CHAPTER -2
LITERATURE SURVEY AND RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The present chapter has been divided into three sections. Keeping in view the objective of present study, the literature survey has been divided into two sections and third section is on research questions arisen from the literature survey.

SECTION- I  INTRODUCTION

2.1 Female Education in Vedic Studies: On the basis of level of female education, Vedic studies can be divided into three parts:

- Golden Age
- Dark Age
- Rejuvenation Age

Golden Age: In ancient India education of females was as important as that of males. Down to 3rd century B.C. girls could remain unmarried till the age of 16 years. The period before marriage was utilised for imparting education to them. Till about the beginning of the Christian Era ‘Upanayana or the ceremonial initiation into Vedic studies’ was as common in the case of girls as of boys. The Atharvaveda observes that a maiden can succeed in her marriage only if she has been properly trained during the period of studentship (Brahmacharya).

Down to the 4th century B.C., Vedic and Philosophical studies attracted the main attention of society. Ladies also participated in these subjects. Besides studying the Vedas, many of them used to specialize in ‘Purvamimansa’, which discussed the diverse problems connected with Vedic sacrifices. This science is a very dry and difficult one, perhaps even more abstruse than mathematics. A Theologian named Kasakritsna had composed a work on Mimansa called Kasakritsnas. If lady scholars in such a technical branch of study were so numerous as necessitate the coining of a special term to designate them, is it not reasonable to conclude that the number of women, who used to receive general education, must have been fairly large.

When the reaction against the Vedic sacrificial religion gave a stimulus to philosophical speculations in about 800 B.C., lady scholars did not lag behind in taking an active interest in the new movement. Yajnavalkya’s wife Maitreyi belonged to this class. Gargi and Atreye, were other distinguished philosophers. Some of them used to remain
unmarried throughout their life in order to carry on their spiritual experiments unhampered.

The admission of women to the Buddhist order gave a great impetus to the cause of female education among the ladies in commercial and aristocratic families. Like the Brahmavadininis in Brahmanical circles, several ladies in Buddhist families used to lead a life of celibacy with the aim of understanding and following the eternal truths of religion and philosophy.

According to the Jain tradition, Jayanti, a daughter of king Sahasranika of Kausambi, remained unmarried in order to learn the truths of religion and philosophy (Bhagvatisutra, Gujarati edition, Vol. III, p. 257).

Many educated women, called Upadhyayas, used to follow teaching career either out of love or out of necessity. Women teachers must have been fairly numerous in society, otherwise a new term would not have been coined to designate them. It may be pointed out that the tradition of lady scholars is known to Puranas as well. The Bhagvata, for instance, refers to two daughters of Dakshayana as experts in theology and philosophy. But the number of these could not have been very large. In technical subjects like Theology, Philosophy and Medicine, most of the experts were usually males and advanced lady students used to go to them for their studies. This is clear from the example of Atreyi in the Uttararamacharita, who was studying under Valmiki along with Lava and Kusa, the sons of Rama. The number of lady students going to distant places for higher education was not large. The Jatakas, for instance, do not refer to lady students going to Takshila for education. It would however seem that co-education in higher studies was not unknown even in the 8th century A.D., for Bhavabhuti in Maltimadhav represents Kamandaki as being educated along with Bhurivasu and Devarata. The percentage of girls receiving co-education was however not large. Usually, ordinarily girls who did not go in for higher education were educated in their own families by their fathers, uncles or brothers or by local lady teachers. It has to be remembered that, down to the 4th century A.D., there were no public schools even for boys. Writers like Harita lay down that the girls should be usually taught at home by their male relations. They probably refer to the practice of about 5th century B.C. We should not forget that higher female education was generally confined to cultural and well-to-do families.
K.K. Khullar (2004) mentions in his article published in the Employment News: In the Rig-Veda there are references to women teachers who possessed very high spiritual knowledge such as dialogues between Yajnavalakya and his wife Maitreyi and Gargi Vachaknavi. The names of girls who excelled in elocution contrasts and recitation of Vedic hymns is a legion. No branch of knowledge was denied to women. Physical training was compulsory for boys and girls, in addition to the knowledge of so-called Upadhyayas Astras and Philosophy.

**Dark Age:** The cause of women education suffered a good deal after 300 B.C. on account of the new fashion of child marriages becoming the order of the day. Naturally, this meant a handicap to advanced studies, which could not be obviously finished before the ages of 12 or 13 years. Even the initiation ritual (Upanayana Samskara), so necessary for endowing women with the proper Aryan status, was reduced to a mere formality and then dropped altogether.

By about the 8th or 9th century A.D., the marriageable age of girls was further lowered to 9 or 10 years. This gave practically a death-blow to any education worth the name. No doubt, two or three years were still available when some primary education could have been imparted. But both the girls and their guardians used to devote their attention during this period more to the problem of marriage than to that of education.

In the 9th century A.D., higher education of women was confined to royal, official, rich and well-to-do families and to the class of dancing girls. Girls in ruling families used to receive some military and administrative training also.

It was observed that those who followed the medical or the teaching line could become economically self-reliant. The same was the case with singers and dancers. For ordinary, women spinning and weaving were of great help in times of difficulty.

During the Muslim rule, the percentage of literacy among Hindu women went further down with a great rapidity. Rich and cultured families were, as a rule, ruined by the new political revolution. They were no longer in a position to make special arrangements for the education of their daughters. Some new Hindu families also, no doubt, rose to eminence with the rise of Islam, but their number was generally small and they did not, as a rule, possess sufficient culture to induce them to take active steps for the fostering of education among the girls of their households.

The daughters in Rajput, Nair and Zamindar families could read and write. The same was the case with Jain Nuns, who were generally in a position to read their own
scriptures. These, however, were exceptional cases. Society had a general prejudice against female education. It was believed that a girl taught to read and write would become a widow. Ordinarily, only prostitutes and dancing girls could read and write.

At the advent of the British rule, female education had practically disappeared from Hindu community. Hindu women during the last millennium were usually unlettered, but they could not be described as uncultured. In fact, books being rare and costly, traditional wisdom and culture could be learnt more easily from the lips of a preacher than from the pages of a manuscript. The situation however, changed drastically during the Middle Ages when India was subjected to frequent foreign invasions. Education of women suffered badly. (K.K.Khullar, 2004).

Rejuvination Age: Subsequent to the assumption of the Indian administration by the British Crown, Government began to take some steps for the promotion of education among girls. Progress during their first forty years was very slow. By the end of the 18th century, however, public opinion also began to support its cause, mainly owing to its vigorous championship by the school of social reform. Not much progress, however, was made for a long time, primarily because girls were married at the age of 9 or 10 years. Their education could thus continue only for three or four years, as it had to be suspended after marriage. The terrible havoc caused by the plague at the beginning of the last century tended to raise the marriageable age of girls to 12 or 13 years. Among the educated middle classes in cities it had advanced to 18 or 19 years, chiefly owing to the influence of economic factors. In 1929, a legislation was passed fixing 14 years as the minimum age for the marriage of girls. This has been raised to 18 years in 1955. This raising of the marriageable age of girls has helped the cause of the female education to a remarkable degree. (A.S. Altekar, 1978).

From 1803-1857, education was imparted according to needs of a person without special attention on women. In 1854, Sir Charles Wood's Despach promoted for the first time for the education of girls or women. In 1870, Government started separate schools for girls but due to carelessness of public, remained unattended. Number of schools decreased by 1880-81.(Table-2A Appendix II, K.C.Yadav, 1981).

After this, several commissions and committees have been appointed to suggest ways and means to improve education in general and that of women in particular. Policies, programmes and schemes have been formulated and efforts have been made to implement them for promotion of female education. After independence,
separate provisions have been included in the Constitution to safeguard the interests of women to receive education. Education has been discussed in the Five Year Plans with reference to women to achieve the goals and targets of female education.

Commissions

In 1882, Hunter Commissions’ Report talked about the facilities for promotion of women education. Hence, it recommended that public funds of all kinds – local, municipal and provincial should be chargeable in an equitable proportion for the support of girls schools as well as of boys schools. To bring about all round development of girls education, the commission suggested that Government should give liberal grants to private girls’ schools, award women teachers, prescribe a simple syllabus in girls’ primary schools, start women normal schools, and organize a separate Inspectorate for girls’ education. An examination, in subjects suitable for girls, should be established as an alternative to the matriculation examination.

Considering the importance given to education as an essential instrument of nation building process by leaders of the national movement 19th century onwards, comprehensive review of the entire education system was undertaken after independence. The University Education Commission or the Radhakrishnan Commission (1949), the first review body, submitted report in 1949 recommending separate curricula for boys and girls. The commission believed that a well-ordered home helps to make well-ordered men. The mother who is enquiring and alert, well informed and familiar with subjects such as history and literature, and who lives and works with children at home, will be the best teacher in the world of both character and intelligence. The commission did not take note of the prevalence of unequal gender relations in the household. The commission mentions that there cannot be educated people without educated women and therefore, opportunity should be given to women to get education. But the commission states that the basic objective of education is to pass tradition on to the next generation. While elaborating on education of women, it avers that women are as able as men to do the same academic work, with no less thoroughness and quality, but adds that it does not follow that women and men work should be identical in all things.

The Secondary Education (Mudaliar) Commission (1952-53) was less preoccupied with gender differences. The commission reiterated ‘In a democratic society, where all citizens have to discharge their civic and social obligations, differences which may lead to
variations in the standard of intellectual development achieved by boys and girls, cannot be envisaged'.

The Education commission (1964-66), well known as Kothari Commission examined in-depth, the role and goals of education in the process of national development. It enforced the views of Hansa Mehta and Durga Bai Deshmukh committee. It observed 'In the modern world, the role of the women goes much beyond the home and the bringing up of children. She is now adopting a career of her own and sharing equally with men and responsibility for the development of society in all its aspects. This is the direction in which we shall have to move'. In the struggle of freedom, Indian women fought side by side with men. This equal partnership will have to continue in the fight against hunger, ignorance and ill-health.

The commission had the mandate to look into education at all stages and from various dimensions. But inspite of the scale of mandate, it is a sad story that only two pages have been devoted to womens' education and only a few paragraphs to womens' higher education. The report started by mentioning that special efforts are needed to expand higher education of women, though the general feeling is that women have entered the portals of university education and therefore one should not worry about it any more. With this note of optimism, the commission made only two suggestions - enhance women higher education –provision of financial assistance and hostels.

The dual stance of higher education being liberal and technical, the commission mentioned that universities must encourage individuality, variety and dissent within a climate of tolerance, seek new knowledge and inculcate fearlessness in the pursuit of knowledge, Education should provide society with competent men and women. The liberal stance of the report is evidenced in the following –'It would be wrong to restrict the (girls) choice or to compel her to take particular courses. The more academic type of girls, with ambitions of pursuing careers of research or teaching at the college or university level or in professions such as medicine or technology, should have all the opportunities and incentives for doing so'.

COMMITTEES

Hartog Committee (1929) recommended appointing large number of women teachers and inspectors for compulsion for girl's education.
Post War Education Development Committee (1944) presented 40 years plan for universalisation of primary education. It felt, that it is no longer necessary to treat women's education as a special problem (NCERT, 1997).

The National Committee (Durgabai Deshmukh) on women's Education(1958-59) recognised slow progress of women's education. The focus shifted from higher education to school education. It was appointed to recommend certain special measures to bridge the literacy gap between boys and girls. The committee suggested home science for both girls and boys for classes 6, 7 and 8th. It emphasized that education of girls should be treated as a special problem and focused on employment of women teachers.

Hansa Mehta Committee (1962-64) suggested co-education be adopted as the general pattern at the elementary stage. Women teachers should be appointed in boys school to encourage girls enrolment. There should be common curricula for boys and girls at elementary stage and Home Science and Vocational courses be common core subjects for boys and girls.

In its view, the responsibility for the existing gap between the education of boys and girls lay in the continuation of traditional attitudes and values which regarded girls inferior to boys in physique, intellect and aptitude and the perpetuation of such ideas through the existing practices of prescribing subjects for girls that reinforce the tradition of division of task and roles between men and women.

Constitutional Provisions: The constitution of Indian Republic introduced in 1950 included a number of important provisions which had a direct or indirect bearing on education of females.

a) Article 45 imposed direct responsibility for education on the states: The state shall endeavor to provide, within a period of ten years from the commencement of this constitution, for free and compulsory education for all children until they complete the age of fourteen years. That this has not been achieved after five decades is a different story).

b) Article 16 imposed non-discrimination on grounds of sex in public employment.

c) Article 15(3) empowered the state to make special provisions for the welfare and development of women and children, the provision which was invoked to justify social allocation and relaxation of procedures/conditions to expand girls' access to education at different levels.

c) Article 15(1): The state shall not discriminate against any citizen on grounds of religion, race, caste, sex or place of birth (Basu, 1995).
(e) 93rd Amendment (2002): This is a significant measure for achieving the goals of Education for all (EFA) by making free and compulsory elementary education a fundamental right for all children in the age group of 6-14 years. In order to fulfill this constitutional obligation, Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan has been launched by the Government of India in partnership with the states. The programme is an effort towards recognition of the need for improving the performance of the school system through a committee owned approach and ensuring quality elementary education in a mission mode to all children in the age group of 6-14 years by 2010. It also seeks to bridge gender and social gaps. This Programme will subsume all existing programmes (except Mahila Samakhya and Mid-day-meal Schemes), including externally aided programmes in due course within its overall framework, with district as the unit of Programme implementation (Government of India Economic Survey 2002-03, pg222-223).

Five Year Plans
The First Five Year Plan (1951-1955) was welfare oriented. The neglect of women’s education was noted with concern as girls constituted only 28% and 18% of the total number of children enrolled in primary and middle stages respectively in 1949-50. The educational objectives centered around re-organisation of the educational system and getting a uniform system of national education expansion in all the fields, particularly in technical and vocational education and creating a system suitable for rural areas, equalization of opportunities for women, improving educational systems in backward areas and the training of women teachers and bettering their scales of pay and conditions of work. The Second Five Year Plan (1956-61) continued the welfare approach but recognized the need to organize women to Mahila Mandals. The Third Five Year Plan (1961-66) pinpointed the need for women’s education and training as a major welfare strategy. There were three one year plans in the years 1966-1969. The Fourth Five Year Plan (1969-74) continued emphasis on women’s education and followed the basic policy of women’s welfare within the unit of family. The Fifth Five Year Plan (1974-79) shifted approach for women’s development from welfare to development linked education with employment.
The Sixth Five Year Plan (1980-1985) was a landmark in the history of women's development. It received recognition as one of the development sector and was included in the 'Sixth plan document' as a separate chapter. It adopted multi-disciplinary approach with a three prolonged thrust on health, education and employment. This was the time when the plan took cognizance of the role of women in development instead of treating her as a mere beneficiary of development.

The seventh Five Year Plan (1985-1990): The development plan for women continued. A significant step was to identify/promote beneficiary-oriented programmes for women in different developmental sectors which extend direct benefits to women (measures to improve employment chances, production skills and a culture of self-reliance among women through availability of credit and skill training etc.).

The Eighth Five Year plan (1992-1997): Approach of the eighth plan marks shift from development to empowerment of women. It was to be ensured that the benefits of development do not bypass women. Within the overall school age population, the emphasis was to be on girls, who account for two thirds of the target. Among adults, the focus was to be on women's literacy which had a beneficial impact on children's literacy as well as other national objectives like population control and family welfare. As for UEE, the NPE stress on retention, participation and achievement, rather than just enrolment was to be reinforced. A support services system was also envisaged to stem the dropout rate by setting up day care centers, provision of books and uniforms and coordination of services relating to fodder, fuel and drinking water, fetching or gathering which keeps girls busy and away from schools.

The Ninth Five Year Plan (1997-2002) sees women as empowered partners in the political and decision making processes. The need was felt to create the conditions by which the disadvantaged are not only empowered to take advantage of the opportunities created by the growth process but also to contribute actively in the process of creation of wealth and well-being.

The Tenth Five Year Plan (2002-2007) is basically continuation of tasks left for completion in the Ninth Five Year Plan.
Policies and Programmes

The Government of India Education Resolution Policy 1904 suggested government should spend more funds on girls' education.

In 1919, Government of India reiterated the need for more financial fostering of girls' education compared to boys - Making education free in addition to giving scholarships.


National Policy on Education (1986): Government of India formulated NPE in the year 1986 and it was forwarded as a document entitled POA to all the states. It contained implementation strategies for NPE. The recommendations contained in NPE were discussed in the meetings of State Education Directors, Secretaries and Central Advisory Board of Education (CABE) convened by Government of India as also at UGC level for follow up action. Chapters of POA relating to higher education were circulated to the principals of Government / private colleges as also to the Universities. They were requested to constitute college level committees.

As NPE envisaged a review of the implementation of the various parameters of the policy every five years, the central Government in 1990 appointed a committee under chairmanship of Acharya Ramamurti to review NPE. Thereafter, the Central Government decided to constitute CABE committee to consider the recommendation made by the NPE Review Committee. The report submitted by the CABE committee known as 'Reddy Committee' was discussed in the meetings of State Education Secretaries and Education directors on May 4, 1992. One of the significant recommendations in this regard was that the State Government would be required to draft their own Institutional /State POA 1992. Haryana State Programme of Action came in 1994 for Primary, Secondary and Higher Education. It was formulated keeping in view Education Scenario in Haryana in 1991.

According to the 1991 Census, National female literacy rate was 39.42% as compared to 63.86% for males. The illiterate females were more than the male illiterates by 70 million, even though the female population was more than male population by 32 million. Significant rural–urban disparities were observed among women. Rural female literacy was about half of urban female literacy. A striking finding was that for every 100 girls in class in rural areas, there was only 40 in class 5th, 18 in class 8th, 9 in class 9th
and only one in class 12th. The corresponding figures for urban areas was 82, 62, 32 and 14 respectively.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TABLE-2.1 PERCENTAGE OF LITERACY RATE AND ENROLMENT IN HARYANA (1991)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Literacy Rate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enrolment</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


The female literacy rate in Haryana was 24.15% and enrolment rate was 22% (Table 2.1). Gender bias could be observed in the enrolment pattern at all stages of education. At the elementary level, 76.4 percent boys were enrolled in the age group of 11 to 13 years as compared to 52.4 percent girls. Similarly, at the higher level, out of the total enrolment, 66.15 percent were boys and 33.85 percent were girls (Table 2.2).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TABLE-2.2 Enrolment Ratio in Haryana in 1991</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age Group in years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14-15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15-17</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Even the drop out rate in case of girls is higher in both primary (16.05) and middle (12.16) stages of education (Table 2.3).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table-2.3 Drop Out Rate At Primary And Middle Class In Haryana(1991)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Class</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary (1-5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle (6-8)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Poor retention at the elementary stage affected availability of rural women teachers. Not even 2% of the rural girls could join higher secondary education, which was entry requirement for primary teacher training courses. There was shortage of women teachers in the rural areas (Table 2.4).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Area</th>
<th>Primary</th>
<th>Upper Primary</th>
<th>Secondary</th>
<th>Senior Secondary</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rural</td>
<td>38.25</td>
<td>36.22</td>
<td>29.22</td>
<td>25.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urban</td>
<td>74.77</td>
<td>78.79</td>
<td>65.46</td>
<td>47.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>41.25</td>
<td>40.49</td>
<td>38.10</td>
<td>40.53</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Vocational, Higher and technical educational facilities are located mostly in urban or semi-urban areas. Participation of the girls in this sector continues to be low and stereotyped. The percentage of women teachers in higher education is also correspondingly low (Table 2.5,2.6,2.7).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Institutions and Management</th>
<th>Number of Teachers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>General</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Men</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colleges for General Education</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Government</td>
<td>1303</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non Government</td>
<td>1847</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher's Training Colleges</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Government</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non Government</td>
<td>93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Universities</td>
<td>1168</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table-2.6 Ratio of Boys and Girls Enrolment in Haryana (1991-92)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Courses</th>
<th>Boys</th>
<th>Girls</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Liberal</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arts</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sciences</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Selected Educational Statistics (as on 30.9.92) Ministry of HRD, Govt. of India, New Delhi.

Liberal Courses: B. A./B. A. (Hon. s.)/M. A./M. Sc./B.Sc./B. Com./M.Com.

Professional: B.E./B. Ed./M.B.B.S.

TABLE-2.7 Enrolment in Higher Education in Haryana (1991-92) Provisional

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Institutions and Management</th>
<th>Enrolment</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>General</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Men</td>
<td>Women</td>
<td>Men</td>
<td>Women</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colleges for General Education</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Government</td>
<td>38360</td>
<td>12241</td>
<td>4421</td>
<td>362</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non Government</td>
<td>60552</td>
<td>37724</td>
<td>5777</td>
<td>799</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher's Training Colleges</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Government</td>
<td>175</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non Government</td>
<td>1633</td>
<td>1685</td>
<td>193</td>
<td>67</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Universities</td>
<td>3052</td>
<td>1668</td>
<td>314</td>
<td>43</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


This was happening despite the fact that the State Govt. had been playing an interventionist role in the education of girls by providing uniforms, free text books, special incentive schemes for children of nomadic tribes, free uniforms to S.C. and economically weaker girls, free stationary, attendance prize to SC girls, free text books to S.C.'s and economically weaker girls, opportunity costs to SC students studying in classes 6 to 8th, scholarships to girls passing middle examinations and stipends to S.C. girls studying in classes 9 to 12th etc.

Number of Girls colleges in the state was 33. These colleges were in addition to the existing co - education colleges in the state. The education for girls was free up to the graduation level.
TABLE-2.8 Number of Institutions in Higher Education in Haryana(1992) Provisional

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Institutions and Management</th>
<th>Number of Institutions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Men</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colleges for General Education</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Government</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non Government</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher's Training Colleges</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Government</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non Government</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: NPE, Programme of Action, 1994

TABLE-2.9 Position of Girl's Schools in Mewat and Non-Mewat Areas of Gurgaon and Faridabad District of Haryana(1991)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Schools</th>
<th>Mewat</th>
<th>Non-Mewat</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>109</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle</td>
<td>04</td>
<td>06</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High</td>
<td>06</td>
<td>07</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senior Secondary Schools</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>04</td>
<td>04</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Table 2.10 Sex-wise Literacy Rate in Haryana and Mewat Area(1991)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Area</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Haryana</td>
<td>67.85</td>
<td>40.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gurgaon</td>
<td>52.99</td>
<td>27.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mewat</td>
<td>37.25</td>
<td>10.44</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Policy Parameters and Strategies

In pursuance of NPE, following main features of the implementation strategy were formulated:

i) to gear the entire education system to play a positive interventionist role in the empowerment of women.

ii) to encourage educational institutions to take up active programmes to enhance women's status and further women's development in all sectors.
iii) to widen women’s access to vocational, technical and professional education at all levels, breaking gender stereotypes.

Iv to create a dynamic management structure that will be able to respond to the challenges posed by the mandate.

The Programme of Action

In order to achieve the target of education for all by the year 2000, the Government of Haryana planned to gear itself to strengthen existing programme aimed at ensuring literacy, women’s awareness and primary education of women in the state. In addition to this, certain policy decisions and additional strategies were considered which would help in improving female literacy, enrolment and retention.

- Twenty five non formal education centers were to be set up with the help of village panchayats
- Major NFE programme was to be launched for out of school girls in the age group of 6 to 16 years
- Special attention was to be paid according to total literacy campaign for 15 to 35 years age group and non - formal education was to reach to girls in the age group of 10 to 20 years.
- The Open School Distance Education System and other innovative educational programmes were made in order to reach the girls belonging to disadvantaged areas. Help of media was suggested.
- In order to strengthen science and mathematics teaching, teachers in science and Mathematics were to be appointed in all girls’ schools.
- Women ITI’s and polytechnics with diversified disciplines were to be set up in rural areas.
- Guidance and Counseling cells were to be revived in all the girls Senior Secondary Schools.
- Population Courses were to be designed and introduced for under graduate classes with a view to promote objectives of empowerment of women.
- Support services like ECCE, Drinking water, Cheap fodder, fuel etc. was to be provided in rural habitations to relieve girls from domestic chores and sibling care. This was to be done by education department with the help of social welfare department and department of women and child development.
- All teachers, teacher educators and administrators were to be trained so as to act as catalysts and agents of women empowerment. Special sensitization and orientation courses were proposed to be organized at SCERT, DIET's and other teaching institutes.

- Curricular and teacher education needed to be gender sensitive. Sex bias was to be eliminated from text books and positive self-image of girls was to be incorporated.

- Women Cells were to be set up at the State and District level. A monitoring unit was to be set up at the state level in the Directorate of Education to ensure integration of gender issues in policies, programmes and schemes.

- State Advisory Board on education was to advise on policies and programmes relating to girls education.

- A women study center was to be set up at State / Directorate level in order to monitor all programmes pertaining to the empowerment of women.

- Workshops to be conducted in every college to sensitize teachers about issues related to gender bias and the manner in which women may be empowered through education. Such workshops were to be conducted in ten colleges with an intake of 100 lecturers per college in 1994-95. Efforts were to be made to have such workshops in all the Govt. and private colleges also.

- A women cell was to be established in each college to create awareness among students about gender issues. The cell were not only expected to cater to the needs of the girls/teachers in the colleges but had to create a general awareness relating to gender issues.

- Workshops for students both for boys and girls were to be organized to help them develop a participatory role in society. Declamation contests and skits in colleges / youth festivals were to be made regular features in extra curricular activities. However, the purpose of these programmes was to create a positive outlook towards women empowerment rather than raising controversies.

- Curriculum designing, constitution of State/ University / College level committee were to review text books and recommend deletion of such portion which give rise to gender bias. Such chapters were to be added which enhance the status of women and enable them to play a greater participatory role.
Discussions in the class rooms through seminars and lectures were to be organised to destroy myths pertaining to women and to understand the concept of equality of men and women in developmental activities.

Encourage colleges to construct girls hostels with the financial assistance of UGC.

At the co-curricular level some activities were to be planned as part of NSS programmes like adopting a village or an urban slum in order to sensitize rural women about equality rights, literacy etc. Such programmes are to be arranged in collaboration with voluntary agencies/ NGO's.

Media plays an important role. Video cassettes of success stories of women in the area were to be prepared to serve as role models for other girls and women, not as victims of certain social evils but as persons asserting their rights were expected to be projected.

8th March was to be observed as women’s day every year and it is proposed to observe the 1st week of March as Women’s Week in every college annually.

Three one-day workshops were to be held to create awareness and mobilize opinion relating to 73rd and 74th amendment of the constitution.

An independent survey was to be conducted to find out whether the State policy of free education for girls has given boost to the spread of women’s education.

For Empowerment of Women through education, following parameters were set:

- Enhancing self-esteem and self-confidence of women.
- Building a positive image of women by recognizing their contribution to the society, polity and economy;
- Developing ability to think critically;
- Fostering decision making and action through collective process;
- Enable women to make informed choices in areas like education, employment and health. (especially reproductive health)
- Ensuring equal participation in development processes
- Providing information, knowledge and skill for economic independence;
- Enhancing access to legal literacy and information relating to their rights and entitlements in society with a view to enhance their participation on an equal footing
- in all areas.
Proposals

Taking into consideration these aspects, the Directorate of Higher Education had proposed:

- to organise one week training programme for 400 lady college teachers. The programme will include visits to national level institute of family planning and childcare.

- To organise educational trips for girls of colleges. They will be taken to states like Kerala, Tamil Nadu, Rajasthan and Gujarat. Each group will consist of 60-70 girls studying in various colleges in the state. The financial implications for their trips will be born by the state.

- to encourage girls to join Medical / Non-Medical groups at degree level and to meet shortage of science/ mathematics teachers in girls schools, a sum of Rs.500 will be given to such girls studying at degree level for the purchase of books and stationary.

Programme of Action

To achieve policy parameters following measures should be taken:

- Every educational institution will take up active programme of women’s development.

- All teachers and instructors will be trained as agents of women’s empowerment. Training programmes as developed by NCERT, NIEPA, DAE, SRC, DIET, SCERT and the University system will be utilized for women empowerment. Innovative training programmes will be designed with the assistance of concerned organizations and women’s groups;

- Gender Sensitization Programme will be developed for teacher educators and administrators. An environment will be created whereby all the sections of education sector will become alive and sensitive to the role of education in eliminating gender disparities.

- In order to create a greater confidence and to motivate parents to send girls to school, preference will be given to recruitment of women teachers.

- The Common Core Curriculum is a potentially powerful instrument to promote a positive image of women. The Department of Women’s studies in the Universities will intensify activities, already initiated in the area of developing gender sensitive curriculum, removing sex bias from text books and training of trainers/ teachers.
SCERT and Haryana board of education will develop books and learning material in this perspective.

- Funds would require to be earmarked in state education budgets for such awareness and advocacy related activities.

Research and Women's Studies

Women's Studies is a critical input to promote better understanding of women's contribution to social processes within social, technological and environmental changes - their struggles, aspirations and, conceptual obstacles that make them 'invisible' in many areas of scientific inquiry. The Programme aims to investigate, remove structural, cultural or attitudinal causes of gender discrimination and thus empower women to achieve effective participation in all areas of national and international development. The four dimensions to be supported are:

- Research to advance the frontiers of knowledge, develop human resources and produce teaching / learning material in pursuit of the above aims.
- Teaching to change present attitude and values of men and women to one of concern for gender equality. Existing biases and deficiencies in curriculum will be addressed.
- Training of teachers, decision makers, administrators and planners to enable them to play a positive interventionists role for gender equality.
- Extension or direct involvement of institutions in women's development activities among the community.
- Special efforts will be made to make the women's studies centers set up in universities and colleges according to UGC guidelines and to make them more effective through intensive training of their staff. Eminent educationists and well known women's organizations will be involved in the process of revitalizing existing structures and helping in the establishment of the new ones.
- Networking between different institutions for research, extension and information dissemination has demonstrated high cost effectiveness as well as potential for coordinated growth. Such networks will be initiated to increase output of quality teaching materials especially in regional languages, training and curriculum design and decentralized area -specific modes of intervention.
Foundation courses shall be designed and introduced for undergraduates with a view to promote the objectives of empowerment of women. This was to be done with in 8th plan period.

Female Education of Scheduled Caste, Scheduled Tribes and Other Backward Sections.

Looking at position of female education of SC's in Haryana, the NPE 1986 was unambiguous about removal of disparities and attainment of equalization of educational opportunities for SC's girls. The POA detailed a number of strategies aimed at accelerating their rate of enrolment and retention.

Apart from reservation of seats at different levels, especially at college and University level, relaxation is provided for S.C. students for admission in various courses, free education to S.C students at all levels, remedial coaching at selected centers for students appearing in Board examinations, University examinations and other public examination, special coaching by SCERT to 10th class students appearing in NCERT( National Talent Search Scholarship Scheme) and scholarships to S.C. students at all levels. Other incentives to such students at all levels include free uniforms, free textbooks and stationary, attendance prize for S.C. girls and stipends to S.C girls.

Programme of Action

- More primary schools, especially for girls were to be opened by the Government in those Mohallas / Bastis where most of S.C. population is inhabited.
- For S.C / B.C. children, especially girls, access and enrolment will be assured by launching special drive in the beginning of every academic session. Teachers along with NGO’s and other voluntary agencies will help in this Programme.
- Jan Siksha Nilayames will be set up in S.C./ B.C. areas where TLC (Total Literacy campaign) have been taken up to provide facilities for continuing literacy for adult Neo-literate, especially women.
- Special efforts be made to enhance the enrolment of scheduled caste girls in the institutions of higher learning. They should be given incentives in the form of scholarship, books, free accommodation in hostel etc.
- The Scheduled Caste boys and girls should be given special subsidy and incentives if they enroll themselves for science, commerce and computer courses.
Monitoring

In addition to the monitoring by the existing system, monitoring of education in S.C./B.C. areas will be entrusted to the local community/Village Education Committee with adequate representation of S.C./B.C. members, especially women.

Female Education among minorities of Haryana

The state of Haryana has Muslims as educationally backward. There are 66.6 percent Muslims in the Mewat region of district Gurgaon. Mewat region consists of five Blocks namely Taoru, Nuh, Punhana, Ferozpur Jhirka and Nagina of district Gurgaon and one Block namely Hathin of district Faridabad.

Scenario in 1991

In spite of all efforts to surmount the Total Literacy Campaign, approximately 50% children of 6-14 age group are still out of school, out of which 35% are girls. Female literacy rate was alarming low. While female literacy rate in Haryana was 40.94 percent and in Gurgaon 27.79 percent, in Mewat it is only 10.44 percent.

Programme of Action

Apart from other facilities to be provided for minority groups, emphasis was to provide more schools for girls in the region. Further girl’s hostels were being planned to provide hostel facility for pursuing girl’s secondary and senior secondary education.

- As a part of the Total Literacy Campaign, acceleration in female literacy was main focus area. Four districts were taken under DPEP Programme as pilot project.
- To accelerate the rate of retention up to 10+2 level, open school system and distance education system are to be introduced; other innovative educational programme would be taken up to reach out the girls working in rural and urban slums.
- As very few Muslim girls go in for higher education, the Senior Secondary schools therefore, should start post-secondary job-oriented courses like tailoring, household development, food preservation, beautician courses, cooking classes etc., in order to motivate them for pursuing post-secondary education.
- Since Mewat Development Agency is the nodal as well as funding agency to look after the interests and education of Muslim girls to higher educational institutions,
hence the State Government should give liberal grants to the agency for the benefit of Muslim girls.

Early Childhood care and Education

As the number of children, especially girls of school going age group are kept away by their parents as they are to look after their young siblings, it is proposed that ICDS centers be set up at a small distance from the school to enable the children to come to school along with their sibling. It was suggested that there should be a co-ordination of timings between ICDS Centers and primary schools. The ICDS centers should start 15 minutes before the scheduled time and close 15 minutes after the school timings.

For co-ordination with Anganwadies, primary school teachers of the respective areas should visit these centers. This will ensure better enrolment at primary school level also.

Primary Education- Scenario in 1991-92

District Primary Education officers were empowered to open branch of primary schools at places where 30 or more children are available for schooling. 100 new Government Primary schools for girls were opened every year to cater to the needs of the increasing population of the state. Apart from other incentives, S.C. / Weaker section girls are given incentives in the form of free uniform and attendance Prize.

In 1987, Operation Blackboard Scheme was launched to provide minimum essentials to primary schools. Facilities for girls were given priority here too:

- Two teachers, one female and one male.
- Two toilets one for girls and other for boys.

Proposed Action

Apart from other proposed actions:

- The State Government decided to set up Village Education Committees with a view to ensure active participation and involvement of the Gram Panchayats in the educational process at village level. These committees, besides taking care of other problems, were to help in enrolment and retention of children particularly girls at the primary level.

The State Government decided to increase quota of female teachers from 40 to 60 percent in the recruitment to be made in future. It was also advised that
effort will be made to ensure that no primary school remains without a female teacher.

Evaluation and Monitoring

A committee for evaluating the progress of primary education was to be constituted in SCERT, Haryana having its members from DIET, DPEO offices and primary school teachers.

The committee was to conduct surveys to find the effect of different enrolment drives and retention of the rural children, especially girls in primary schools.

Secondary Education in Haryana- Scenario in 1991

Only 29.4 percent boys and 14 percent girls were enrolled in senior secondary classes and among Scheduled Castes, merely 19 percent boys and 4.8 percent girls pursue their studies in Senior Secondary schools. Various incentives were provided for the welfare of girl students especially S.C./Weaker sections:

- Free uniforms were to be given to girl students of Scheduled Castes and weaker sections and free stationary to girl students belonging to economically weaker section.
- The Haryana Education Department laid stress not only on increasing enrolment but also on the retention of students, especially girls. In this connection it is envisaged that 'Operation Black Board' be extended to middle classes also.

Programme of Action

- All out efforts were to be made to achieve 100% enrolment at middle stage, specially for girls.
- Haryana Board of School Education planned to start Open School System in Haryana on the pattern of National Open School System keeping in view that this system will benefit the rural and urban girls and employed people.

Higher Education

Besides the existing co education colleges in the state, efforts were being made to open exclusive colleges for girls in the State.
Sports, Physical Education and youth

It was suggested that special arrangement for girl students for sports activities in the co-educational colleges may be provided by appointing at least one lady lecturer in physical education, irrespective of the college strength.

District Primary Education Programme (DPEP) was a centrally sponsored scheme and is funded by the World Bank. It progressed under the patronage of Haryana Prathmik Shiksha Pariyojana. In Haryana, it was initially started on March 11, 1994 in four districts—Jind, Kaithal, Hisar and Sirsa. These districts are known as DPEP-I districts. Later on, in 1997, it was extended to three more districts—Bhiwani, Gurgaon and Mahendergarh, called DPEP-II districts. The need of DPEP was felt, as despite best efforts, dropout rate in rural areas and slum areas could not be controlled. It was a hindrance in achieving the goal of universalisation of primary education (DPEP Haryana, Annual Report, 1999-2000).

Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan: Government of India is committed to achieving universalisation of elementary education by 2010. It entails a special thrust on girls' education as well as greater vigor in planning, targeting and implementing the interventions designed. Statistics reveal that despite the efforts that have been made, gender disparities persist in enrolment of girls, especially in rural areas and among disadvantaged groups. The disparity is more acute in the enrolment of scheduled castes and scheduled tribes especially at the upper primary level.

Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan has limited financial provisions for girls' education in the form of free text and innovations at district levels. Thus, National Programme for Education of Girls at Elementary level (NPEGEL) has been formulated for providing additional support for education of underprivileged/disadvantaged girls at elementary level. NPEGEL is a part of SSA and implemented under its umbrella but as a distinct and separate gender component plan of SSA (www.education.nic.in).

Economic Survey mentions the objective of the scheme. NPEGEL is to provide additional support to education of girls at the elementary level through the following additional initiatives:
(i) To develop a school, as a model girl-child friendly school, at the cluster level.
(ii) To provide additional incentives such as stationary, slates, work books, and uniforms and to meet any other locally-felt need within the existing ceiling of Rs.150 per child per annum.

(iii) Additional interventions like awards to school/teachers, student evaluation, remedial teaching, bridge courses, alternative schools, learning through open schools, teacher training and child care centers at the cluster level within a ceiling of Rs. 60,000 per annum.

(iv) Mobilization and community monitoring within a ceiling of Rs. 95,000 per cluster over a five-year period.

(v) Development of materials.


The Integrated Women’s Empowerment and Development Project was a centrally sponsored project funded by World Bank and started in Haryana in June, 1994 for three years in three districts Mahendergarh, Hisar and Gurgaon. It states ‘Education is an instrument of change and Empowerment’. Though the percentage of literacy among women has gone up to 40.94 percent during the last decade (A little higher than all India percentage), illiteracy among women is still a great impediment in women’s empowerment and development and suggested interventions in the form of uniforms, stationary, book allowance and supplementary coaching classes (Government of Haryana(1994).

According to Usha Nayyar and Anita Nuna (2000) education of females is an area of major national concern, both as a development imperative and as a human right. Special commissions and committees were set up from time to time to assess the progress of girls’ education and to propose suitable interventions to promote their educational participation. Several strategies were adopted to promote education of girls as an integral part of the planned socio-economic development of the country. Theoretically, all formal and non-formal education and training programs are open to women. In addition, provision exists for opening of separate institutions or separate wings for women /girls exclusively. Education is free for girls up to the higher secondary stage and several states have made education free for all girls, right up to the university level.
Thus, the entry of women into formal education system began in the mid-19th century, but it got wider acceptance only in the mid-20th century. The government was slow to push policies promoting education, but social reformers and women's organization realized the significance of women's' education at all levels. The efforts of Maharishi Karve, Mahatma Gandhi, Maharishi Tagore as well as organizations such as All India Women's Conference not only pleaded for giving women access to education, but also declared that education helped women perform their roles better and become useful citizens.

Still unresolved, even after independence, is the dilemma of the proper role for Indian women. All agree that women are entitled to education, but are ambivalent about the kind of education appropriate for women (Neera Desai and Usha Thakkar, 2001).

2.1 Studies on female education
a) Factors affecting education of females in developing countries.
b) Education and participation of women in specific activities.
c) Education as indicator of status of women.

a) Factors affecting education of females in developing countries

Ashby (1985): Girls in poorer family labour pool significantly improve the amount of schooling which male children receive. The study was conducted for rural Nepal.
Colin Brock and Nadine Cammish (1997): The overseas development administration, in consultation with researchers, selected geographical, socio cultural, health, economic, religious, legal, political/administrative and educational initiatives as factors affecting female education in seven developing countries.

I. Geographical: The considerable spatial disparity and in some cases, incompleteness of institutional provision, even at primary level, relates directly to difficulties of physical access, which adversely affect girls more than the boys. There is an overall and profound urban/rural dichotomy which favour towns and cities, especially in respect of secondary school (and especially single sex) provision for girls. Patterns of transportation and migration affect educational provision and take up, again normally disadvantaging females and in some cases extreme physical difficulties, such as flooding and other hazards acts in the same way.
II) Socio-cultural: A major deterrent to female take up and follow through of educational opportunities (even when these are available), is a near universal fundamental cultural bias in favor of males. The widespread operation of patriarchal systems of social organization; of customary early marriage, of the incidence of early pregnancy (in and out of marriage), of heavier domestic and subsistence duties of females (especially in rural areas); a generally lower regard for the value of female life, all combine though differentially in each case, to adversely affect the participation of girls and women in formal education. To this list may be added problems of seclusion and security in some areas. Such long standing constraints result in a dearth of female role models that could challenge the traditional one that is clearly acquired by both sexes at a very early age.

iii. Health: In general, the effect of poverty and malnutrition on the health of school age children falls harder on girls than boys. Boys may get preferential feeding, while girls (who have a heavier domestic work load) are more likely to be undernourished. Even if they get to school, this adversely affects their performance and therefore retention rate. Health problems associated with pregnancy, especially for adolescent girls, obviously have a negative effect, as do rising trends of sexual activity in the younger generations where these occur. Problems associated with family size and family planning are widespread in relation to possible participation in education and imply the need for sex/health education at school level. It is clear that the health factor, though partly hidden and indirect in effect, is a very significant one in respect of the quality of (young) female participation in education as well as the quantity of it.

iv. Economic: Together with the fundamental socio-cultural bias in favour of males, the economic factor, especially in terms of grinding poverty and hunger, is probably the most influential in adversely affecting female participation in education, especially in rural areas. In such harsh economic circumstances, both direct and hidden costs to a family, of sending daughters to school, are perceived by parents to be prohibitive in terms of the provision of books, paper and uniforms/clothing (important for social reasons), as well as the loss of vital help at home and on the land. In most cases, the contribution of females is unpaid and they may have little or no experience of the handling of money which further reduces their status and power, but increases their vulnerability. Because of the patriarchal and paralegal predominance, investment in a girls schooling is wasteful since it benefits the family into which a girl marries rather then her own. In the more privileged classes, investment in the educational females may be an advantage in ‘marrying well’.
This further increase the urban/rural gap. Vocational education, which might relate to employment prospects, is everywhere weak and under valued, but especially so in respect of the interests of girls. The apparent inability of some countries to resource their schools and even to pay their teachers regularly leads to low morale, teacher absenteeism and parental disenchantment.

V. Religious: Although in general acting indirectly, the religious factor is on balance a positive one, though it is often overcome by the fundamental socio-cultural bias in favour of males. The fact that most religious practitioners and leaders are male, makes for a powerful image in favour of that sex. Christian missions have, in various areas, had a most positive effect on female education and literacy levels, though some have a legacy of harsh sanctions in respect of early pregnancy. In Islamic areas, the situation is generally not so supportive but a number of positive trends were apparent. The religious significance of sons in the Hindu family, while still operative, no longer seems in itself to disadvantage daughters. Often, in contrast to the state system and especially at secondary level, denominational schools are well organized and resourced, attracting stable, well qualified staff. This weighs heavily with parents when deciding whether or not to send their daughters to schools, especially since boarding facilities tend to be more favourable and secure.

vi. Legal: Again this factor acts mainly indirectly. Most countries have now legislation for equal status in respect of sex, but this is usually a recent innovation and traditional sanctions often still operate unchallenged. So there are still important areas where the law could be reformed further to encourage compliance and the system of justice strengthened to ensure that this actually happens. In many rural areas, long standing societal rules constraining females are still operative, as is the case with condoning early marriage.

vii. Political/Administrative: Although policies exist in most cases for such developments as universal primary education, equal educational opportunities in terms of gender and the eradication of gender bias from texts and other materials, the political will to carry these through seems to be weak, in the face of severe economic constraint. The creation of Ministries or Bureau of Women’s Affairs appears to be counter productive and the poor quality of local administrative/advisory staff and resources renders such Government initiatives, as do occur, relatively ineffective. The record of NGO’s is markedly better, and those governments, that enable NGOs to operate in favour of increased female
participation are to be commended. In some cases, where strong political dichotomies or other such disparities exist, even elite females may be disadvantaged by being in the 'wrong' camp and their potential contribution to national development and the role of females in general to that end may be lost. Language policies can adversely affect female participation in that areas where vernaculars have no status, and where schooling is either absent or very poor, women and girls remain 'trapped'. As with the churches, political leaders are almost always male, and until considerably more women break in to the most influential echelons of power, the question of low female participation in education and its implications for national development may well remain on the sidelines.

viii. Educational: This factor itself can be a deterrent to female participation in schooling. Difficulties of accessibility, lack of resources and low teacher quality and morale are widespread. In particular the lack of female primary teachers in rural areas is a real problem. Parents in some countries, very reluctant indeed to send daughters to school if there is no female teacher, and the facilities for the accommodation and security of such teachers are usually absent or inadequate. The organisation of schooling in terms of the daily and seasonal imperatives of local economies usually renders it dysfunctional, and the curriculum is often unattractive in instrumental terms. At secondary level, in addition to the lack of (accessible) places, problems of cost, direct and hidden are acute; and there is a considerable need for more single-sex (girls) schools, some with secure boarding facilities and scholarship schemes to enable participation of girl students. Vocational education is weak and schemes open to girls in this field are particularly useful. There is still a widespread problem of gender bias in books and materials.

ix. Initiatives: In all the countries concerned, significant initiatives aimed to address aspects of the problem of female participation in education were noted. Some acted directly others indirectly, but collectively they must be considered as a factor affecting the issues. This is important, since one must recognize the considerable efforts made by individuals and organizations in this regard in recent decades. Some governments have made substantial efforts to increase female enrolment at primary level in rural areas by building more (accessible) schools and enacting laws to encourage the employment of female teachers in such schools (e.g. Operation Blackboard in India). Some governments have instituted feeding schemes to alleviate problems of malnutrition.
b) Education and participation of women in specific activities.
Before the eighth century, most Jews, like the rest of the population, were farmers. With the establishment of the Muslim empire, almost all Jews entered urban occupations despite no restrictions on them from remaining engaged in agriculture. This occupational selection remained their distinctive mark throughout the history. Maristella Botticini and Zvi Eckstein write in their paper- 'Jewish Occupational Selection: Education, Restrictions, or Minorities'. This transition away from agriculture into crafts and trades was the outcome of their widespread literacy prompted by a religious and educational reform in Judaism in the first and second centuries, which gave them a comparative advantage in urban and skilled occupations.

Justin van der Sluis, Mirjam van Praag and Wim Vijverberg reveal in their article - 'More educated workers typically end up in wage employment and prefer non-farm entrepreneurship to farming'. The educational effect that separates workers into self-employment and wage employment is stronger for women, possibly stronger in urban areas and also stronger in the least developed economies where agriculture is more dominant and literacy rates are lower.

The theoretical literature proposes several determinants of entry into occupations selection. Among them are the attitude to risk, access to capital, labour market experience, economic conditions, family background, psychological traits, income diversification, access to credit, and education. This section, briefly reviews the theoretical arguments on the relationship between schooling and entrepreneurship.

Vaan Praag and Cramer, 2001 - Education generates higher levels of expected entrepreneurial ability which causes higher levels of expected entrepreneurial performance (in terms of profit and firm size). This higher level of expected performance, and thus of income and non-monetary returns, increases the expected utility attached to entrepreneurship and thereby favours the occupational choice.

Thus, education affects sorting outcomes, but the net direction of the impact is an empirical matter. Education may affect sorting outcomes in several other ways. First, it interacts with the seasonality of non-farm work. During the slack agricultural season, many farm workers seek off-farm employment, but the scarcity of jobs (due partially to the lack of tolerance of non-farm business ventures for seasonal fluctuations) forces farm workers to enter into some sort of non-farm self-employment activities (Haggblade and others 1989; Lanjouw and Lanjouw 2001). Second, households seek to diversify their
income. They may operate a non-farm enterprise to offset uncertainty in farming outcomes and the education level of household members may determine who does what kind of work (De Janvry and Sadoulet 2000; Haggblade and others 2002; Lanjouw and Lanjouw 2001; Reardon and others 2000).

There are many economic reasons to explain how education affects entrepreneurship choice and entrepreneurial performance. The word 'choice' is used loosely here. There are also push factors that take people from agriculture into non-farm self-employment: failed harvest, population pressure and rationed wage jobs. But this is not a random evolution of the rural economy either because it could be easily argued that education guides this sorting process as well. As Le1999, pg. 386 notes - 'Educational attainment is one of the major theoretical determinants'.

Justin van der Sluis, Mirjam van Praag and Wim Vijverberg described the evidence from studies that analyze the impact of education on the self-employment choice, sorted by the base category. There was considerable consistency among studies that specify education in years of schooling and studies that employ educational category variables. Overall, relative to a heterogeneous set of other forms of employment, education lowers the likelihood of non-farm self-employment by an average of 1.3 percentage points per year of schooling. The effect was frequently statistically significant. The contrast with wage employment was much more sharply negative at a 6.8 percentage point decline per year. Moreover, a rise in schooling level pulls people out of farming at a rate of 8.1 percent per year of schooling. Relative to a combination of non-employment and all alternative forms of employment, education may weakly favour non-farm self-employment. It was found that more educated individuals are less likely to be non-employed than to be engaged in a non-farm enterprise. But this tends to be contradicted by the more often negative estimates summarizing the explicit comparisons between non-employment and non-farm self-employment.

The base model results suggested that as the level of education rises, a woman is more likely to choose wage employment over non-farm entrepreneurship than a man. Similarly, a more educated urban resident is more likely to select a wage-job than a more educated rural resident, though the estimated difference is not as strong as between the genders.

The educational effect that separates workers out of self-employment into wage-employment is stronger for women, possibly stronger in urban areas, and also stronger
in less developed economies where agriculture is more dominant and literacy rates are lower. Many studies report that uneducated women are concentrated in low-income sectors of food, commerce and textiles. Thus, it appears that education leads women toward more rewarding opportunities that are to be found not in higher income entrepreneurial activities but in wage-jobs.

In doing research on educational attainment and entry of women in specific occupations, there are good reasons for studying men and women separately because they face different constraints and act on different opportunities differently.

Suchitra Anant, S.V. Ramani Rao & Kabita Kapoor writing introduction of a book- 'Women at Work in India' write –'Studies of attitudes of educated women indicate that they prefer white collar jobs and would prefer to work as teachers'. Dholakia discusses the role and importance of literacy in the context of female work participation rate. Kamla Nath describes the variation in work participation rates of urban women by levels of education and the distribution of workers among the principal occupational categories.

Mehran Tamadonfar and Satish Sharma (1993) put forth implication of the extent and type of education. According to their study, the extent and type of education are determining factors for upward mobility.

Womens' educational opportunities do have far reaching impact on other concerns, such as theirs and their families health and nutrition, family planning practices and women legal and political rights. Literate women demonstrate greater decision making abilities and consequently greater gains in these areas. Womens' low rate of employment in the modern industrial sector is partly due to lack of a type of education that does not prepare them for modern economics e.g. their limited access to vocational and technical education. This further exaggerates their social inequalities.

Kalpana Shah(1992) : Number of educated women job-seekers has also risen drastically but the work participation rate among the educated women is not satisfactory enough.

c) Education as an indicator for determining status of women

From the fore-going literature reviewed regarding indicators for determining status of women, it is evident that scholars consider education/literacy as one of the main indicators to indicate quality of life or status of women.

Haddad, Lawrence, 1999: Women's position and status is formed around a series of cultural and economic factors such as resource use, ownership, control, legal and ideological structures, education and information.
Safilios, Rothschiled (1972) mentioned the extent of their participation in decision making at all levels- availability of education, employment, and ownership of economic assets apart from their own physical and mental well being as indicators of status of women. Betelle(1978) mentions in his study on the position of women in society, two indicators of status of women, namely, female literacy and female labour force participation rates. Neerja Ahlawat (1995) mentioned various demographic and socio-economic variables in her paper titled as ' Status of Women in Haryana viz., (i) Gender imbalance (ii) Incidence of female mortality (iii) Maternal mortality and Health status (iv) Educational level (v) Socio-economic aspect of Women as workers (vi) Women's contribution to the family income (vii) Women in dairying etc.

Gopal Krishan (1996) selected five criteria and 20 indicators adopted for the study of status of women: ' The World Pattern ', published in Economic and Political Weekly on similar pattern as mentioned in a map showing differential status of women in various countries of the world produced by the Population Crisis Committee, Washington D.C(1990) i.e, Health, marriage and children, education, employment, social equality.

In the State level Indian studies, the education of females has been found as a product of several factors. It has been observed that poverty and female education are inversely related.

Government of Haryana, (1968, 1969,1970,1971) Reports - The literacy figure in Haryana is only 19.87 percent while it is only 9.2 percent in respect of women. The main reason for backwardness is ignorance and superstitions of village people. Poverty is also responsible for the villagers' apathy towards girls' education.

Government of Haryana (1973,1974,1979) reports reveal that for overcoming economic barrier, government provided free education for girls up to middle level, half fees up to high school, less fees for higher studies in case of girls', scholarship facilities to S.C / S.T girls.

Rosenzweig (1980) showed in an Indian study that 10% rise in female wages reduced girls' school attendance by 5% and increase in the size of landholdings improves participation of females in education. Khan and Aysha (1982) observed in the study on status of rural women in India that socio-economic conditions led to their keeping out of school. In the past, they never felt that they were wrong in not getting enrolled. Gahlot, S.S. (1985) stated that keeping poverty as a constant factor in poorer households, the burden of male employment is passed on to women and children, particularly girls.
Daughters attend to domestic chores and sibling care. Hence, they either do not join schools or drop out of schools. This trend will continue unless employment is assured for one adult. This was found in rural Rajasthan while explaining reasons of low enrolment. Surinderjit Kaur (1988) observed in her study, based on fieldwork in Rasenheri village of Punjab (Kharar tehsil, Ropar District) that amongst Ramdasi and Mazhabi Sikh females, Ramdasi Sikhs females were more educated (40%). Not only this, even the level of education in their caste was quite high. This is mainly because of the reservations and scholarships being offered by the Government. But among Mazhabi Sikh females, hardly 4.3% of females were educated. They were not very well of and hence had to work from the very childhood in order to earn a living. Girls help their mothers in household work as well as in the fields, which leaves little time for studies. Further, as size of landholding increased, the desire to educate both daughters and sons also increased Jalaludin (1990). A recent study has found a positive relationship between per capita household expenditure and proportion of children at school. With the increase of per capita household expenditure, the enrolment of girls catches up fast. The enrolment of girls and boys equalizes when the average per capita household expenditure is 2 to 5 rupees per month. NCERT (1993) study also refers in its study of dropouts and non-enrolment among girls in rural Haryana. The large size of poverty households is a deterrent to female education, as girls from such households are required at home for siblings care and for domestic work, in addition to helping the parents on family farms and household industry/labour. However, the number of female children enrolment in school rises with the rise in the levels of household income. Mohammad Shabbir Khan (1995) expressed in his book on - 'Status of Women in Islam' that though it is recognized that education of women is essential for raising up of the status of women in India yet nothing worth while has been done in our country. He quoted - 'National perspective plan for women-A Government of India Report (1988:2000AD) that in spite of concerted efforts to improve the enrolment of girls and provision of adult education for women, their educational status is far from satisfactory. Female enrolment in educational institutions is low as and when compared with males and dropout rates are high. Some of the factors responsible for low enrolment are - the requirements for older girls to stay at home to take care of siblings when mothers are away at work, need for girls to work in order to help in augmenting the family income. Yashwant Singh Sidhu (1996) found poor parents had negative attitude towards education of females. Mamta Chaudhary (2000) finds in survey conducted in
schools of Rampurthery, Barolyawati and Dhanur villages of Sirsa district - incidence of dropping out more in class 3rd and 5th, which is highest among scheduled caste girls and in the age group 9 to 12 years. At the same time poverty was important factor responsible for dropouts as parents were unable to provide uniforms, textbooks, stationary etc. and even could not pay school fees, though the amount was meager one and they engaged girls in the occupations of their parents. Most of the parents held themselves responsible for their daughters dropping out of schools.


Syed Mehdi Hussain (1995) observed in his survey, conducted in four degree colleges of Hyderabad (two Government colleges and two private colleges) on Muslim women and Higher Education that higher education of women is more popular among younger parents. He also observed that most of the girls' fathers have been well educated while very few of their mothers are either illiterate or uneducated. It implies that in Muslim society, family background plays a significant role in case of women's' education. Suman Lata Sheoran (1996) finds main cause of backwardness of women education as classified into four categories i.e. social, economic, educational and traditional conservativeness among the parents of the girls. Further, early marriage age, burden of domestic work, discrimination with girls' as compared to boys, sense of insecurity among girls in co-education institutions, extra burden on educated girl's marriage on parents were other factors for backwardness of girls education. Parents with rural background find many hardships in finding suitable match for highly educated girls due to their unsound economic conditions. Rural parents fear of modernization factors like divorce, remarriage etc. Yashwant Singh Sidhu (1996) found in his study, the attitude of the parents towards girl's education was also found to be related with the socio-economic background. Low caste parents, with large families, had negative attitude towards women education.
It is undisputed, human beings attain literacy or education according to their need of type of skill for earning their livelihood. In other words, type of occupation builds up urge to attain education. Government of Haryana reports, (1968,1969,1970) mentions that the education of girls is considered redundant as they are required to help the mothers in daily chores i.e. bringing water from the well, collecting the fuel, cooking of food, looking after younger brother and sisters etc. Also, since a girl is not expected to support the family, the need for educating her is not felt at all. Khan and Aysha (1982) observed in the study on 'Status of Rural Women in India' that the lower caste groups like Mazhabi Sikhs and Ramdassi were not expected to be educated, as their nature of occupation did not warrant education of any type. There were scheduled caste women who had a belief that they had virtually nothing to do with education. Surinderjit Kaur (1988) observed same situation in her study based on fieldwork in Rasenheri village of Punjab (Kharar tehsil of Ropar District). According to this study, among Brahmins, 50% of the females were educated. Among Ramdasi Sikhs, 40% females were educated and among Mazhabi Sikhs, hardly 4.3% of females were educated. Women belonging to Nai and Telli caste groups were also uneducated. Afshar(1992) observed in his study that the limitation on women’s technical and vocational education were justified on the ground that educating women were a waste of resources since women’s ultimate responsibility was domestic. Mamta Chaudhary (2000) finds in her survey conducted in schools of Rampurthery, Barolyawati and Dhanur villages of Sirsa district that incidences of dropping out are more in class 3rd and 5th, which is highest among scheduled caste girls and in the age group 9 o 12 years. Most of the parents of dropout girls were illiterate and agriculture labourers. Domestic work and care of siblings contributed to a great extent for the phenomenon of dropping out.

Government of Haryana (1971) report that social rituals and child marriages were considered as impediments in female education. Government of Haryana (1980) report states that in addition to other concessions given in the previous years, such as opening schools in villages where people are ready to provide building and there is no school within one mile radius in 1972, in fees in 1973,1974,1979 and allowed admissions in boys schools also in small villages and backward urban areas due to economic constrains in 1979, decision of one trained female teacher in each school was taken in 1980. Further, if such teacher is not available, then untrained teacher was allowed to be recruited. Chandna (1986) mentioned in his book that most of the females in rural areas either do
not attend school at all or they leave their education in between. There are several reason
behind this, like the prejudices against the female education, prejudices against the
mobility, low status granted to the females, lack of female teachers, prevalence of early
marriage and movement of girls from their place of residence to the residence of their
spouse at the time of marriage etc.
though it is recognized that education of women is essential for raising up the status of
women in India, nothing worth while has been done in our country. He quoted- 'National
of concerted efforts to improve the enrolment of girls and provision of adult education for
women, their educational status is far from satisfactory. Female enrolment in educational
institutions is low as and when compared with males and dropout rates are high. Apart
from other factors like early marriage of girls, social customs that hinder female mobility
after puberty, lack of relevance of school curricula, lack of facilities in the form of school
buildings, hostels, women teachers etc were responsible for low enrolment. The report
says - 'A large number of primary and middle schools, in rural areas specially (where the
majority of people live) lack facilities such as proper buildings, adequate number of
teaching rooms, drinking water and toilets for girls'.
Gopa Samanta (2003), while discussing gender inequity in literacy attainment in West
Bengal concluded that unequal social relations are rooted in history and social
circumstances. A deeper look at temporal changes in literacy attainment in West Bengal
reveals that gender disparities in literacy are subject to high regional variations. These
variations can be attributed to social, economic and infrastructure constraints creating
severely detrimental impact on girl's enrolment as well as literacy attainment.

Section II - Perceptions on female education
A study was conducted by NCERT in 1997 on gender in 44 low female literacy districts in
eight states of India. The states were Madhya Pradesh, Orissa, Haryana, Assam, Tamil
Nadu, Karnataka, Maharashtra and Kerala. The study was carried out in the participatory
mode with household and community as the entry points. Structured interview schedules
were personally canvassed by the field investigators in 13013 households; and to 2424
dropout girls; 4316 never enrolled girls; 792 teachers, 269 educational administrators and
416 community leaders in more than 400 villages and urban slums (Appendix II).
Major findings were as follows:

(a) Perception of parents and educational practitioners about reasons for continuance of girls in schools
The educational practitioners see parental motivation and education as the first three key factors for continuance of girls in schooling followed by the better economic standing of the household. The educational practitioners in six out of eight states see self-motivation of the girl child as a significant contributory factor. The remaining two states are Assam and Orissa wherein educational practitioners do not find self-motivation of the girl child as a factor for continuance of girls in school Table 2b of Appendix II.

(b) Perception of parents and educational practitioners about reasons for girls drop out from schools
- the perception of parents and educational practitioners differ with the former highlighting non-tuition cost of education and later emphasizing parental illiteracy and apathy as the cause for drop out of girls from schools.
- Domestic work and sibling care are seen by both groups as the major constraints for dropouts except in Assam. In Kerala, parents’ group reported it.
- Work at home such as domestic work, sibling care, helping parents in their occupation as important reason for drop out of girls from schools. Engagement in remunerative employment is found as the main reason for dropouts among girls by the parents in all the states except Kerala and Assam. In Assam, parents point out to unsuitable school timings and irrelevant school curriculum as the chief reason for dropout of girls from school.
- An alarming finding is that the girl child’s own illness leads to her dropping out as perceived by 26 percents in Orrisa, 32 parents in Assam, 22 percent in Tamil Nadu and 31 percent parents in Maharashtra.
- Both parents and practitioners report early marriage and onset of puberty leading to the phenomenon of dropout among girls. Parental lack of motivation, parental illiteracy and parental inability to bear the extra tuition cost of books, stationary, cloths, shoes, school funds are the other set of disabling reasons reported by both the groups.
• Lack of women teachers and separate school for girls were found among the most significant school factors in almost all the states. Failure is stated by nearly half of the parents and half the administrators in Tamil Nadu; by about 36 percent in Maharashtra and 20 percent of the parents in Madhya Pradesh and 28 percent educational practitioners in Assam as a reason for drop out Table 2c of Appendix II.

(c) Perception of parents and educational practitioners about reasons for non-enrolment of girls in schools

In case of non-enrolled girls, domestic work, helping parents in their occupation and remunerative work (employment) figure as the dominating reasons in Tamil Nadu followed by Maharashtra as perceived by both parents and educational practitioners. Table 2d of Appendix II.

(d) Perception of parents and educational practitioners for gender disparity

In all 13 positive statements were included for comments by parents and educational practitioners in their interview schedules. There appears to be formal agreement that boys and girls need to be given equal food, equal health and medical care and equal education As regards equal time to play, nearly ¾ parents in Haryana and Karnataka give favorable responses and surprisingly only 32 percent parents, each in Orissa and Kerala agree to provide girls equal time to play. The more alarming part is the negative responses about the equal capabilities and ability of the girls in handling similar duties and responsibilities, equal performance , having similar intelligence and abilities and entering similar occupations. Parents from Tamil Nadu give, relatively more egalitarian responses. Table 2e of Appendix II.

(e) Perception of parents, educational practitioners and opinion leaders about reasons for utility of education for girls

Parents report education as a factor for developing self image and confidence among girls; prepares them for economic contribution; and that educated girls can improve the health and nutritional status of children, will ensure education of future generations and will have smaller families. That education will make girls and women aware of their rights, will prepare them for their leadership roles and decision making, will help in raising age of marriage and reduce maternal mortality appeals comparatively fewer to parents.
The interstate differences are interesting, with Tamil Nadu, Karnataka parents appearing to be the most aware and responsive. It is important to note that as compared to the parents who are illiterate or lower educated, the responses of the educational practitioners show greater awareness, appreciating the various positive effects of educating girls on the girls themselves and through them on quality of the family and the communities. Table 2f of Appendix II.

Section iii Research Questions
1. What are the determinants and consequences of low level of female literacy in Haryana?
2. Where and why gender gap in literacy and education continues to exist?
3. Whether improvements in educational facilities / other facilities has helped in the promotion of female education?
4. Whether education has increased participation in specific activities and if yes, which are the principle occupations where female are employed?

Research question number one has been answered on the basis of Census of India, 2001, Seventh All India School Education Survey, Case studies, Newspapers clippings and Field Survey on the basis of questionnaire.

Research question number two has been answered on the basis of (i) Statistical Abstract of Haryana issued annually by Economic and Statistical Advisor, Planning Department, Government of Haryana (ii) Census of India, 2001,

The evidence for research question number three is collected from Seventh All India Educational Survey, Haryana State Directorate Reports and Field survey after preparing a questionnaire.

The research question number four has been answered on the basis of Census of India, 2001 and data collected from and field survey.

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