CHAPTER – II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2. Introduction

In this chapter an attempt has been made to review the related literature pertaining to the educational rights of women in India. The review of related literature has given an understanding of previous work and equips the investigator with new understanding and insight which subsequently helps him a clear grasp of the concept.

The research studies reviewed are presented below:

2.1 Related Research Studies on Women’s Education


Objectives: (i) To find out the level of educational attainment among married women, (ii) to find out the causes of women going in for higher education after marriage, (iii) to study whether they wished to earn independently on the basis of their education, (iv) to elicit their opinion as to what type of female education would best suit a married woman to fit her to engage in a gainful occupation, (v) to study the attitude of married women to further education, (vi) to find out how married women utilized their education.

Major Findings: (1) The range of educational qualifications among the married women varied from matriculation to M.Sc., M.A., and B.T. some of them had added to their educational qualification after marriage. (2) In all 60% of the women were willing to have further general education even though they were married and 16% of them did not show willingness to earn. (3) Women’s willingness to serve may be grouped under purely
teaching jobs, any occupation including teaching and other than teaching and independent work or profession. (4) Most of the respondents were found to appreciate the usefulness of the present education system which seemed to exert sufficient impact of their cognitive growth. A majority of them pleaded for a few significant changes in girls education. (5) Some respondent passed vocational training in type writing, tailoring, wool work etc., and they preferred employment in their area next to teaching. They manifested their keen interest in an independent profession. (6) Under graduates showed a favourable attitude towards general higher education. (7) In all 90% of the respondent were mother having school going children, some of them were acting as home factors of their own children. (8) Women's education had hardly made any significant impact on their day-to-day life both social and economic.


**Objectives:** (i) to test the integrated child experimental cum-action research project. The experiment included -(a) a functional literacy class, (b) oral instruction-cum-demonstration education along with the basic package called the mother and child center service consisting of medical advice, nutritional services and feeding programme, (c) a combination of (a) and (b) and (a) control village where only the normal community development and health programme were operating. The data were collected through formal and informal interviews and participant observation.

**Findings:** (1) The mother and child center service gave the best results in terms of gain in knowledge, creation better attitudes and adoption of more sensible practices. (2) It made a significant reduction in nutritional deficiency in both women and children.

Objectives: (i) to examine the influence of the prevalent trends of thought, educational tradition as well as social norms on the theory and practice of women's education, (ii) to elucidate the different ways in which women could be educated intellectually, emotionally, morally, socially and spiritually to make their restricted existence meaningful or at least tolerable, (iii) to assess relevance of 19th century approaches to the total education of middle class women today.

Major findings: (1) It was possible to discern three main schools of thought prevailing in 19th century which affected popular theories of education at that time. (2) The most influential of three was the Christian tradition which viewed a good woman as a submissive and dutiful daughters, wife and mother. This meant that women should be support if man in his struggle towards the advancement of human race. (3) The followers of John Locker's ideas stressed the cultivation of the intellect to the exclusion of every thing close. (4) At the other extreme the romantics, inspired by Rousseaus rectified the short coming of the Lockean theory out over-emphasized the cultivation of the feelings. The prevalent to impress her social circle with her conversation. (5) The novelists under study satirized the method of imparting academic education. The main thirst of criticism also supported by the government. (6) Since society in 19th century made few demands on a woman's intellect and too many on her emotions, character and Emily Bronte favoured educating a woman to express all her potential as a fulfilled human being. (7) The approach of the 19th century to the education of women was relevant to the women of middle classes today as well as for all times because it made greatest contribution to moral or values oriented education as well as education of the feelings. (8) The education recommended by 19th century novelist
and thinkers also promoted self awareness and self assessment which could enable women to recognize her parenthood.

**Mehta, Madhvi and Raj (1982)** Survey of No-working Women Post Graduate Science Degree Holders in Bombay, Research for Women's Studies. SNDTU.

**Objectives:** (i) to find out socioeconomic background of women non-working science post-graduates, (ii) to identify the reasons for women science post-graduates not working, (iii) to know their attitudes to careers and career women, (iv) to find out now they perceived the importance of science in their lives and whether their perception was reflected in their day today life.

**Major findings:** (1) The M.Sc, educated women did not use their knowledge of science at home. (2) The women's own perception of the use of science was limited to the enhancement of material-productivity. (3) Those women who actively sought work maintained a lively interest in science and scientific matters. (4) Even though they believed that science dispelled blind belief, they observed fasts and vows and one of them even consulted her horoscope. (5) When all the women in the sample were studied it was seen that there was a range of non traditionally. (6) Some of the women in the sample had postponed their decision to work because of marriage and children. (7) They thought that science had a beneficial influence on them, that they would be able to bring up their children better. (8) It was found that scientific knowledge was incorporated more readily in their behaviour.

**Leelakumari (1984)** Development of Women's Education in Uttar Pradesh Since Independence with Special Reference to Varanasi.

The objectives of the descriptive study were: (i) To trace the development of education of women in India in general and U.P. in particular up to independence and there after, (ii) to compare the development of women
education in U.P. with that of other state, (iii) to make on intra state or inter district comparative study for U.P. (iv) to make a survey of attitudes of the students of B.H.U. and its suggestions for the development of women's education in Varanasi.

**Major Findings:** (1) As far as girl's education in the whole country was concerned, on analysis of achievements during the five year plans showed that enrollment in classes 1-V increased six fold and VI-V111 and IX-XI at much faster rate, (2) in U.P. the condition of girls education up to 1927 was dismal with only 3.9 per cent enrolment of girls of schooling age. From 1937 to 1947 girl's education made rapid strides. (3) Since 1947 the enrolment has been increasing but the increase has been uneven over different plan periods. (4) Inter state comparisons were confined to giving gross enrolment figure and number of institutions for various states and union territories. (5) The study of attitudes revealed that in general all had favourable attitudes, with girls showing mere attitudes than boys.

**Kappor (1984)** *A Study of Extension Education programmes for Women with Special Reference to Family Life Education.*

**Objectives:** (i) To identify the programmes which had among their objectives the provision of family life education, (ii) to find out the extent to which the family life of education concept of these programmes as implemented in the field, (iii) to identify factors which influenced participation of beneficiaries in activities in activities conducted in the centers so that useful and relevant programmes as implemented in the field, (iii) to identify factors which influenced participation of beneficiaries in activities in activities conducted in the centers so that useful and relevant programmes could be planned, (iv) to identify the infrastructure on which these institutions operated and specific factors within this infrastructure, the presence or absence of which was responsible for their affective functioning, (v) to investigate by means of an action
research the way by which factors that led to effective functioning of the institution could be consciously incorporated.

**Major findings:** (1) The majority of beneficiaries belonged to the age group 15-25 and were married. A majority of them were unschooled or had schooling up to the second grade only. (2) The activities most popular with the younger age group and the unmarried were those which were directly related to educational crafts, literacy, lectures, demonstrations exhibitions etc., (3) The unschooled group as well as those from lowest income group showed grate participation in literacy activities. (4) Demonstration was found to be the most popular activity with the beneficiaries irrespective of characteristics studied women from joint family showed least participation in all activities. (5) Some centers for extension education for women did not have a building of their own and some were hosed in very small and inadequate buildings. (6) The arrangement did situation of the centers were far from what would make them a model for community equipment was inadequate. The number of centers did not send only observation on the equipment they possessed. (7) Most field level workers possessed the prescribed educational qualification out only half of the supervisors were adequately qualified. (8) Field workers and supervisors were over burdened with numerous responsibilities. (9) Supervisory visits consisted mainly of signing of records without regard to misreporting in them. (10) The action research showed that existing field functionaries, even when provided detailed guidelines and needed tools.


The objectives of the study were: (i) to prepare a resume of the history of teacher education in country, (ii) to study the growth of such institutions in UP, (iii) To enquire the numerical growth of students and teachers in
the institutions, (iv) to ascertain how far the financial assistance to such institutions had grown.

Major findings: (1) There was steady growth in number of training institutions for women. (2) Regarding teacher education at primary level the number of programmes had been launched in the Kakati, Kunja Jusum (1999) Socio-economic Status of Educated Working Women of Kamrup District: A Study of its impact on Society. Ph.D. Edu., Gauhati University.

Objectives: (i) To investigate the socio-economic status enjoyed by educated working women of Kamrup District and to find out the impact of women's employment on the society, (ii) to find out the factors which induced educated women to take up employment, (iii) to know what rights and principles are being enjoyed by the educated working women within the family in working place and in the community, (iv) to enquire into the pattern of dual role of the working women at home and at place of work, (v) to examine the changes that take place in the family as a result of women's employment and its impact on society.

Major findings: (1) Though husbands and parents were in favour of employment of their wives and daughters, still working women could not draw sympathy towards household activities. (2) The difference between working women and nonworking women was found in significant. (3) In matters of decision making power, role of employment was found significantly their freedom of movement outside the home.


The objectives of study were: (i) to know the views of literate as well as illiterate women towards early marriage and family size, (ii) to study the
influence of the literacy factor on population factor or control, (iii) to identify the accepted age range of marriage of girls.

**Major findings:** (1) Almost all the doctors were very keen about the small family norm and delayed marriage. (2) Doctors, teachers, officers and non-working literate women had differences in their attitude towards small family and early marriage. (3) However all of them were in favour of small family and delayed marriage. (4) In the case of illiterate women 25% of the respondents were not in favour of delayed marriage. (5) Almost 30% of illiterate housewives were for delayed marriage. (G) Illiterate women were in favour of having five to six children because of infertile mortality. (7) The educational qualification of women had a significant effect on their attitude towards family size and marriage age.


**Objectives:** (i) To find out the reasons of unemployment among educated women, (ii) to get information regarding their expectations of job opportunities and efforts made for seeking employment, (iii) to collect information about the adverse effects of unemployment, hurdles faced in self employment and future work plans, (iv) to find out about the skills of organizations in the educated unemployed women.

**Major Findings:** (1) It was found that the unemployed belonged mostly to the SC and were between 25 to 27 years of age had vocational training needed jobs badly and were ready to go out of stations and finally felt that enrolling in employment exchanges did not help and jobs were not available unless bribes were given. (2) Most of the self employed women were in the age range of 31 to 40 years possessing vocational training and were in the agencies business of ready made garments (3) The possessed organizational skills, started their business out of self
motivation and had a necessary courage and risk-taking ability. (4) These women were hard working shunned laziness and were willing to go anywhere to promote to their work.


**Objectives:**
(i) To trace the history of women's education in Mizoram from 1900 to 1982,
(ii) to study the status of women in Mizoram with regard to opportunities of education,
(iii) to examine the contributions of Christian missionaries and the government to women's education in Mizoram,
(iv) to examine factors for and against women's education in Mizoram.

**Major Findings:**
(1) There was no formal school system prior to the arrival of Christian missionaries in Mizoram. The first girls school was started by the Nelsh Calvinistic mission at Aijal (Aizwal) in 1904. (2) The girl students were not entitled to receive merit scholarships during the British period in Mizoram. The post-independence period showed change in this trend and literacy percentage of girls rose from 0.14% in 1901 to 54.9% in 1981. The enrolment of girls has likewise made tremendous progress during this period.

**Siddiqui and Hazarika, Sultana (1989)** Impact of Rural Functional Literacy Programme on Rural Women of Jorhat District of Assam.

**Objectives:**
(i) To find out the level of impact of RELP on rural women of Jorhat District of Assam in terms of the (a) level of literacy achievement,
(b) level of awareness, (c) level of functionality, (d) development of opinion of the respondents regarding usefulness of RELP, (e) development of opinion of the respondents regarding women's development through education, (ii) to find out the level of impact of RELP on rural women of Jorhat district of Assam with respect to their age.
Major Findings: (1) Impact of the classes of RELP on the rural women was reported to be poor in all the three respect, namely reading, writing and numeracy under the aspect of literacy achievement. (2) level of awareness improved slightly. (3) Development of functionality left much to be desired. (4) However, the programme was found useful by women as it gave them information on development programmes.


Objectives: (i) To discuss the educational background and socioeconomic problems of unmarried working women, (ii) to highlight the familial background and kinship relations of the married working women, (iii) to delineate responsibilities, strains and role adjustments between married working women at family members, (iv) to discuss the change that are taking place in the attitudes and values of working women and their family members.

Major Findings: (1) The majority of unmarried working women had economic reasons for taking up a job. (2) It was found that married working women had a larger share of domestic work as compared to non-married women. (3) Familial background of the respondents indicated that most of them belonged to nuclear families. (4) More employed women had a preference for a small family. (5) Due to dual responsibility, married working women demands of both they faced difficulties in meeting demands of both profession and family. (6) It has found that the attitude of women towards hither to male-dominated occupations has changed-more and mere women respondents were found taking up these occupations.
Kantomma (1990) Status of Women in Relation to Education Employment and Marriage.

Objectives: (i) To examine the impact of education and employment on the status of women and (ii) to analyse the pattern decision making inter-spouse communication and opinion in a number of current issues like dowry, marriage etc., among women with different educational and occupational status.

Major Findings: (1) The higher the education of women, the greater was their participation in decision-making inter-spouse communication and a progressive opinion on different issues.


Objectives: (i) To study the impact of training, programmes oriented towards development of income generating skills offered by voluntary women’s training agencies in Baroda city, on women of law of socioeconomic status, (ii) to describe the training agencies and training programmes in relation to objectives and duration and financing of training programmes, (iii) to study the impact of training programme in education, income, economic and social status.

Major Findings: (1) The voluntary training agencies were playing a positive role because they were providing income generation opportunities to women. (2) It was felt that all the agencies could have and should have better working facilities. These agencies could certainly improve their working conditions if they were provided bigger budgets. All this juncture government bodies private agencies and philanthropists could help these training agencies by way financial assistance.

Objectives: (i) To study the position of the women in Vidarbha in respect of their status and education, (ii) to analyse women's education with particular reference to the factors hindering progress, particularly the nature and tent of wastage and stagnation, (iii) to find out the factors responsible for and study the role of women's organizations, (v) to suggest remedial measures.

Major Findings: (1) From 1978-85, at per-primary stage the number of boys was always more than girls. (2) After Independence, growth in women's education at primary level had been observed. (3) The problem of wastage and stagnation among girls was higher than boys at the secondary stage. (4) There has been a lack of separate girl's schools and women teacher. (5) At the higher education level, the gap between number of educated boys and girls, widened. (6) The proportion of men and women in college education was 3:1. (7) The number of girls taking general education was more than those taking technical and vocational education.

Vasuki (1990) Attitudes of Women towards Women's Education.

Objectives: (i) To compare the attitude of women of different occupations to women's education, (ii) to compare the attitudes of women of different income group on women's education.

Major Findings: Women of different occupations, income groups and age levels had a favourable attitude towards women's education.


Objectives: (i) To study the correlation between educational background and professional success of women entrepreneurs in Pune, (ii) to study factors that influenced them to be entrepreneurs, (iii) to analyse their
social family and economic background and tier effect on the entrepreneurial functions of these women.

**Major Findings:** (1) A majority of the sample women entrepreneurs were middle-aged participation of younger generation was noticed to be lower as compared to the farmer. (2) The majority of them to play the role of both house wife and on entrepreneur. (3) It was found that education and training qualifications helped women entrepreneurs in their business. (4) Most of the business was female-stereotyped very few involved in hi-tech activities. (5) Professional flexibility encouraged women to take up entrepreneurial activity.


**Objectives:** (i) To find out the growth in enrolment of girls in colleges, (ii) to find out the views of students, employed women and house wives on various aspects of higher education, (iii) to study the influence of socio-economic status of women on enrolment of girls in colleges, (iv) to study the influence of religion on the performance of women pursuing higher education, (v) to study the facilities provided to girls in colleges both in urban and rural areas.

**Major Findings:** (1) In the students category caste, religion, marital status, mother’s education and occupation and financial status of family had not influenced the performance of either undergraduates. B.Ed. or Post-graduates. On the other hand, father's and husband’s education and occupation, husband’s education and financial status of family influenced their performance. Marital status, mother’s education occupation and husbands education occupation did not influence their performance. (3) As for as house wives were concerned, financial status of family was found to have influenced their performance, while other variable were not found to have influenced their performance.

Objectives: (i) To explore and describe the nature of influence of formal education on social awareness among women, (ii) to test the level of social awareness among women, (iii) to determine the role played by our formal education system in this area.

Major Findings: (1) Education had significant correlation with the acquisition of social awareness. (2) Caste had significant influence on acquisition of social awareness. (3) Education and levels of social awareness was low among low caste groups. (4) Highly educated women belonging to high economic status had higher level of social awareness but readiness for action was absent in them, meaning thereby, it was necessary to motivate these women for action.


Objectives: (i) To study the influence of education and socialization of women on her status in family and society, (ii) to study the influencing of their career on their status and personality, (iii) to study the variables of caste in their status and role in the family, (iv) to study socialization and the influence of rural/urban background on the socialization of SC women teachers and, (v) to study whether SC women teachers got equal treatment in schools.

Major Findings: (1) The SC women teachers did not express their desires and ambitions adequately. (2) The SC women teachers were not usually allowed to take decisions in the family. (3) Very few SC women teacher was found to be subjected to social pressure compared to non-SC women. (5) Almost all SC women teachers were in favour of reservations. (6) Positive attitude of the family was found to be the major cause promoting their education. (7) The SC women and their families lived in group as they felt alienated from higher caste people.

Objectives: (i) To study the policy framework for enhancing the vocational, technical and professional capacities of women in India, (ii) to examine the practical measures being actually difference, (iii) to seek opinions as to that what diverse qualities, specifically with respect to responsibility and obligations that are indicative of excellence of the profession of teaching.

Major Findings: (1) There was role conflict as family obligations did interfere with teaching duties. (2) Women teacher were not discriminated against on the basis of gender difference. (3) They taught because they felt that household responsibilities should not take all of their time. (4) Women teachers were very disappointed regarding the deterioration and quality of students in their motivation, attitudes, respect, values marks and money orientation. (5) Women teachers took part in extra-moral activities like attending seminars and conferences, doing research work, but not in tuitions or writing books. (6) Women teachers were disappointed in respect of the status that profession enjoys. (7) Principals of colleges were not satisfied with the caliber of the teaching staff in their colleges.


Objectives: (i) To compare the material for women's education generated by the government and a voluntary agency, (ii) to see how education can help adult women in achieving status equal to that of men. Not only socially but economically politically, educationally, legally etc.

Major Findings: (1) There was an ideological difference in the approach of the government and the voluntary agency. As compared to the former, the letter followed a clearly feminist approach. (2) Governments materials
were available only as books/booklets where as Jagori's materials were available in the form of books, posters audio cassettes, postcards etc. (3) Government stressed on literacy as the most important tool of education, on the other hand, Jagori used literacy, as on instrument for change and stressed on more on organizing women to alleviate their status and condition. (4) Most of the government material was found to be discussing and describing the traditional roles of women a balance between what was it envisions in the feature.


**Objectives:** (i) To review the studies on the employment pattern of educated women, (ii) to review the data sources on women in the labour force and (iii) to identify the critical issues for further probing.

**Major Findings:** (1) The work participation rate has increased from 14.22% to 22.73%. (2) The problem areas which needed to be tackled were – (a) increasing the female literacy particularly in rural areas, (b) increasing the share of women in the higher levels of education, (c) increasing the female enrolment in faculties like medicine and law for which they were eminently suitable and the work environment was also congenial, (d) changing the attitude and outlook of society towards education and employment of women, (e) changing women's own attitude to their education and employment, (f) expanding the share of employment of women in secondary and tertiary areas.

**Thomas and Pichandy (1992)** Women's Magazines and Education

**Objectives:** (i) To know the utility of the features presented in women's magazines, (ii) to explore the importance of women's magazines, (iii) to find out whether the contents lead to attitude change relating to sociocultural issues concerning women, (iv) to find out whether the magazines influenced their readers to work for women.
Major Findings: (1) The reader service columns of women's magazines in English had been found to gratify their leader more than any other features. (2) Women's magazines catered to reader's hobbies through the reader-service sections. (3) A very high majority of readers believed in the concept of women's liberation who perceived it as equal rights, equal responsibility. (4) The study revealed that the magazines did not have any significant influence on the attitudes or behaviour of readers regarding various issues. (5) Readers observed that attitudes and ideals presented in the magazines were not always realistic.


Objectives: (i) To survey the learning needs of illiterate women in Kerala, (ii) to compare the learning needs of various strata of illiterate women (iii) to conduct a survey of women adult education centers in Kerala to study their facilities, (iv) to suggest appropriate teaching learning devices for each strata of women and (v) to offer suggestions for developing a suitable need-based curriculum.

Major Findings: (1) Most of the women were found to be interested in learning tailoring embroidery or coir making. (2) Conveyance to the centers would be useful in helping the women reach the centers. (3) In order to enable the women to attend adult education centers. (4) Folk activities such as dance, dram etc., must play an important role in the teaching learning process. (5) Learning needs of illiterate women were found to be linked to their occupation. (6) As part of the study a need based draft curriculum was prepared for these women.

Karuna Chanana (1993) Accessing higher education: the dilemma of schooling women, minorities, Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes in contemporary India.
This article focusses on the growth of higher education within the framework of preferential treatment and supportive measures for the benefit of different social groups, namely, the Scheduled Castes, the Scheduled Tribes, minorities and women. It also reviews the educational policy discourse which assigns several functions to higher education. Some of these are: equity for the Scheduled Castes and Tribes; mainstreaming for the minorities, and equality for women. It demonstrates that the educational policy fails to integrate these functions which remain sectoral aims even at the conceptual level. Further, in the multi-cultural and multi-ethnic Indian society, the parameters of gender, caste, class and region are crucial in determining access to higher education. Again, gender becomes the all inclusive negative parameter conferring cumulative and competing disadvantages on women. Lastly, the educational policies and programmes are unable to encompass the complex social reality within a single framework and are, therefore, unable to bridge the gap between policy and practice.


Women's legal rights are one of the most significant determinants of their status. In Bangladesh, a series of laws ensuring women's rights have proven largely ineffective in promoting their positions. The prime reasons for this are: the shortcomings and ineffectiveness of laws, women's inability to access legal proceedings, the traditional and cultural negative views about women's rights, the absence of an accountable and transparent government, the expensive and time consuming judicial process, the lack of an efficient judiciary, and other socio-economic reasons. The core theme of the thesis concentrates on the shortcomings and ineffectiveness of laws, although viewing them within the context of those other factors. To signify the 'ineffectiveness of laws', emphasis is basically placed on the administrative and judicial approaches in the
country to achieve the underlying objectives of law concerning women’s rights in pertinent areas.

This study aims to promote protection of women’s rights by recommending remedies to flaws in prevailing laws in Bangladesh in four areas. Recommendations are made by reference to comparative and international practices. The primary arguments developed and maintained throughout the thesis are: (i) the protection of women’s rights is imperative to improve their status and law is an essential instrument to ensure these rights; (ii) the legislative, administrative and judicial efforts in Bangladesh are not appropriate and conducive to dealing with women’s rights; and (iii) improvements in those efforts can better protect women’s rights.

This study critically examines laws regarding women’s employment and political participation and the laws on dowry and rape. It also explores the ways laws have been structured and enforced in Bangladesh, and how law can be an effective means of women’s pursuit of rights. In so doing, this thesis analyses and compares a range of legislation and judicial decisions of a number of selected common law jurisdictions. Findings of the research demonstrate that the legal efforts of those countries resulted in significant improvements in traditional laws and enforcement procedures regarding employment, dowry as a form of domestic violence, and rape.

Conversely, in Bangladesh, the age-old common-law grown formalities continue to dominate the legal and judicial proceedings and therefore fail to provide remedies to the contemporary needs of women. The present legal regime also suffers from an important flaw with regard to the scope and extent of liabilities for the violation of laws designed to protect women’s equal and special rights. The absence of any independent administrative body to monitor the compliance of laws presents another serious flaw in the current legal regime of the country. Such
shortcomings eventually encourage and favour the wrongdoer, worsening the vulnerability of already disadvantaged women in the traditional culture of Bangladesh. In responding to such a situation, the present study recommends the reconceptualisation of laws to accommodate women's unique experiences in Bangladesh. The study ends with a number of specific recommendations for ensuring women's rights through strengthening the legal and enforcement mechanisms in Bangladesh.

**De Souza, Shaila. (2005)** A Situational analysis of women and girls in Goa.

The study assessed the situation of women and girls in Goa. The most disturbing statistics for women was the declining sex ratio, which decreased from 1091 in 1900 to 960 in 2001. According to Census of India 2001, the total population of Goa was 1,343,998 comprising 6,87,248 males and 6,60,420 females. Density of population was found to be 364 per sq. km in 2001. Total literacy rate of Goa was found to be 82.32%. According to Educational Statistics 2001-2002, there were 1037 primary schools, 445 middle schools and 361 secondary schools. Dropout rate decreased from 8.95% to 5.7% from 1997 to 2002.

According to the Statistical Handbook, percentage of female workers to total workers in 2001 was 22.3%. The Infant Mortality Rate (IMR) for 2002 was 17 per 1000 live births.

Planning Commission estimated the poverty ratio for the year 1999-2000 to be 4.4%, which was the second lowest in the country. Poverty ratio of Goa decreased from 44.26% in 1974 to 4.40% in 2000. According to NSS Report No. 455 (1999-2000) unemployed females per 1000 persons were 42 in rural and 69 in urban Goa respectively. According to the NFHS-II (1998-99), domestic violence was fairly common in Goa. Eighteen percent of ever-married women experienced beating or physical mistreatment
since the age of 15 years. There were 18 reported rape cases in 1999 which increased to 31 in 2003. Cruelty to married women by husband or their relatives increased from 10 in 1999 to 22 in 2003. Number of cases registered under Immoral Traffic Prevention Act increased from 28 in 1996 to 30 in 2001.

Supply of Vitamin A to pregnant women increased from 15,651 in 2000 to 40,235 in 2004.

Goa has progressed ahead of other States with regard to the implementation of Children's Act 2003 and with provisions in the Common Civil Code which give women the right to inheritance. To keep up with the times and to ensure gender justice, awareness of the law, amendments to the law and its procedures is essential. Traditional health systems and practices, which are still popular among certain sections of women in Goa, need to be supported by the State Health System. The state health department should consider widening the data that is being generated by them to enumerate other services that have been included in the RCH programme, so that this can be used by policy analysts to further improve the programme.


The study assessed the situation of women in Kerala. Kerala has a geographical area of 38,863 sq kms, 1.27% of the total area of India and holds 3.10% of India's population. In 2001 Census, Kerala recorded a population of 31.84 million (15.47 million males and 16.37 million females). In 2001, the Human Development Index (HDI) was found to be 0.638 for Kerala against 0.472 for all India. Kerala was found to have the highest life expectancy, literacy and had lowest infant mortality, though per capita monthly expenditure was not the highest. Per capita net state domestic product of Kerala at constant prices in 2001-02 was Rs 19,803.
There has been rapid and significant decline in birth rates in rural and urban areas. Infant Mortality Rate (IMR) in Kerala was strikingly lower (10 per thousand live births) than the all India rate of 63 (SRS 2002). Female Mortality Rate in 1997 was found to be 4.9 per 1,00,000 population based on Sample Registration System (SRS). Death rate in the state had touched a low of 6.0 in 1991 but has slightly risen since as it has a high.


The status of women in Uttar Pradesh has seen many highs and lows. High population growth rates are constraining development efforts. The population of the state has tripled from 63.2 million in 1951 to 166.1 million in 2001, males being 87.6 million and females being 78.6 million. The poverty ratio has come down from 47.07% in 1983 to 31.5% in 1999-2000. Around one-fourth of India's poor live in Uttar Pradesh. Per capita income in 2001-02 was much lower at Rs 9749 than the National Per Capita Income of Rs 17736. The Decadal Growth rate during 1991-2001 has increased to 25.8 as compared to 25.6 during 1981-1991. Uttar Pradesh ranked 31 on overall literacy in 2001. The literacy rate of the state was 57.36%, being 70.23% for males and 42.98% for females. None of the 70 districts had rural female literacy above 50%. The better off districts were Ghaziabad (40.27%), Mainpuri (40.45%), Etawah (44.47%), Auraiya (46.50%), Kanpur Dehat (43.99%) and Kanpur Nagar (47.26%). The literacy rate in Uttar Pradesh has gone up from 12.02% in 1951 to 57.4% in 2001. The illiterate population in 2001 was 57.81 million, of whom 21.31million were males and 36.50 million were females. The Gross Enrolment ratio for Classes I-V in 2002 was 80.93% for boys and 49.36% for girls. Among SC children this ratio was 91.62% for boys and 52.64% for girls. The State Urban Development Agency (SUDA), Uttar Pradesh has provided training to 35,052 urban poor for self employment.
In 2000, 18,920 crimes against women were registered, 31.8% were dowry deaths, 13.2% were cruelty by husband and relatives, 18.3% were cases of kidnapping and abduction, 28.7% were cases of sexual harassment and eve teasing, and 309 cases of rape were reported of girls below 16 years of age. Female life expectancy at birth improved from 48.5 years in 1981-85 to 64.09 years in 2001-06. Maternal Mortality Rate (MMR) was 707 per 1,00,000 live births, which was the highest in the country. The mean age at marriage of girls has gone up from 17.27 years in 1991 to 19.5 years in 2001. Percentage of girls married below 18 years of age ranged from 6% in Kanpur to 35% in Lucknow. Drinking water was available to 45.8% households within their premises, 44.1% had water source nearby, and 10.1% had to fetch water from a distance. Toilet facilities were available to 33.15% households. In 2001 the work participation rate (WPR) for men was 47.26% compared to 16.28% among women. The NGOs set up in these districts were fairly active, but they lacked necessary administrative strength. To reduce MMR, anti-natal coverage should be increased. Couples should be encouraged more to use modern contraceptives or spacing methods of their choice. There is a need to reframe the approach to women's development in accordance with the human rights framework. Prevention of cross border trafficking requires top priority. The State Commission for Women should work for survival and protection of women in a proactive and more professional way.


A situational analysis of women and girls in Jharkhand was undertaken. According to Census of India 2001, the total population of Jharkhand was 26.9 million, males being 13.8 million and females being 13.4 million. The rural population was 77.75% and urban population was 22.25%. The sex ratio of Jharkhand was 941 females per 1000 males.
Literacy rate was 54.13%, being 67.94% among males and 39.38% among females. In rural areas the literacy rate was 30.33% and in urban areas it was 70.71%. Children aged 0-6 years constituted 17.82% of the population. The Infant Mortality Rate (IMR) was 68.4 during 2001-2002. Maternal Mortality Rate (MMR) was 400 per 100,000 live births. Thirty eight percent women in Jharkhand were already married when they were between 15 -19 years of age. Total fertility rate was 2.76%. According to NFHS II report, 43.1% tribal women did not receive any antenatal check up, 38.7% did not receive tetanus toxoid injections, 90.2% tribal pregnant women delivered at home, and 65.7% of all deliveries were attended by Dais. Total percentage of workers was 37.64, the female work participation being lower (26.40%) than that of males (48.21%). The Family Welfare Programme in India aims to promote contraceptive use among couples. Only 28% of married women were currently using some method of contraception, compared with 48% at the national level.

**Verma, Sudhir. (2005) A Situational Analysis of Women and Girls in Rajastn.**

**Findings** : Contraception prevalence was higher in urban areas (40%) than in rural areas (25%). The average duration of using spacing methods was 14 months and private facilities were the source of obtaining these for 44% of the women, while 26% availed these from the shops. 77% of the women reported spacing of 2-3 years to be ideal, while 6% mentioned more than 3 years. About 6% of the illiterate women and 27% women educated above middle level were using contraceptives. As recommended by the Government of India, that breastfeeding should begin immediately after childbirth, in Jharkhand 56% children under four months of age were exclusively breastfed and only 26% children aged 6-9 months received the recommended combination of breast milk and solid/mushy foods. Based on International Standards, 54% of the children under 3 years of age were underweight, 49% were stunted and
25% were wasted. Women were also under nourished, 73% women had some degree of anemia, compared with 60% in Bihar. The spread of HIV/AIDS is a major concern in India, but nearly 85% women had not heard of AIDS. The main sources of information about AIDS were TV (83%) and radio (49%). The poverty ratio in the year 1987-88 was 50.03% which increased to 69.83% in 1997-98. Atrocities on women in Jharkhand like rape cases, increased from 553 in 2000 to 679 in 2002. Dowry deaths also increased from 187 in 2000 to 235 in 2002. Domestic violence decreased from 396 in 2000 to 298 in 2002. Many Government and Non Government Organizations (NGOs) were working for the welfare of women in the state, but the path to gender equity in Jharkhand is still a long and arduous journey. Gender sensitization of the functionaries of different departments seems to be the first step in realizing these goals. An appropriate intervention in this direction is likely to prove rewarding.


The study assessed the situation of women and girls in Maharashtra. As per 2001 Census, the population of Maharashtra was 96.9 million, of whom 50.4 million were males and 46.5 million were females. Maharashtra is the third largest state of India in terms of area (308,000 sq. km) and second in terms of population. By September 2002, the population had crossed 100 million mark. Life expectancy for males and females was 63 and 65.4 years respectively. 42.4% of the State's population lived in urban areas and 57.6% in rural areas. Females per thousand males declined from 934 in 1991 to 922 in 2001, while sex ratio in the age group 0-6 years declined from 946 in 1991 to 917 in 2001. Among the major states of India, Maharashtra ranked second with respect to literacy (77.3%) after Kerala (90.9%). Enrolment in higher secondary schools increased by 9.2% in 2002-2003. In 2000-2001, the drop out rates for boys and girls declined by 15% and 19% respectively.
from 53% and 63% in 1980-1981. To promote girls education, the State Government launched Ahilyabai Holkar Scheme from 1996-1997. Infant Mortality Rate (IMR) decreased from 105 in 1991 to 48 in 2002. The mean age at marriage for females was 17.6 years in 1971 which increased to 19.8 years in 1999 (NFHS II). As per the 55th Round of National Sample Survey (NSS) (July 1999- June 2000), 25.02% of the population was below the poverty line, the incidence of poverty being 26.81% in urban areas and 23.72%, in rural areas. Only 1-2% women aged 35 years participated in decision making compared with 25% women in the age group 15-19 years. 18% of the women in Maharashtra had experienced violence since the early age of 15 years and of the women who experienced violence 92% have been beaten by their husbands. Urban women (17%) were slightly less likely than rural women (19%) to have experienced violence. Women from nuclear families experienced more violence than women from non-nuclear families. The number of rape victims in 2002 was 1277; abduction cases increased from 662 in 2000 to 782 in 2002; dowry deaths recorded were 242; sexual harassment increased from 930 in 2000 to 1349 in 2002; while domestic violence decreased from 6768 in 2000 to 5065 in 2002. Maharashtra Protection of Women Bill 2001 was passed which defined violence and abuse. Many organizations like NABARD, SIDBI, UTI, Mutual Funds, Mumbai Port Trust, etc. have worked for the protection of women's rights. The Maharashtra Government has taken up several special schemes for the empowerment of women and girls, such as rehabilitation of devdasis, financial aid to widows and victimized women for self-employment programme, scheme for marriage of daughters of destitute and widows, Savitribai Phule multipurpose women's centre, Kamadenu Yojana to provide employment to home based women workers, insurance scheme for women, provision of cycles for school going girls, educational and play material for balwadis, providing uniform to school girls and sarees to poor women, providing household articles to
needy women, etc. In 2001-2002, there were 2055 primary schools, 856 secondary schools and 256 higher secondary institutions exclusively for girls. Gender gaps, however, still exist in health, education, equality and work participation. The current downsizing of the economy has led to reduced State spending on the social security sector.

**Nongbri, Tiplut. (2006)**: A Situational analysis of women and girls in Meghalaya.

Meghalaya is one of the seven sister states that comprises India’s enchanted North East. The study raises pertinent questions, not only about the position of women and minority institutions, but also about the role of the state. In Meghalaya, women are actively engaged in productive activities. According to Census 2001, women’s work participation rates are highest in rural South Garo Hills (45.3%), East Garo Hills (43.5%), West Khasi Hills (42.5%) and Ri-Bhoi (41.6%), and least in the urban areas of West Garo Hills (14.8%) and East Khasi Hills (19.9%). Among the minority tribes of Meghalaya, authority lies with the mother’s brother and the father is not devoid of power. The Khasi family stands rather unique in the annals of history in the way in which authority within the household is divided between the dominant males belonging to both sides of the family. In a Khasi family, the youngest daughter inherits the bulk of the family property, along with the ancestral home and other heirlooms. The position of women among the Garos appears to be even harsher although like the Khasis, descent and inheritance among Jaintias is matrilineal and residence is uxorilocal.

Data on the enrollment of students in the age group of 11-14 years shows that the ratio of girls who are admitted into schools is higher than boys, but boys have greater chances of remaining in the education system whereas girls tend to drop out more readily. In the years 1998-99, 63.3% women and 67.8% children were reported to be academic, with 2.4% and 4.3% respectively, suffering from severe academic.
Maternal mortality in Meghalaya was found to be high, 450 per 100,000 live births. According to NFHS 2 (1998-99), according to 29.9% mothers received no medical attendance at the time of child birth, 17.3% mothers received government approved doctors’ attention, while 13% received other nurse/ midwife's attention, and 3.5% mothers received government approved nurse/ midwife's attention. In 1998-99, 17.5% deliveries took place in medical institutions.


Findings: According to Human Development Report (2001) there were 42 rape cases, 12 molestation cases, 16 kidnapping and abduction cases, and 1 dowry death case registered in Meghalaya. A study conducted by Impulse NGO Network, a local NGO working with street children in Shillong, revealed that not only were some street children subjected to sexual exploitation, but also the fact that the North-East has become a transit point for trafficking of women and children. On the political front, women’s participation in political bodies is critical for their development, and also necessary to fill the gap between promises made in the Constitution and policy measures, and the actual exercise. Evidence suggests that where women have access to education, sustainable income, health care facilities, and social and political rights, the quality of life is definitely better for all concerned. To achieve this, the state has to ensure greater efficiency of its administrative machinery and be more responsive to the material needs and the social and political rights of women. An integrated approach to women's health should be adopted that goes beyond the limited concern with women's reproductive and nurturing role to include some of the newly emerging diseases which afflict a large segment of women outside the reproductive age such as cancer, tuberculosis, diabetes and the threat of HIV/ AIDS.
**Goswami, Lalita K. (2006)** A Situational analysis of women and girls in the union territory of Daman and Diu.

After the liberation of Daman and Diu in 1961, people of this union territory have been exposed to the social trends and practices prevailing elsewhere in the country.

Nuclear families have emerged, the joint family system is slowly dwindling, and the evils of dowry system are becoming rampant. The migration of men, while enhancing income, has brought in its wake disruption in the family and unheard of traumatic experiences. As per the Census of India 2001, there are 42312 females in Daman and 23269 females in Diu. The 0-6 years child population in 1991 was 15778, that is 15.5% of the total population. It was found that the minimum qualifications for entry in jobs was 12th pass but degree holders had an edge over other candidates. This led to increased enrolment of women students in higher education. This awareness was apparent even among women from scheduled caste (SC) and scheduled tribe (ST) communities. These communities have realized the importance of education and they try to get maximum benefit from the various schemes/incentives given by the Government. Tribal boys and girls get cash incentives.

**Maria Stanfors (2006)** Educational segregation and the meaning of education to women in twentieth century Sweden.

This paper investigates educational segregation by gender in secondary and higher education and how it has changed over time in twentieth-century Sweden. An index of dissimilarity is constructed in order to measure educational segregation and plausible theoretical explanations are discussed as we try to explain women’s educational choice and specialization in certain fields of study and why it still differs. The empirical data material used covers the major part of the twentieth century. A historical perspective enables us to identify the 1920s, 1940s,
1960s and 1970s and the 1990s as periods when desegregation occurred, mainly due to changes in relative attractiveness of different educational programs as well as in incentive structures, followed by a strong response among young women who, as a whole, have been more inclined to change their educational choice and orientation than have young men.


The right of the Muslim minority of Western Thrace to receive education in the mother tongue is provided by the Treaty of Lausanne and the educational bilateral agreements—the Educational Agreement (1951) and the Cultural Protocol (1968)—signed between Greece and Turkey. Due to certain particularities in the educational system, however, minority students do not have adequate opportunities to gain knowledge of the Greek or Turkish language. The major problems the Muslim minority faces in education include: a mixed system of administration, outdated textbooks, poorly-educated teaching staff and the absence of an efficient school curriculum. This article will provide a critical analysis of the existing legislation on education provided to Muslim students in the minority schools of Western Thrace. Secondly, an examination will be made of the level and status of minority education in the light of current international human rights treaties documents for the protection of minorities. The existing inadequacies of the educational system will be addressed to provide a series of effective solutions and recommendations in favour of the advancement and improvement of education in minority schools. The article will therefore examine the principle that education needs to be made available and accessible at all levels to the members of a minority group and, most importantly, it needs to adapt to the socio-linguistic and cultural needs of minority students.

The study examines the impact of property inheritance rights on human capital investment of women. Using plausibly exogenous variation created by amendments to female inheritance laws in India, it is found that exposure to improved inheritance rights increased mean female educational attainment by 1.1 to 1.3 years. This is also provide some suggestive evidence that the mechanism behind such an effect may be explained by the complementarily between female inheritance rights and education in the context of household property management rather than by a relaxation in the household budget constraint following reduction in dowry.

Sanchari Roy (2011) Empowering Women: Inheritance Rights and Female Education in India.

This study examines the impact of property inheritance rights on human capital investment of women. Using plausibly exogenous variation created by amendments to female inheritance laws in India that exposure to improved inheritance rights increased mean female educational attainment by 1.1 to 1.3 years. I also provide some suggestive evidence that the mechanism behind such an effect may be explained by the complementarily between female inheritance rights and education in the context of household property management rather than by a relaxation in the household budget constraint following reduction in dowry.


The paper has a number of aims. First it will examine how empowerment has been conceptualised in the field of gender and development as well as the emergence of an explicit concern with women's economic empowerment. The concern with women's economic empowerment takes
us very directly into the domain of labour markets and livelihoods through which most women gain access to economic resources.

Secondly, it examines alternative theoretical approaches to labour market gender inequalities, teasing out some of the overlaps between these approaches but also their differences. These alternative approaches can be seen as helping to frame a future research agenda since they represent different ways of understanding how women's economic empowerment is likely to play out empirically.

Thirdly, it reviews some of the empirical literature on gender and labour markets in order to draw out what they tell us about the blockages and barriers to women's progress within the economy and about policies and programmes that can help to overcome them. Given IDRC's programmatic concerns, the main focus here will be on women's waged labour and off-farm enterprise. Finally, it identifies key research questions that could form the basis of a programme of policy-oriented research on women's economic empowerment.

2.2 Related Research Studies on Minorities Education

A few studies directly related to the present study are presented below;


In the present study, it has been shown how Somali women achieved the objectives of their strategic agenda at the Somali Reconciliation Conferences held in Djibouti in 2000 and in Kenya in 2003. Such direct and active participation by women in the constitutional debates represents a remarkable milestone that is unprecedented in Somalia. The key thesis that has been argued here is that achieving this enhanced role for women resulted from the earlier decade of the military regime's policies that were favourable to their empowerment. As a consequence, women were better educated and participated in political activities. Their
economic role, as well as their increased public prominence, enabled them to gain more notice and respect within society. Moreover, since the 1980s, women have been better educated with respect to religion and were able to take on roles in modern Islamic activism. Ultimately, the prominence and high level of political participation achieved by women at the 2000 Somali Reconciliation Conference in Djibouti can be attributed to several factors. These include the changed role of women during the civil war as members of an emerging civil society, their becoming breadwinners of families during this war, the rise to dominance of moderate Islamic discourse concerning women, and the failure of armed faction leaders to monopolize reconciliation conferences.


Objectives

i. To examine whether or not the minorities felt that preferential rights given to them in the constitution had adequately helped them to conserve their religious culture, language, etc.

ii. To find out whether the Muslim minority based on faith irrespective of geographical boundaries was ready to accept Nationhood.

iii. To study the views of a cross section of the Muslim minority about secular democracy and national integration and

iv. To compare and contrast the religious education of Muslims with attainment of national integration.

The study was an explanatory one following the theoretical method. It was based on library information concerning various records like census data. Voting patterns, voting behaviour records, etc. to support this, information was also gathered through observation and un scheduled

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walks of life but connected with education of the minorities. There were ten types of people role in national integration.

i. Member of Muslim minority institutions following their own syllabi.

ii. Members of Muslim minority institution following government syllable.

iii. Muslim minority members getting government and for their institution.

iv. Member of institutions following state syllabi.

v. Members of Madrassas imparting religious education.

vi. Members medical and engineering colleges.

vii. Non-residents Indian trustees of minorities institutions.

viii. Members of linguistic minorities other than the Muslim community.

ix. Dignitaries from the Muslim community and

x. Ladies of the Muslim community serving in colleges or universities.

**Major Findings**

i. Muslims accounted for 11-21 percent of population of the country and came next of the Hindus,

ii. The assumption that more facilities for minority education would provide better education was not support,

iii. The rights to culture and educational self-determination created hurdles, the making of a strong neutron.

iv. A national education programme was not possible without the assimilation of minorities in the national mainstream.

v. Any uniform all India education policy was bound to prove distrust for the rich diversified cultural heritage,
vi. Muslims had shown a stronger affinity for religion than any thing else,

vii. Secularism and national integration were conflated in the pluralistic society of India,

viii. Education was considered the only potent tool to achieve national integration as unity in diversity.

ix. National integration was possible through peaceful co-existence and mutual trust between the majority and minority communities.

Pathan, N.M. (1986) A Critical Study of the Causes Responsible for the Educational Backwardness of the Muslim Women and to Suggest Ways and Means for Improvement,

Objectives

i. To study the position of Muslim women in Solapur District with respect to education, age and economic status.

ii. To study the effects of economic, social, religious and political factors and other causes responsible for the educational backwardness of the Muslim women and

iii. To suggest measures to improve the educational backwardness of the Muslim.

A stratified random sample of the thousand Muslim women was taken for the study. It comprised 199 and 70 urban and rural literates 120 d 165 urban and rural semi-literates and 181 and 265 urban and rural illiterates. The data were collected through structured interviews of all the women included in the study. The interview schedule consisted of 33 items related to personal information and economic. Social, religious, political and other factors responsible for the educational backwardness. The researcher also collected opinions of 209 Muslim experts and 306
non-Muslim experts from all over the country. The opinionative consisted of nine items related to the factors mentioned earlier.

**Major findings**

i. The illiterate Muslim women mainly belonged to the age group of 30 to 40.

ii. The number of children in a family was seven or more and the women were quite aloof from the concept of a small family.

iii. Giving less education to the girls was the common attitude in the patents both in rural and urban areas.

iv. The practice of early marriage was seen especially among the rural literate Muslims.

v. Most of the rural girls and women preferred to work for their livelihood than to undergo formal schooling.

vi. The lack of social stimulation and encouragement on the one hand and the opposition of relatives and family members on the other contributed heavily to Muslim women’s educational backwardness.

vii. In urban area, the main factors responsible for the educational backwardness of the Muslims women were found to be economic, whereas in the case of the rural Muslim women there was a wide diversity of causes.

viii. Religious factors were less responsible for educational backwardness in comparison with other factors.

ix. Muslim women, especially in rural areas, were unaware of the different government schemes and facilities available for women.

**Khan, M. S., (1987)** An Analytical Study of Traditional Muslim System of Education and its Relevance in the Modern Indian Context, **Objectives**

(i) to delineate the meaning, aims and objectives of traditional Muslim
education, (ii) to study the historical development, development of education ideas, curriculum and the role of teachers in traditional Muslim education, (iii) to study the development of modernization of traditional Muslim education, (iv) to study the relevance of traditional Muslim education in the modern Indian context.

A critical evaluation study of the literature to identify the basic principles, the philosophical, sociological and historical points of view, the objectives, the role of teachers and the curriculum of traditional Muslim education was undertaken.

**Major Findings:** (i) The main aim of education according to the Quran is the creation of a good, righteous man who worships God and builds up the structure of his life according to the principles of Muslim jurisprudence, (ii) The history of Muslim education is divided into four periods: (a) Jahiliyyah, in which there is evidence of the existence of an educational system (b) the prophet’s orthodox caliphate, which is characterized by the prophet’s role as a teacher and patronizing Suffah the first Muslim boarding school, (c) the Umayyad period, in which the nilers were more interested in the expansion of the kingdom than in education, and (d) the Abbasid period. Literature on Muslim education in period is available. The mosque occupied the central position in education. (iii) During the early Muslim period and Mughal period in India, slim education was encouraged. There was a great controversy in respect of traditional education during the period of the East India company. During British rule, religious education was discouraged, (iv) i.e., Indian Education Commission (1988) and the Calcutta University commission (1917) did nothing for traditional Muslim education. Four educational movements of Muslim encouraged in this period in the form of Deoband, Aligarh, Nadva and Jamia Millia. (v) Writings on Muslim educational thought began with the Al-Jahiz (treatise on education) of Al-Bayan. Other important authors on Muslim education are Ibn Shanun,
Ibna Sina, Al-Ghazali, Zamiinji, Ibn Khaldun. The essential condition for Muslim knowledge was belief in the unity of God. (vi) The curriculum of Muslim education revolved round the Quran, Hadith and Muslim jurisprudence till the close of 15th century in India. Philosophy and logic were added to it later on. Dars-I-Nizami, which consisted of classical books on different branches of Muslim education was introduced in 1698. (vii) The teacher occupied the main position in the system. Mastery of subject matter, piety and fear of God were some of the qualities of Muslim education, (viii) Revelation was essential for knowledge in Islam but was not opposed to reasoning. The Quran emphasized observation, thinking and reason, but Muslims remained traditionalists and resisted modernization. Sir Saiyyed Ahmad Khan tried to modernize Muslim education, but Deoband resisted it. (ix) Traditional Muslim education was relevant to Muslim individuals because they could not perform the essential duties of Islam without pledge of the Quran and Hadith. It was relevant to Muslims as a community for transmission of knowledge of Islam to the next generation. It was relevant to the country because Muslim theologians participated in the freedom movement and Muslim products of modern education supported the two-nation theory of the Muslim League, (x) The relevance of traditional education in terms of its curriculum was limited. It included logic and philosophy which had outlived their utility and excluded Mathematics, Science, and English. It provided a convinces expected of Muslims. It also failed to achieve certain national goals such as social and economic justice and equality of status and opportunity.

Ansari (1988): Educational Philosophy as found in Islamic Culture.

Objectives: (i) To find out the importance given to education in the Quran and the Hadiths, (ii) to examine the concepts, types and aims of education stressed by the Islam, (iii) to study the role of the teacher and the expectations from role of the teacher and the expectations from
students in Islamic culture, (iv) to study the role of the family with regard to education, the methods followed, the importance given to women's education, moral education, physical education and education of exceptional children in Islamic culture, (v) to study the concepts of discipline and internationalism as found in Islamic culture, and (vi) to suggest changes in the pattern of education to resolve its problems. Making education relevant and effective and promoting higher education.

**Major Findings:**
(1) The aims of Islamic education were realization of eternity, truth, perfect living and living and inculcation of democratic values. (2) Islamic education advocated the use of the inductive-deductive method, questioning, experimentation and discussion. (3) Different curricula were planned for different stages of education. (4) The teacher was the role model for students and enjoyed a high status in society. (5) The teacher-student relationship was cordial. (6) Most of the schools were single-teacher schools. The system was flexible, and the monitorial system was in prevalence. (7) Education was obligatory for males and females and was a lifelong process, though formal schooling started at five years of age. (8) Women's education and art education were given prominence. (9) The Islamic philosophy of education advocated development of universal and objective values as being the ultimate. (10) Islamic education made a significant contribution in the fields of mathematics, physics, philosophy, biology, astronomy, pharmacology and agriculture. (11) Islam advocated universal brotherhood and dignity of man, equality, social justice, freedom for all, tolerance, forbearance, welfare measures for the progress of humanity and the development of human nature in its entirety. (12) Islamic education gave importance to acquisition of knowledge. (13) Islamic education was by and large religion-centred and emphasized equilibrium between spiritual and material needs.

Objectives: (i) To bring into the limelight the dark and deplorable conditions prevalent in Orissa when the Baptist missionaries launched their operation in 1822, and (ii) to emphasize the various educational efforts of the missionaries to evangelize and civilize Orissa and rouse it from the deep slumber of ignorance and illiteracy.

Major Findings: (i) The Baptist missionaries first arrived in Orissa in 1822. (ii) The East India Company did not encourage the idea of spreading Christianity in India, (iii) The Baptist missionaries operated throughout the Oriya speaking areas, (iv) The British Baptist missionaries came immediately after the East India Company's occupation, (v) The general educational efforts of the missionaries were to establish orphanages. The missionaries also established primary schools and middle schools in different mission station in Orissa, including both towns and villages. The progress of secondary education in Orissa even after the Wood's Dispatch had been slow. At that time missionary high schools had been given special treatment, (vi) The missionaries gave much importance to female education and zenana teaching, (vii) The missionaries also played a significant role in the education of tribals. (viii) Professional institutions of different types were also established by the missionaries; these were the really benevolent efforts of the missionaries. The establishment of hospitals and dispensaries provided opportunities for nursing and midwifery training and Christian women were pioneers in regard. The missionaries imparted training to teachers. Their institutions helped to pare teachers at time when such institutions were almost absent. It also established Sunday schools at different places in Orissa for imparting religious training as well as training for good character and conduct. (ix) The mission press published religious books, textbooks for schools, dictionaries and other valuable books, (x) The
religious and philosophical bases of education stressed the evangelical and academically aims of missionary education. Christian educational enterprises characterized the beginning of Indian history. The sociological base of missionary education was important in the context of mass movements the Christian endeavour for the upliftment of aboriginals and outcastes had been given due importance, (xi) So far as the financial aspect of missionary enterprise was concerned, the main sources were subscriptions, endowments, special gifts and government grants which actually supported and encouraged missionary educational endeavour, (xii) The mission had its own pattern of administration for the smooth conduct of institutions for education or religious training, and of medical and industrial organizations. In their ventures the missionaries always cooperated with and followed government policy, (xiii) Both auricular and co-curricular activities were effectively and efficiently organized in mission schools, which brought honour and glory to these institutions through reports and remarks of distinguished visitors and inspectors. (KCP 0446).


Objectives: (i) To find out the factors which account for educational backwardness, (ii) to find out the relationship, if any, between educational backwardness and relationship, if economic status of the community, (iii) to analyse and trace the educational and socio-economic conditions of the community in India, and (iv) to review earlier studies on the Rational backwardness of Muslim in India.

Major findings: (i) general economic and educational backwardness was one of the factors for the educational backwardness of the Muslim community, both in the comparatively more advanced and the backward districts, (ii) The little progress noticed in matters of income, occupation, landholding, housing construction, marital status, etc. was recorded in
the those districts which had a comparatively higher literacy level. (MPR 1905)

**Sirohi, M.S. (1991):** Field Assessment Study of Guidance Inputs in Minorities Schools Independent Study.

**Objectives:** (i) To assess the extent of utilization of career guidance inputs provided by the NCERT to the selected minorities schools, and (ii) to identify difficulties faced by minorities schools in utilization of the career guidance received under the NCERT/technical assistance to minorities schools

**Major Findings:** Analysis of the responses showed that teachers tried to organize guidance services in their schools to the best of their ability despite many constraints such as lack of time due to the pressure of multiple job requirements, poor administrative support, etc. Nevertheless, they could certainly touch upon all the sixteen aspects they were expected to cover in their schools. But it was suggested that the achievement could be enhanced if the NCERT could keep up a regular interaction with the schools. (DFSEC 1003).

**Tewari, Rakesh Chandra, (1991):** Educational Implications of Buddhistic Philosophy, Ph.D., Education, University of Allahabad.

**Problem:** The study examines the educational Implications of Buddhist Philosophy.

**Objectives:** (i) To study the metaphysics, epistemology and axiology of the Buddhist Philosophy, (ii) to bring out implications of the Buddhist Philosophy for educational objectives, curriculum, and teaching methods; for the concept of the student and the teacher, and adult and continuing education, (iii) to study the contribution of Buddhist philosophy to modern system of education, (iv) to analyse the aspects of women’s education and co-education as available in Buddhist literature,
and (v) to give precise description of some important centers of Buddhist education.

**Major Findings:** (i) The four noble truths are: (a) there is suffering, (b) there is a cause of suffering, (c) there is cessation of suffering, (d) there is a way leading to cessation of suffering, (ii) If the cause of dukh (suffering) is removed, there would be cessation of suffering. The suggested noble eight-fold path comprises: (a) right faith, (b) right resolve, (c) right speech, (d) right action, (e) right living, (f) right effort, (g) right thought, and (h) right concentration, (iii) According to the Buddha, the main cause of misery is Agyan (lack of knowledge). He emphasized character building, personality development, preservation of culture and all-around development, (iv) Education was imparted in Sanghas and Viharas which were located quite a distance away from towns. Buddhist education was not caste-ridden or sect-ridden, (v) The primary education curriculum included learning of the alphabets, studying Siddhan Chang and Shabd Vidya. After 16 months the knowledge of philosophy was imparted, (vi) The curriculum of higher education was very wide. The subjects were so integrated that they took care of both worldly as well as spiritual needs. The subjects, inter alia, included military training, Ayurveda, the four Veda, Vedang, history, astrology, shakun vidyan, pratik shastra, swapna vigyan, dhoom ketu and ulka vigyan, astronomy, mathematics, discussion method (techniques); sankhya-yog-nyay, and Vaisheshik philosophies, music, the language of birds and objects, medicine and surgery, painting, literature, and the art of waging wars, (vii) The methods of teaching included poetry, sutra vidhi, the lecture method, the discussion, the teacher-taught dialogue, inspection and comparison, individualization of instruction, teaching by advanced level pupils, etc. of these, the discussion method was thought to be ideal, (viii) Education was free, (ix) The teacher-taught relations were cordial, (x) Evidence of
the existence of adult education and continuing education is evident from the ten Jatakas, (PCS 1931).


Objectives: (i) To study the reasons for conversion of depressed class Hindus to Christianity and the role of education as a motivating force, (ii) to study the status difference between new converts and the earlier converts (Syrian Christians) inside the Church, (iii) to study the educational facilities given to them inside and outside the Church, and (iv) to study the role of education in the struggles of depressed-class Christians and to evaluate the movements of the depressed-class Christians.

Major Findings: (i) The study of these movements showed that even among Christians, caste was a very strong factor. The depressed class Christians who joined Christianity to release themselves from the bondage of caste and tradition could not absorb the ideals of equality fully. The sub-caste feeling which became so strong that it could topple a movement aimed at their own autonomy, proved this case. (2) The role played by education in changing these values was very little. Both Syrian Christians and the depressed class Christians, even after their higher education, continued to accept casteism. Only those who were highly politicized and highly conscious of the liberation of the whole of humanity could rise above caste feelings. This was true in the case of both Syrian Christians and the depressed class Christians. It showed that the question of caste and casteism had also got a political dimension. The answer to the question lies in the wider society. Only with a change in the social structure, essentially a political process, could this problem be solved. (ASB 031).

Objectives: (i) To analyse the educational facilities available to the Muslim girl students studying in schools, (ii) to study the extent of utilization of educational facilities available in the school by the Muslim girl students, (iii) to understand the school environment of the Muslim girl students, (iv) to analyse the role of the parents in utilizing the educational opportunities provided in the school, and (v) to study the factors in and outside the school which obstruct the Muslim girl students from getting school education.

Major Findings: (i) The Muslim girl students used educational opportunities less than the non-Muslim girl students, (ii) The Muslim girl students lagged behind in academic achievement in comparison to the Hindu students, (iii) The problem faced by the Muslim girl students were long distance from their residence to school lack of Urdu-medium school, social customs, and the orthodox system. (JSP 0561)


Objective: The main objective of the study was to understand the nature of the rights extended to the minorities in the Indian education system and the implementation of these provisions in Bombay. The specific objectives were to study: (i) the nature of the minority rights in education as provided in the Constitution and as interpreted by the Indian courts, (ii) the role of the State government in the implementation of these rights, and (iii) the extent to which these rights are availed by the minorities in Bombay.

Major Findings: (1) The State controls the Indian education system. The demands raised at the public level were accommodated at a superficial
level. (2) The Minority Education Institutions (MEI) could initiate communal feelings as they were vulnerable to communal pressures. Hence, they should be carefully administered. (3) By mobilizing community-based resources and by putting these resources to umpteen usages, the MEIs contributed to a large extent towards the achievement of the national goal of total literacy in India. (RJ 0216).


Objectives: (i) To investigate the state of education among the Muslims of rural West Bengal on the basis of their attitude towards education, (ii) to identify various factors responsible for their educational backwardness by analyzing the socio-economic cultural environments of Muslim community, and (iii) to formulate a way through which emancipation of the Muslims from illiteracy and ignorance can be achieved.

Major Findings: (1) The literacy status as well as the educational standard of the Muslims of six villages under study were found to be very poor. The average literacy rate in six villages was 32.27% only. The frequencies of men’s and women’s literacy were 40.87% and 22.89%, respectively. There were a total of 3,384 children in these villages who belonged to the school-going age. 1,082 (32%) drop-outs and 1,351 (39.09%) non-enrolled children. Among the continuing students, 46.92% were attending school regularly. 35.71% of students did not go to schools regularly due to their involvement in agriculture and other household work. (2) Nearly 64% of the guardians/parents aspired to educate their children up to the secondary standard, while 41% of the students wanted to go to college and university. (3) Illiteracy among children was very high in families where parents were literate/educated only up to the primary standard. The enrolment of the children was very low and drop-out.

Minorities face a myriad of fundamental problems in educational programs. These problems are tied to ever increasing politics prevalent in higher education. Traditionally, politics has been linked to education raising questions concerning first, the role of higher education in reducing endemic problems confronting minorities, and second, the pursuit of educational goals by minority groups within the political setting. Since education continues to be the key for upward class mobility of minorities in the American society, there is a need for intrinsically engineered and institutionally established strategies that go beyond mere acceptability to productivity in higher education. Possible perspectives for minorities seeking to broaden their bases via education avenues in the future must include the development of time-management skills for goal-setting and goal-attainment of minority students. Institutions need to infuse multiculturalism into their programs through restructuring curricula, reforming testing and instruction, and adopt nontraditional methods. Four strategic phases can be identified for minorities in the 21st century: acceptance, acclimatization, responsibility and productivity.


The purpose of this research is to critically examine strategies for increasing the histological pattern of minority enrollment in higher education. The recent decline in minority enrollment creates a moral dilemma and an ethical challenge for diversity in higher education. In 1996, a United States Appeals Court ruled race-based admissions unconstitutional. This decision coupled with recent anti-affirmative action legislation has contributed to the declination of minority
enrollment (BI, 1998). For years, affirmative action served as a catalyst for racial and ethnic diversity while increasing the number of minorities and women in higher education. Research suggests that the quality of life depends on the quality of education, and improving post-secondary admissions opportunity for minorities in higher education improves the quality of life for all people (Chenoweth, 1998). Since education remains the primary means for social change and economic mobility, the recruitment and retention of underrepresented minorities into higher education is necessary for the economic vitality of our country (Slambrouck, 1998).

The rapid decline in minority enrollment forced university administrators to seek creative and innovative strategies for increasing underrepresented minorities while promoting racial diversity in higher education. This study used quantitative and qualitative research methodologies to assess the potential of these new strategies. The data shows that minority enrollment declination was a temporary and regional phenomenon closely associated with court decisions and anti-affirmative action legislation. The data also suggest that new recruitment strategies minimized the impact of these adversarial acts. The research concludes that diversity is important to higher education, and that the new recruitment strategies increased diversity and minority enrollment.

**Nora, Amaury (2001) How Minority Students Finance Their Higher Education.**

This digest examines the various financial sources minority students use to meet the costs of higher education, some of which were created with the specific goal of promoting their college attendance. Sources include federal student loans, pre-college programs and grants, college prepaid plans, and student credit cards. Policy recommendations to increase the availability of aid for college attendance, grounded in current policy and data, include increasing the emphasis on grant aid resources at federal,
state, and institutional levels to lower dependence on loans for low-income students; increasing work-study programs to help integrate working students into the institution and help them finance their education; reassuring students regarding the availability and timing of student aid; targeting financial aid programs for students whose needs are not met by current federal aid programs; and continuing state support through needs-based grants.

Suncerrae Perry, (C. Holly Denning), (2006) : Minority Women In Higher Education Sociology Department. Although much research has explored issues related to minority student retention and graduation, there has been little examination of minority women in higher education, either as administrators or teachers. This study will present exploratory comparative qualitative research. According to the literature, it appears that, although females outnumber males in college enrollment, the number of females in positions within higher education is significantly low. In addition, many ethnic minority groups are underrepresented in higher education (i.e. African Americans, Hispanics, Native Americans). Therefore, a research question emerges: Why and how are minority women constrained from advancing as college faculty and administrators? Issues of racial and gender discrimination need to be understood in the context of such a study. While it is beyond the scope of this undergraduate research project to answer this question in depth, this study illustrates the problem from several individual women's experiences. A small sample of women from diverse ethnic and racial backgrounds will be selected from University of Wisconsin System schools in this ongoing study. Interviews and qualitative surveys will be administered to uncover reasons for their success in academia and bring to light obstacles that they have overcome. For comparative purposes, some of the subjects chosen will have access to (and experiences with) TRIO Programs, while a control group that did not have opportunities for
federally sponsored academic and economic incentives will also be studied. Certainly, in the 21st century, these issues are critical to explore in current and future research.

Leah Wasburn-Moses (2007) Minority Students' Perceptions of Their Doctoral Programs in Special Education.

Education, as in other areas, has a chronic shortage of minority faculty. Arguably, special education has one of the greatest needs for minority doctoral students within the field of education. However, past research has indicated that the graduate school socialization process may hinder the progress of many minority doctoral students. This study reports the perceptions of minority doctoral students about their programs in special education. These students (n = 164) were participants in a larger satisfaction survey involving 619 doctoral students. Results indicate that although Latino/Latina students felt most satisfied with their programs overall, Asian and African American students reported more feelings of dissatisfaction. Implications for students, faculty, and program administrators are presented.


The recent enactment of the National Commission for Minority Educational Institutions Act, 2004 (hereinafter referred to as NCMEI Act) is a landmark step for facilitating the working of minority educational institutions and prima facie favours rights of such educational institutions in India. However, an in-depth analysis confirms that the provisions of the NCMEI Act are in contravention to the Constitution of India and permits unwarranted regulation by the Government. Ironically, the legislation which promises to protect the minority educational institutions is in reality acting as an instrument for unfettered regulation
at the hands of the executive. This research paper aims at identifying the right of minority educational institutions vis-à-vis such regulation imposed by the Government.

**J Huang (2008): Issues in the development of Chinese higher education for minorities.**

Being a distinguishing feature of CHEM (Chinese higher education for minorities), the University for Nationalities impresses people with its backwardness, its conservativeness, its low efficiency and its inability to attract talent. Nevertheless, it has contributed greatly to CHEM. Four serious problems of CHEM are discussed in this paper. Firstly, this paper analyses the difficulties of CUN (Chinese universities for nationalities) in the investment of government, an illustration of the inequality of treatment the CUN received is given. Negative effects of utilitarianism in CHEM are discussed. Secondly, this paper analyses the difficulties of CUN in the reform of higher education. Attention is paid to the conservative ideas, to the dilemma which CUN met in the choices between efficiency and minority characteristics and environment factors. Thirdly, the difficulties of CUN in building up teacher strength are analysed. Fourthly, the difficulties of CUN in improving teaching quality are analysed. Difficulties for CUN to develop a competitive environment are explained. Finally, recommendations are made for the future development of CHEM.

**Cole (2010) Interactions on Minority Students' College Grades: Differences between Aggregated and Disaggregated Data.**

This study examines the effects of student-faculty interactions on 2073 African American, Asian American, and Latino/a students’ college GPA. Using data from the College Student Experiences Questionnaire (CSEQ), three distinctions in the nature of student-faculty interactions were identified across racial/ethnic groups. Each type of student-faculty
contact was significantly correlated with students' GPA when the data was aggregated across race/ethnicity. Yet, when the data was disaggregated by race/ethnicity, student-faculty interactions were not significantly related to Latino/a students' GPA and Course-related Faculty Contact was negatively correlated to African American students' GPA.

Lipp (2011) Examining Educational Initiatives to Increase Minority Student Enrollment in Advanced Placement Program Courses.

A pertinent educational issue in our country today is the minority achievement gap. One specific program that has been developed and implemented over the last several years in an effort to provide strong academic curriculum and to raise student achievement, including minority student achievement, is the College Board's Advanced Placement (AP) Program. The AP Program courses are widely recognized as providing students with academically challenging curriculum, facilitating their acceptance to colleges and supporting their preparation for and performance in post-secondary education. The emphasis of this research relates to the specific concern that although the AP Program has been in existence for several decades and is an integral part of most high schools' curriculum for at least ten years, there is an underrepresentation of minority students in high school Advanced Placement (AP) Program courses. This qualitative research involved completing an in-depth case study of a designated secondary school in the Mid-Atlantic region that has been successful in recruiting and enrolling students, majority and minority, in the AP Program. Guiding questions for this case study related to identifying the individuals who influenced enrollment, as well as the policies, procedures, interventions, and strategies used to recruit students and increase their enrollment in AP courses. These research findings revealed various key factors that contributed to the success of increasing student enrollment in these
academic courses and the factors are similar to those identified in the literature and other research studies. These factors include: (a) shared and distributed leadership demonstrated across the school; (b) collaborative vision and mission; (c) an AP Program with high expectations and a relevant and rigorous curriculum; (d) strong academic advisement, datadriven decision making, and specific school policies and procedures related to the AP Program; (e) extended student learning opportunities and individualized support; and (f) varied professional development and training for faculty. This case study highlights a group of dedicated and committed leaders with collaborative vision who implemented an academic program with focused initiatives and interventions. Between 2003 and 2009, this school increased overall student enrollment in the AP Program by 15.2%, with the Black student enrollment increasing by 11.9% and the Hispanic student enrollment increasing by 10.5%. They accomplished their goal and commitment to increasing minority enrollment in the AP Program and providing enriched academic learning opportunities for all students.