooling beyond the average boosts girls’ eventual wages by 10-20 percent. Another study has found returns to female secondary education in the 15–25 percent range. Comparing returns to women's education with men's education, one study estimates that returns to education for women are higher than for men. Another study estimates that the rate of return to schooling appears to be nearly two percentage points greater for females than for males. Morrison *et al.* (2004) concluded that women's rising educational level equips them, particularly younger women, with current educational qualifications that the changing economy demands. Improvements in women's access to employment expand choices, while education improves women's capabilities to take advantage of those choices. And also educational levels determine income aspirations. More-educated women have higher income aspirations over their less-educated counterparts. They expect education to pay off through a high return in salary and job quality. Hooft *et al* (2005) found that the level of education is positively related to job search intention among women. Besides, the more educated use a more pro-active approach to job search. Unemployment deprives skilled individuals of their high expected returns. Therefore, the higher educated have a bigger incentive to adopt a greater search effort.
Feliciati (2006) confirmed that many poor, uneducated villagers do not attribute much importance to the education of girls. Early marriage is another common feature leading parents to withdraw their girls from school, and once they are gone, very few girls return to school, according to a senior teacher. In a hurry to get them married, some girls fell into the wrong hand. As a result they have to suffer a broken marriage at a very immature age. Thus, economic problems are the main hindrance deterring women from getting an education, coupled with early marriage and parental negligence playing an important part in the ultimately deteriorating status of women. Azmat et al. (2006) noted that the education is seen as the most effective way to give girls access to the economic possibilities. More education is associated with lower unemployment. The most plausible reason for this relationship between unemployment rates and human capital is that the gap between marginal product when in work and the reservation wage is smaller for those with low levels of human capital. Human capital theory predicts higher unemployment rates for women than for men and, among women, higher unemployment rates for women who are likely to have accumulated less human capital. Patrinos (2007) that the women with higher women with higher education are more likely to work in the formal sector versus being self-employed or engaging in informal work and are more likely to get high quality jobs with higher fringe benefits and better working conditions. For instance, in India and Thailand, women with post-secondary education were about 25% more likely to be formally employed. Heckman (2008) noted that the equal access to education and equal opportunity in gaining the skills are necessary for women to compete in the labor market. The better educated is a woman, the more able and willing
she is to compete with men in the labor market. Gains in women’s education lead to increase in their productivity. This in turn reduces discrimination against them. This is obviously evident in today's labor markets, where jobs are becoming more and more demanding of skills and as a result workers need to upgrade their skills or risk losing out in the competition for jobs. The reason why many of the unemployed might be considered "unemployable in a modern economy" is their comparatively low level of education. In recent decades, the rise in women's employment has been greatest among the well-educated.

2.10. Political Empowerment

Molyneux (1981) identified 'the practical gender interests' and 'the strategic gender interests'. She notes that the former are short term and linked immediate needs arising from women's current responsibilities vis-a-vis the livelihood of their families and children, while the latter address bigger issues such as sexual division of labour within the home, the removal of institutionalised forms of gender discrimination, the establishment of political equality, freedom of choice over child-bearing, and the adoption of adequate measures against male violence and control over women. Bhasin (1985) mentioned that the empowerment cannot be constrained by a sectoral approach. Nor can it be related to just a set of activities or inputs. Empowerment is an all-encompassing term in which a whole range of economic, social and political activities, including group organisation, agriculture and income generation projects, education, integrated health care and so on, would work synergistically towards the common goal of empowering the poor.
Sime (1991) explained that paradigm of popular education was drawn up with the following perspectives: 

**Political**: it searches for a democratic society through the full participation of all people in social life regardless of their race, social status and gender. It also looks forward for people to achieve peace, tolerance and solidarity. It promotes the empowerment of minority groups, popular and marginal sectors of society, and women to be able to influence social and political decisions. 

**Cultural**: it questions to what extent to preserve the traditional, how to relate the traditional and the modern, how to manage the racism and patriarchalism of popular groups, and how to value the plural ethnicity of many countries. 

**Pedagogical**: it questions the authoritarian relations of teachers over students. It recognizes the traditional knowledge of people promotes assertiveness among participants and encourages multiple ways of knowing. It does not prioritize the group above the individual, or the rational over the affective. 

**Ethical**: it seeks congruence between means and ends. It stands for human rights, the claims of women, and against exploitation of children, injustice and corruption.

Shetty (1992) stated that experience is important for the certain sections of village women but also from certain sections of village men. Alongside various women's groups, political parties, unions of lawyers, doctors, etc., have lent support to the agitation. An interesting development has been that the village women took a conscious decision not to identify leaders for their agitation. It is said that their argument was that once leaders were identified, they would be 'bought' over by the politicians.
Balagopal (1992) argued that the women’s movement is gradually becoming more militant and has now become politicized because of the support it has received from all the opposition political parties. Given this conflicting scenario, the future direction of the anti-arrack agitation remains uncertain. But despite this uncertainty, there is a hope that ‘the women cadres and leaders emerging from this movement will pose serious questions in future. The question that the grassroots women pose to husbands, activists and parties - to the entire civil society - will be radically different from the ones that the urban middle class women have posed so far”.

Kabeer (2001) revealed that women’s empowerment can be measured by factors contributing to each of the following: their personal, economic, familial, and political empowerment. We make a point to include household and interfamilial relations as we believe in a central locus of women’s disempowerment in India. And by including the political, we posit that women’s empowerment measures should include women’s participation in systemic transformation by engaging in political action.

Pandey (2002) stated that women’s development saw a reflection in the Indian constitution wherein laws were enacted to eradicate the social evil of inequality, five-year plans and voluntary actions by women, state sponsored programmes like rural Mahila Mandals and local self-government, participation in social and women’s welfare programmes through voluntary action and finally the demand for reservation in political institutions. Barua (2003) found that women discovered their own potential and played an equal part in India’s
struggle for freedom. Many women came to be accepted as great patriots in their own rights. The freedom struggle of India was the platform where women again proved themselves.

Rihani et al. (2006) found that the political empowerment, no doubt that educated women are better informed about their legal rights and how to exercise them and thus are more politically active and can participate equally in societal and political decision-making processes. Women’s levels of education determine their chances of becoming parliamentarians. Anderson and Eswaran (2009) found that the empowerment is an unobservable latent variable, economists use its observable characteristics as proxies for empowerment. Women with high values of the proxies, such as a greater spousal age ratio, access to outside employment or a high level of political participation, are also likely to have greater bargaining power. Thus, the indicators of a high level of empowerment include (1) access to outside employment, (2) physical mobility, and (3) political participation. The corresponding dependent variables we use to react high levels of female autonomy are (1) the ownership of identification cards for the national government's rural employment guarantee scheme, which proxies for access to outside employment, (2) the ability to leave the household without permission, which reects physical mobility, and (3) participation in weekly village council meetings, which measures political participation. These variables were chosen because they represent a diverse set of ways in which the Mahila Samakhya program can potentially empower women.
2.11. Educational Empowerment

Stromquist (1993) stated that literacy skills can also be empowering but they must be accompanied by a process that is participatory and content that questions established gender relations, features that, unfortunately, do not characterise the great majority of literacy programs. It is indicated that women with newly acquired literacy skills have moved into self-help organizations ranging from neighborhood soup kitchens to public health groups. Maitr and Sinha (1993) mentioned that illiteracy is the second most important problem following poverty. Female literacy rates are very low nationally. A look at the statistics relating to female literacy reveals a grim picture. Though the female literacy rate has progressively increased from 8.86 percent in 1951 to 15.34 percent in 1961 to 21.97 percent in 1971 to 29.75 percent in 1981 to 39.42 percent in 1991, it is still below the desired level. Dolado et al. (2002) found that gender segregation had been declining across age cohorts in the case of female graduates and had remained steady for those with lower educational levels. Part-time jobs which tend to be typically “female” occupations are found to be negatively correlated with education. Different studies in developed, developing and transition countries reach the same result that education plays a central role in determining segregation. Analyzing variation in the economic role of women in 65 developing countries (including Egypt), access to education was found to be a key determinant of women's ability to join the skilled labor force as technicians. Fortin et al. (2002) identified that the education is essential to overcome occupational segregation. This in turn leads
to improve women's labor market outcomes. Using the human capital model, a decline in vertical segregation is predicted as women reach higher levels of educational attainment over time. Blumberg (2005) asserts that the effect is stronger, the more educated a mother is. Besides, daughters of educated mothers are more likely to have higher levels of educational attainment, which comprises a “multiplier effect”. In many countries, each additional year of formal education completed by a mother translates into her children remaining in school for an additional one-third to one-half year. Eckert et al. (2007) found that there is a negative correlation between female education and maternal mortality and a positive correlation between female education on one hand and women's life expectancy and family health on the other hand. Education here refers not just to getting education but to the level of education which is found to be more important; only at secondary or higher levels of schooling does education have a significant beneficial effect on women’s health. Abbas (2007) suggested that standard aspects of school quality have a stronger impact on girls’ education than on boys' education. On one hand, the evidence suggests that quality is an important demand factor. When education costs too much and when good quality education is hard to come by, parents, especially those in poverty, may feel that the future returns may not justify the present costs. However, girls’ enrollment is more sensitive than that of boys to school quality. Evidence from Bangladesh, Kenya and Pakistan indicates that girls’ enrolment is more sensitive than boys’ to school quality and to specific delivery attributes, such as the presence of female teachers and sex-segregated schools and
facilities, and safe transport to and from school. Johnson and Johnson (2008) compared that the male literacy is 63.68%, it is clear that female literacy is neglected. This gap ultimately contributes to the subordination of women and greater dowry demand in the marriage market. Among the literate women only a handful of women obtain their education in order to acquire economic independence; for the majority, literate women receive an education only to become more eligible in for marriage. Lewis et al. (2008) focused that the education enhances women’s well-being. It reduces violence against them, gives them a more autonomy in shaping their lives, improves their status within the family and gives them a greater voice in household decisions, including financial decisions. Govinda (2008) explored that the secondary and higher levels of education provide the highest returns for women’s empowerment in terms of employment opportunities.

2.12. Psychological Empowerment

Stromquist (1988) found that the empowerment psychological component includes the development of a feeling that women can improve their condition and the belief that they can succeed in their efforts. In Nellore, as women have collectively picketed the arrack shops, marched untidily to the district collector's office and organized a dharna to ensure that auctions are not allowed to take place, they have become strengthened in their conviction that it is only such united action that can bring about any change. "Now that we have come out of our homes, we will fight to the very end" is the refrain that has been echoed in village after village. Cousins and Earl (1992) recognized that
the importance of working with public institutions but offer only a weak acknowledgement of the need to work with women's groups so that they can develop their autonomy and advance their agenda. Zuniga (1992) stated that the concept of sustained health through a process of group production of food, cooking practices and learning about nutrition as a source of health, the development of gender identity and self-esteem, and cultural community traits of their locality. Stromquist (1993) that the cognitive, psychological, political and economic components of empowerment. These components are related to the understanding of women's condition of subordination (cognitive); the development of feelings that women can act upon to improve their conditions (psychological); the ability to organize and mobilize for social changes (political); and the skills to obtain some degree of financial autonomy (economic). Rahman and Rao (2004) identified that determinant of female autonomy in India ends that a better-educated woman has greater bargaining power, as measured by physical mobility and say in household resource allocation, through the channel of increased information. Basch (2007) identified that the education is the single biggest correlate with high job quality. Education gaps between men and women lead women to face discrimination in attaining decent jobs based not just on their sex, but also on their relative lack of skills. While postsecondary skills do not guarantee an individual access to good jobs, the lack of such skills increasingly condemns workers to bad jobs. Kandpal and Baylis (2013) explored that the diversity of participants' peer group, while study whether peers' participation improves
female bargaining power and child welfare outcomes; neither of these studies explicitly estimates treatment effects of the program's intended impact, which is to empower women through participation.

2.13. Conclusion

The review of above literature reveals the factors driving the women towards empowerment, educationally, economically, politically, socially and psychologically. Women’s contribution to the fields of art, science and sports is equally significant. It is the fact that women are endowed with natural qualities of beauty, affection, tolerance and sacrifice. They can bring about any social change with ease. It is with great spirit and hope that women agitate for more political representation. The demand for the state of women in panchayats and municipalities has also been conceded. Hence all education becomes self-education. Good higher education can do much to keep up the personality of the women. The improvements and enhancement provided by the government, NGO’s and other social organization also have been reviewed. Studies conducted in foreign countries and in India were reviewed and most of the studies are related to metros and big cities only. Very few studies are available for the rural areas of India. The present study focuses on “Impact of Higher education on Women empowerment”.