

Chapter - II

Review of Literature

CHAPTER - II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.1. INTRODUCTION

Review of literature is the base for deciding the research problems, selecting objectives and formulating hypothesis. It can never be undertaken in isolation of the work that has already been done on the problem which is directly or indirectly related to a study proposed by a researcher.

2.2. DEFINITION OF REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Review of related literature depicts that sort of literature which is related to the topic undertaken and of which findings are usable for the study to make comparison of findings for the use of the study undertaken by the researcher. Review of related literature will help to support the findings of the study undertaken. According to Charter V. Good, "The keys to the vast storehouse of published literature may open doors to sources of significant problems and explanatory hypotheses and provide helpful orientation for definition of the problems, background for selection of procedure, and comparative data for interpretation of result. According to J.W. Best, "Practically all human knowledge can be found in books and libraries. In comparison with other creatures, man only creates his life from the accumulated and recorded knowledge of the past.

2.3. IMPORTANCE OF REVIEW OF LITERATURE

A review of the previous works related to the topic sometimes becomes very useful in fixing the objectives and selecting the methodology and to

analyze the data with proofs. For this purpose, the works have already provided some information on the section of methodology and the suitable findings for discussion. A survey of the past studies also can help the investigator for rethinking on the topic to generate new ideas. So the review of the related literature is important.

2.4. SOURCE OF THE REVIEW OF LITERATURE

There are two types of sources. They are primary and secondary sources which are available in the library. Primary sources provide the researcher a basis on which to make his judgment of the study. In secondary sources, the investigator compiles and summarizes the findings of the work done by others and gives interpretation of these findings. Both primary and secondary sources are used in the present study.

2.5. RELATED REVIEW OF LITERATURE

While studying on 'Educational Empowerment of Women in Manaparai Taluk of Tiruchirappalli District' some previous works on educational empowerment of women have been reviewed by the researcher. Some of related review of literature is described below. One of the key objectives of this study is to promote gender equality and educational woman empowerment. This section deals with the review of literature of the work done related to the educational empowerment of women. The section is divided into three parts. The first part reviews all the articles relating to the characteristics of women in

general, the second part deals with factors which determines the women empowerment and last section states the constraints on educational empowerment encountered by women.

2.5.1. Review of Literature Related on Characteristics of Women in General in India and Aboard

The education of women is an old concern. Not only religious script and folklore but also some of the great philosophers of antiquity have stressed its importance as cultural imperative. According to Socrates, ‘if women are to have the same duties as men, they must have the same education. This statement makes it clear that education of women has been considered as an important step towards women empowerment since ages. There were a lot of misconceptions found about educating women. For example, the Victorian ideas were that education of women would break down the social systems as women would not fulfill their traditional roles (Delemont, 1996). It was in the 17th century when the need for female education was realized in poetry and other literary works by Marie de Gourney (History of women, google.com.n.d). These efforts to educate women made progress in the form of the establishment of first educational institutes for women which were ‘The Young Ladies Academy in 1787 and Sarah Pierce’s Litchfield Academy’ in 1792 in US (National Study of Youth and Religion.n.d). These struggles continued throughout the 19th century in the form of educational plans, suggestions, seminars and it was in 1837 when the first institution for higher education

named Mount Holyoke was founded, followed by the oldest women college in the mid of the same century (timeline 3). The first women movement in the United States started with Seneca Fall Convention in 1848 which stressed on equality of rights of women, specifically focusing on education and employment (Female employment.n.d). After this women especially of US continued to achieve mile stones in education and in 1945, the first woman was accepted to Harvard Medical school and women enrollment equal to men in colleges with 51% in 1980 (Eisenmann,1998).

The early movements following the Seneca Falls were not restricted to US or UK only, but by the end of the 19th century even the Japanese realized that a key to their progress is the education of their women (Tokyo Jogakkan College, n.d). Later, these struggles reached India with the establishment of SNDT Women's University in 1916 which is still committed to the cause of female education in India (History of women education.google.com.n.d). Coming to the Muslim world there was only one elementary school for girls in Iraq in 1922 which showed the deplorable conditions of female education (The Arab World, n.d). Similar situation was prevailing in other Muslim states especially in south Asia. Different developments have taken place in Bengal, India and Pakistan but still the region of south Asia is one of those parts of the world where education system, especially of girls is an issue of great concern for the third world. According to UNICEF, report the net enrollment rates in primary education in Bangladesh and Bhutan has improved reaching a point of

gender parity by 2000. Maldives has been fortunate enough to achieve universal primary education since 1990's; even countries like Nepal have shown good improvement in primary education enrollment rates. Country like India still needs improvements in spite of certain developments. As far as Pakistan and Sri Lanka is concerned, a major problem being faced is the unavailability of valid and complete data but available studies show that Srilanka is far better than Pakistan regarding gender gaps in education (Huebler Friedrich, 2008).

Burr (1973) developed a general model of marital power which spells out a set of proposition. It takes into account the complex interconnection between the amount of power, the cultural or normative context, and the specific tangible and intangible resources that affect the distribution of marital power.

According to the **World Bank** report, 'it is widely presumed that higher levels of female literacy have an inverse effect on women's fertility, a sobering thought, especially when placed in the context of a country with one of the world's highest population rates' (Weiss M. Anita, 1990). This statement makes it quite clear that the number of children a women bears is inversely related to her education and it gives the understanding about general health condition of women too.

In the year 1983, **Acharya and Bennet** collected data about the condition of women in Nepal and analyzed them in detail. According to them,

women's participation in the market economy increases their household decision making .The women in the orthodox Hindu communities of Nepal, who are largely confined to domestic and subsistence production have lower decision-making than the women in Tibeto-Burman communities. Results also indicate that Tibeto-Burman women have lower birth rates than Hindu women, perhaps due to their greater economic security and availability of alternate female role models.

Peattie and Rein (1983) and Sapiro (1984) rightly mentioned that it is necessary for women to organize themselves as women, and to devise a strategy on how to win leading positions.

Vianello et al. (1990) revealed that a husband's power within marriage tended to increase in proportion to the resources that he could congregate: education, income, prestige, social status, and so on. The author also found that the husband's power was associated with the stage in the life cycle and with the presence of children in the home. More importantly, wives who worked for pay had more power than wives not gainfully employed. When the resource theory was applied to the study of marital power in different societies, the findings were inconsistent. Research results about decision-making from the United States [Ken dell and Lesser, 1972; Centers et al., 1971], France [Michel, 1967], West Germany [Lamouse, 1969; Lupri, 1965; 1969], and other countries showed a positive association between the husband's power and his socio-economic resources, such as education, social status, income, and occupation.

In the above studies there were curvilinear tendencies in the data and weak relationships that lacked statistical significance.

Laya, Kothai, (1995) studied that the Women and Empowerment, undertakes a systematic analysis of the position of women in two modernizing societies, i.e. India and Turkey, which shows many historical similarities in the position of women to the level of structural modernization. Education and employment of women bring forth a change in the attitudes and belief of women in terms of equality, independence and individuality. The author has also examined the question of multi linearity of the modernization process of comparative social research.

The Global Gender Gap Report by the World Economic Forum in 2009 ranked India 114th out of 134 countries for inequality between men and women in the economy, politics, health, and education.¹ On equal economic opportunities and women's participation in the labor force, India ranked 127th and 122nd respectively.² The number of women in the workforce varies greatly from state to state: 21% in Delhi; 23% in Punjab; 65% in Manipur; 71% Chhattisgarh; 76% in Arunachal Pradesh.³

Amaranth et al. (1996) have described the consequences of middle-class women taking up economically productive roles. The study examines whether the gender bias of men has undergone some change in the recent past. In order to carry out the analysis, the study uses six parameters such as role

¹ <http://www.weforum.org/pdf/gendergap.2009/india.pdf>

² IBRD

³ <http://www.measuredhs.com/pubs/pdf/FRIND3/14Chapers14.pdf>

perception, say in decision-making, acquisition of assets, economic freedom, spouse's co-operation, and perception of status change. A sample of 68 middle-class women employed in different sectors of Anantapur District (Andhra Pradesh) within the age group of 20 to 45 years was selected. The findings indicate that the employment of women has led to the women having a greater participation in the decision-making process and thus, has lessened the degree of gender bias.

Malhotra and Mather (1997) Women's education and employment were highly associated with their control over financial matters, while a more complex set of factors related to a woman's stage in the life course and her family structure were more associated with their control over social and organizational matters.

In **S.K. Bhandari's (1998)** study, an attempt has been made by the author, to compile all factual information and derive selective indicators for depicting the progress of women education in India during the course of the last century and to analyze the gap that still remains to be bridged towards equalization of educational opportunities between boys and girls in the nation.

Kabeer (1999) has attempted to construct the indicators of the empowerment of women, by using three-dimensional conceptual framework: (a) the 'resources' as part of the pre-conditions of empowerment; (b) the 'agency' as an aspect of process; and lastly (c) the 'achievements' as a measure of outcomes. The study shows that the most probable indicators for

empowerment of women are: family structure, marital advantage, financial autonomy, freedom of movement, and lifetime experience of employment participation in the modern sector.

Bhatia, Anju (2000) analyzed the existing status of females in terms of their rights, and their socio-economic education development, highlighting the profiles of some rural women and discusses the strategies of empowerment especially the new roles for education. The author examines how the highly empowered educated career women are, having the professional success of their careers. The author has collected information on women professionals the world over and makes a comparison with that of Indian findings.

Malhotra et al. (2002) identifies the methodological approaches in measuring and analyzing the empowerment of women. The various indicators for measuring empowerment of women given in the study are: domestic decision-making; finance and resource allocation; social and domestic matters; child related issues; access to or control over resources; freedom of movement; and so on.

According to **Dreze and Sen (2002)**, education has five intrinsic values for improving social and economic conditions in Third World countries, for individual and social benefits. First of all education gives personal benefits for the individual in terms of self-confidence leading to motivation and interests in society. Social interactions are easier when persons are capable of reading a newspaper about social and political issues in the community and the rest of the

World. *Secondly*, education gives access to a wider range of job opportunities and in general enables persons to take advantage of economic opportunities and to participate in local politics. *Thirdly*, a higher literacy rate facilitates public debates and demands for health care, social security and other needs. Public discussions enable people to hold politicians accountable for their promises of improvements in the social service sector. Information on ones society provides better possibilities for utilizing the service system. *Fourthly*, education indirectly prevents child labor, to the extent that implementation of legislation of basic education for all children, force parents to send their children to school which again gives less time for labor. Entering school broadens horizons for young people. This means that meeting other children and young people could result in new ideas of different opportunities in the future. *The fifth* effect of education and literacy enables oppressed groups in a society to become politically organized. Being a larger group makes it easier to insist on ones rights and demands concerning social and political issues. An organized group achieves visibility in the society and is harder to oppress. The ability to resist operation not only concerns disadvantaged groups in society, but education does also have positive effects within families when girls are being educated.

Stine and Karina (2003) explain the term ‘empowerment’ as a process by which the disempowered individuals and groups gain the power to control their lives and the ability to make strategic life choices. The researchers also emphasize that the economic elements of empowerment refer mainly to the

capability of earning a living. The study finds that one of the important determinants of the low average income of women is their intermittent labor force participation, which is a consequence of their time spent on unpaid work such as childcare, housework and food production.

Kishor, Sunita and Gupta Kamala (2004) studied variation in indicators of women's empowerment across India. 'This paper uses data from the NFHS-2 to document women's empowerment as a whole and in each of 26 states with 1999 boundaries. In general, it finds that the average woman in India is disempowered absolutely as well as relative to men, and there has been little change in her empowerment over time. This result is obvious no matter how empowerment is measured, be it in terms of the indicators of the evidence, sources or setting for empowerment. However, there is great variation in the level of women's empowerment across the different states and across indicators'.

Mahendra (2004) has studied the female work participation using occupational data from the National Family Health Survey (NFHS) data set, and compared the same with the 2001 Census and the National Sample Survey Organization (NSSO) data. The study finds that: (a) larger the family size the lesser is the chance for female work participation; (b) education has a positive relation with urban female work participation.

Arun A. Goel (2004) has not only engaged our attention with towards the existing frame work of women's development but analyzes it so that in the 21st century we can achieve our development goals. It further explains that a lot has to be done for women's development and empowerment.

Kishore et al. (2004) shows the status of women's empowerment as a whole and in each of the Indian states in particular, with the help of NFHS-25 data sources. The sample of the study includes married women in the age group 15-49 from these states. The study divides the indicators of empowerment process into three sub-divisions: (a) the indicators of evidence of empowerment (through educational attainment); (b) the indicators of access to potential sources for empowerment which measures women's access to education and media exposure; and (c) the indicators of the setting for empowerment, which focuses on the circumstances of the women's lives and reflects the opportunities available to them. Tamil Nadu ranks eleventh in the level of empowerment among the 26 states, thereby indicating further scope for improvement. It has been seen in the literature that a well-defined empowerment measure facilitates in finding out the present empowerment level. But these empowerment measures might work differently among different sections of women, due to the heterogeneity factor. So there is a need to devote a separate section to study the literature relating to the sample target (i.e., empowerment of women teachers) and find out the factors affecting their level of empowerment in particular.

Balasubramahnyam (2005) review the socio-economic empowerment of women in the family in reality is the urgent need of hour. This seems to be the best way to stop the degeneration of the society and to bring real harmony, happiness, progress, prosperity and peace in the world. It is a very complex phenomenon and needs multi-dimensional, multi-pronged and multi-disciplined

handling. What women do and are expected to do vary, of course, with economy, climate, political or religious ideologies and cultures, but there is throughout the world a core of common tasks which women everywhere are required to perform. These include housework like, cooking, cleaning and sweeping, care of small children and so on. In addition providing these services, a rural woman is also responsible for the household production of food, care of herds, etc. Moreover often rural women spend her time fetching water and fuel. Division of labor by gender is most often evident. More than any other concept, the concept of equal sharing of household and family work is universal goal of the women's movement.

Talwar Sabanna (2007), studied gender discrimination in education and employment intensively. The study revealed that higher and professional education is necessary for new emerging jobs but women are not getting equal opportunity as men in higher education. The situation of lower income groups and rural areas is worse than urban areas and higher income groups.

Chirita Benerji (2007) weaves a warm, evocative tapestry out of memories of food, ritual and women's lives in Bengal. She writes about growing up from girlhood to womanhood in her native land, food and ritual become intimate experiences, which definitively shape day-to-day life for the women of that culture. Food and cuisine are nothing simple to Bengal; they are essential to the Indian mental and cultural landscape. Like in agricultural communities of the world over, food and ritual, food and social custom, food

and culture, are deeply imprecated. Women's lives are closely associated with the production and preparation of food. Certain foods are 'forbidden' which Indian windows cannot eat. Association of food with status is clear.

2.5.2. Review of Literature Related on Factors which Determines the Educational Empowerment of Women

The teachers' opportunities for professional promotion are inherently limited by the nature of the profession (**Vianelo, et al. (1990)**). This is especially true for all women teachers. The study divided the perception of gender inequality on the job with the following factors: demographic variables; social background; perception of work conditions; and perception of the political performance with regard to gender equality.

Mangal (1991) has tried to explain the nature and extent of role conflict among women teachers by using a random sample of 250 respondents from the city of Ghaziabad in Uttar Pradesh. The factors used to explain the conflict are: age; the education of the working women vis-à-vis other family members; the size of the family; et cetera. The study finds that six out of every ten women teachers have not risen up to the expectations of their husbands, thereby implying that they have experienced role of conflict. This conflict has been low among the more educated, comparatively older women, having high family income, with less than ten years of service, and those that are in degree and post-graduate colleges. The study finds that due to this conflict the women teachers are faced with the problem of inadequate time to rest and subsequent fatigue. However, the social and interpersonal relationship is not affected much.

Pradhan (1992) has conducted a study on the secondary school teachers' attitude towards some aspects of the teaching-learning process, which includes the effects of gender on the school managements. In order to find this, the study surveys 150 secondary school teachers (75 male and 75 female) from the Koraput district (Orissa). The study finds that the male secondary school teachers have a more positive attitude than the female teachers towards the child-centred practices, the educational process, the pupils, and the teachers. Based on these findings, the author concludes that the female teachers are not empowered and as a consequence, they do not have a positive attitude towards the teaching-learning process.

Elizabeth M. King and M. Anne Hill (1993) studied the condition of Women's Education in Developing Countries; and in four chapters discussed about condition of women's education, factors influencing women's educational status factors affecting primary and secondary education.

Govindasamy and Malhotra (1996) studied about women's condition in Egypt which indicates the positive impact on women's attitudes about family planning. This influence is above and beyond the effect of education and employment. However, the results show that each of the three considered indicators of DHS agency do not affect family planning. The report suggests that women's agency is indeed multidimensional. Further, freedom of mobility and influence in non-reproductive dimensions has a positive impact on contraceptive use.

M.I. Manvel (1998) considered relation between women and development and explained human development without paying attention towards women's education is impossible and described if we want to get development, we must improve women education.

Vijay Kavshik Belakanisharma (1998) studied the nature and degree of women's participation in labor force which are likely to change because of many factors and education status of women. More women workers may join the labor market to seek white-collar jobs and the rise in the cost of living as well as the increasing level of aspiration have motivated a sizeable section of educated women in going for employment.

Scribner et al. (2000) in their study have used the School Participant Empowerment Scale (SPES) to assess empowerment among the career and technical education teachers. The scale consists of 38 items, divided into six subscales: (a) decision making; (b) professional growth; (c) status; (d) self-efficacy; (e) autonomy; and (f) impact. Based on the analysis, the study finds that both women and men teachers are empowered. However, the nature of empowerment is different across the two groups, especially where the 5 NFHS-2 is the second round of survey which was conducted in the year 1998-99. Men have more autonomy power and the female teachers have more decision-making capacity. In other words, the study finds that men have more power but women are good decision makers.

Ungel's (2000) conducted a study on what is now a significant body of learning on levels that work in favor of positive change in girls' schooling and contribute to the promotion of gender equality in education.

Shireen Jejeebhoy (2001) reviews the considerable evidence about women's education and fertility in the developing world that has emerged over the last twenty years, and she passes beyond the limits of previous studies to address the major question, viz. how does improvement in education empower women in other areas of life such as improving their exposure to information, decision-making, control of resources and confidence in dealing with family and the outside world?

Stacki (2002) has argued that for the women teachers to be the true role models and to pass on the values of gender equity to girls and boys, they need to facilitate their own empowerment in both their private and public lives. As we have seen, there are a number of drawbacks in the existing empowerment measures, and the present study tries to improve them. However, the literature reviews suggest that when considering the women in general and with regard to women teachers in particular, the three most vital indicators of women empowerment are: (a) decision-making in the field of financial, child related and social issues; (b) access to or control over resources; and (c) freedom of movement. Besides these, there are a few indicators that have been rarely used, like time management, sense of self-worth. Both conceptually and practically, women teachers' empowerment is an important issue and has to be considered,

because it paves the way for the empowerment of future generations. A report, which is conducted by **Global Monitoring agency** during the year 2003 to 2004 emphasizes that a good practice of NGOs and education provision have been key instruments in many countries for boosting state offers to achieve empowering of women.

Mirzaie, Hossein (2004), studied factors that have impact on Iranian women's economic participation 'Women's social and economic participation is considered to be an important development indicator in developing countries. However social and cultural factors have limited the opportunity for women's participation in social and economic structures. This paper examines the factors which promote the rate of participation by women in the labor market within the provinces of Iran. The methodology applied is a regression model utilizing panel data. The results indicate factors that include rural urban migration (the rate of urbanization), rate of women's unemployment and the birth rate. The trend of women's participation in the labor market of Iran is U shaped which has experienced and upward nature in recent years.

2.5.3. Review of Literature Related to Constraints on Educational Empowerment of Women

Srikant (1964) has identified the constraints and traced the progress of education in rural areas after independence. He revealed that the status of education has not been satisfactory in different parts of India. He laid emphasis on the education of girls. Through his research, he urged the need for trained

teachers and opening of ashram schools. In addition to that, he stressed for job oriented educational system.

Bisaria. S, studied (1991) about the “Need based vocationalisation of education for girls” from NCERT (ERIC Funded) Problem - The study addresses the problem of vocationalisation of education of girls and need to develop need-based vocational courses suited to the requirements of girls with different accomplishments. The study reveals the following main findings – (i) The majority of the girls in the schools wanted to learn skills for self employment. (ii) The majority of the out of school working girls wanted to have education so that they could do their own work without the help of intermediaries and with better skills. (iii) The girls studying in the industrial training institutes had a desire to obtain proficiency in generating self employment. (iv) School girls informed that their parents did not motivate them in a proper way. It was their peer group and their brothers in several cases, who encouraged them to go to vocational education. (v) The out of girls simply got into the vocational education being pursued at home because they had to make a living.

Champa Limay’s (1999) book on women’s power and progress mainly focused on a collection of articles dealing with women’s participation. It has covered India’s various issues and challenges, struggle for equality in South Africa and also about the Goa liberation movement. Here the author has also discussed delicate problems pertaining to the other aspects of women’s life

such as unmarried motherhood, mother's lineage and the tradition of Sati. There are articles on women's organizations in solving women's problems. Some articles throw light on the customs of some nomadic tribes and issues related to the former untouchables of that locality. The second part contains sketches of few women who have contributed in various fields. Women have played a role in the freedom struggle; some have tried to rehabilitate abducted women during the traumatic period of partition. Some women are working for development of tribes or trying to educate children of prostitutes. Some articles are about women artists who have combated to solve different types of problems of development. The book gives glimpse of various facets of Indian womanhood'.

Shahnaz T.Y. Abadi (2005) has studied women's empowerment issue of Iranian women by promoting awareness and developing entrepreneurship. It showed the effects on individual and occupational awareness and entrepreneurship training programs on self-esteem and entrepreneurial trends of head house holder women in Tehran.

As **Usher and Cervenán (2005)** explain that there are worldwide problems in ensuring equality of educational opportunity and the distribution of the benefits that are associated with the different levels of education that people with different socio-economic conditions may be able to achieve. These benefits apply to the life experiences of individuals and groups, and thus, are not limited to simple monetary returns. Indeed, in spite of the controversy

about the human capital theory, there are positive correlations between female educational attainments and capacity to make informed decisions about various aspects of life including health, marriage, and reproduction. Although the relationship is not simply linear, there is a positive correlation between educational attainment and economic productivity, exercise of social and political responsibility and the authority to demand the respect of individual and groups' rights. Thus, these benefits must be analyzed in relation to the fundamental issues of basic human and equal rights to access every level and type of education and opportunities to use the knowledge acquired to bring informed insight into social and political decision-making processes, and the production and various forms of utilization of knowledge particularly as it shapes public policy and affects collective wellbeing (Assié-Lumumba, 2007). That is where the fundamental issues of gender and equal opportunity take their full meaning. In 'Global Higher Education Rankings', Usher and Cervenán (2005) articulate the complexity of the assessment of access, participation, and attainment and the various determinants and measurement indicators. The determinants include the actual availability of places and the social factors that determine the real chances to enroll. The various indicators with varying weights, especially when addressing the specific issue of gender equity include the Educational Equity Index (EEI), and the Gender Parity Index (GPI).

Choti (2009) reviewed about many barriers which are faced by girls that prevent them from entering and participating in school. One of the driving

factors behind all barriers to girls' education is cultural bias against females. Social and cultural assumptions about the role of women in society are perpetuated by male dominance in social and economic structures. The source of these assumptions is both cultural and historical. In most parts of Africa, for example, undervaluing girls in the education system historically stems from colonial rule where girls' education was completely neglected at worst, and at best provided only training in simple skills to make them effective housewives – such as baking and needlework.⁴ This is combined with a heavily patriarchal, traditional African cultural system. In this cultural model, boys are given preference and men are expected to assume the social and economic development of society. As a result, many women are conditioned into believing that they are weaker than men and only capable of supporting men as wives and mothers. The culture of the country plays a vital role in transforming ordinary women into empowered women. In many parts of Africa, for instance, a girl marries “into” her husband's family. Parents perceive their daughter's new family as the real beneficiaries of the education, or as a proverb from Mozambique states: “Educating a girl is like watering a flower in another man's garden” (Roby, Lambert, & Lambert, 2009, p. 348). Sons, however, are expected to assume the role of caregiver for their parents later in life, so male children receive more educational opportunities so that they can provide stronger financial support when their parents would become aged (Choti, 2009). And so, an investment in a girl's education does not pay proper attention of the parents.

⁴ Conversely, comparable educational opportunities for boys centered on skills intended to shape boys into civil servants (Choti, 2009).

These assumptions are played out in different cultural practices such as emphasis on early marriage to boost a woman's status and the payment of bride prices. Regarding education, parents face pressure to keep their girls at home, and girls face additional restrictions because of cultural rules and social rules which prevent females to ride bikes in public places. After being subjected to these values, girls themselves may also assume they are incapable of attending school. These assumptions play out in many ways and create serious barriers to getting girls into schools.

2.5.3.1. Economic Constraints

Girls do more household works than their male siblings; because of cultural expectations. So families rely heavily on them to complete daily tasks in the home. The family incurs greater opportunity costs if girls are sent to school, and this is compounded if girls need to travel far from the home. Class schedules are often not conducive to a girl's work schedule at home. Parents also perceive that girls have limited occupations available to them, so they do not understand the value in educating their daughters for the workforce (Nsubuga, 2006; Herz & Sperling, 2004).

School fees present yet another barrier unique to girls. Parents cannot afford to educate all of their children, so they favor sons over daughters because of cultural expectations. They invest in the best performing child (Herz & Sperling, 2004; Huisman & Smits, 2009). Girls tend to under perform in developing countries because they are tired due to higher chore loads and poor

diet (sometimes also a result of parents favoring their sons over daughters). Parents also hesitate to invest in the basic needs of school such as uniforms or books for their female children.

2.5.3.2. Institutional Constraints

Institutional accessibility presents another challenge to girls trying to enter school. Gender blind policies disadvantage girls more than boys. For example, age gaps for admission may exclude a girl who was kept at home for a few years to care for infants (Rugh, 2000; Nsubuga, 2006). Further, policies like grade repetition more adversely affect girls. In Egypt, for instance, girls are more likely to drop out if they start later or repeat grades (Lloyd, Tawila, Clark, & Mensch, 2003). Further, even in cases where policies to protect girls exist, they are not always enforced. For instance, Dunne (2007) reports that in Botswana and Ghana there are clear policies to re-admit girls after pregnancy, yet girls cited pregnancy as the primary reason for dropping out in these countries. School administrators do not honor these policies due to the cultural and social stigma surrounding returners, so girls cannot benefit from policies intended to keep them in school.

Lacks of schools or adequate facilities at those schools also keep many girls out of the education system (Nsubuga, 2006; Huisman & Smits, 2009). Schools far from home mean greater safety risks for girls (either real or perceived by parents) as they walk to and from school. Parents often weigh the risks differently for their daughters than they do for their sons. In Egypt, for

example, girls' enrollment in primary school dropped significantly when a school was more than 1.5 kilometers away from home, and in Malawi it was further than 5 kilometers. Schools often lack restrooms, feminine supplies, or gender specific rest rooms. Girls are much more likely to leave a school that lacks these facilities (Lloyd, Tawila, Clark, & Mensch, 2003; Herz & Sperling, 2004).

2.5.3.3. Gender Based Discrimination and Violence as Constraints

Once girls enter school, they suffer unequal treatment that leads them to leave. In some rural settings, girls are pulled from class or school to help with necessary school functions such as preparing food or assisting teachers with non-education related tasks. They are also forced to do traditional gendered roles outside of school for staff members – such as cleaning the home of single male teachers (Rugh, 2000; Herz & Sperling, 2004). As a result of being removed from the classroom, they fall behind in classes or become frustrated and leave school.

Females also face gender-based violence and discrimination in schools. Action research from South Africa shows that girls fall victim to sexual violence when they travel to school, and they are harassed at school by their teachers and peers (Abrahams, Mathews, & Ramela, 2006; see also Lancaster, 2008). Researchers surveyed almost 1500 households and conducted focus groups in Malawi to investigate gender-based violence. Subjects identified ten

forms of violence against girls in society,⁵ and forms of violence unique to their school experiences. The latter included: corporal punishment; beatings, verbal abuse, sexual assault, rape and inappropriate touching from male peers and teachers; and discriminatory practices in school. About 43% of girls reported an incident of inappropriate touching (or worse), and nearly 50% of those incidents happened at school. About 61% of girls, who experienced gender-based violence, affected their performance in school (Bisika, Ntata, & Konyani, 2009).

2.5.3.4. Poverty and Urban-Rural Divides as Constraints

Girls living in poverty face even more serious challenges. In Indian wealthy households, for example, boy's enrollment exceeded girls by less than 3%, while for poor families, that number increases to more than 30% (Murphy & Carr, 2007). The gap in median grade completed between the wealthy and poor is significant in most countries, but when gender is added to the equation, these divides are even more significant – 96% of wealthy males complete primary education worldwide, while the ratio for poor females is 29% only (Rugh, 2000).

Urban and rural divides also contribute to girls' school enrollment. Females in urban areas enter schools at a much higher rate than those in rural areas. In rural areas in Africa, female enrollment is low because there are few

⁵ These forms include: beatings, punitive labor, withholding food, sexual assault/rape, neglect, verbal abuse, enforced isolation, social ostracization, and denying access to education.

income generating opportunities, so parents cannot pay fees and rely on child labor to supplement their income (Choti, 2009). In Pakistan, girls in urban areas are educated at almost the same rate as boys, in rural areas; the ratio is 3:1 only for boys and girls (Lloyd, Mete, & Grant, 2007). Researchers attribute this to poor quality, underfunded schools in rural areas, and to the higher likelihood that girls are culturally, economically, and socially discriminated against in rural communities (Lloyd, Tawila, Clark, & Mensch, 2003), and to the greater reliance on girls for domestic tasks (Herz & Sperling, 2004).

2.5.3.5. Quality Considerations

Getting girls into school, however, is only part of the picture. Females' drop outs are higher than males and so girls have much lower completion rates than males, especially in secondary school. Even if females get to school and stay, they do not necessarily receive a high quality, relevant education. Disengaged or absent teaching staff, overcrowded classes, and a language of instruction that differs from a student's first language affects the educational experience for both boys and girls (Rugh, 2000; Levine & Birdsall, 2005). Rihani (2006), however, notes that, "Boys and girls may suffer from low learning if the quality and relevance of education and teaching is poor, but girls tend to suffer more because of an ingrained gender bias" (p. 23).

Quality has long been recognized as one of the most important issues in girls' education, and has long been a priority in the international development agenda. Providing a quality education, however, presents researchers and

practitioners with serious challenges. Quality is difficult to define, and the variables are difficult to identify and measure (Nilsson, 2003). Further, quality can refer to both the educational environment and the transfer of knowledge from teacher to pupil.

Nilsson (2003) cites the definition of quality in EFA Global Monitoring Report (UNESCO, 2011) as one of the most widely recognized measures of quality. The report gauges quality in economic terms: inputs, teaching/learning processes, and outcomes. Inputs refer to curriculum, teachers' qualifications, local support, and characteristics – particularly of the student, household, and community. Teaching/learning processes describe what actually happens in the classroom, and outcomes assess what students learn, often by measuring the number of students who pass standardized exams. Lloyd, Mensch, and Clark (2000) note that broad sweeping quality factors are communicated in reports like the GMR, but in practice, researchers and development agencies tend to focus more on enrollment, retention, and test scores as measures of quality, especially in developing countries. They argue that this practice is shortsighted because it does not present a complete picture of the issues. They suggest shifting the focus to include factors like teacher training, classroom experiences, and availability of adult role models. These models virtually ignore gender bias. Girls and boys have very different experiences in schools. The girls have got a lower quality of educational experiences because of the different attitude of the teachers towards boys and girls (Molyneaux, 2011). This happens due to cultural and social assumptions that males are superior to females.

The UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS, 2010) uses three dimensions to assess quality in their extensive yearly digest of education statistics. They also apply their dimensions directly to girls' education. The UIS maintains that quality is a measure of three major variables: environment (where learning takes place), curriculum (content of the learning and the student experience), and teachers. When specifically considering girls, addressing environmental factors at schools should address girls' specific needs such as the distance of schools to girls' homes, provision of facilities for girls and boys where necessary, and freedom from threats of sexual or physical violence and bullying. The curriculum should be free of gender bias and culturally sensitive. Teachers should be well trained, sensitive of gender issues, and free of bias as well. The UIS (2010) also argues getting girls into schools and keeping them in the process of learning, which requires addressing equity, not just parity issues:

In practice, the concept of gender parity in education should be considered distinct from the concept of gender equality. The former aims at achieving equal participation for girls and boys in education based on their respective proportions of the relevant age-groups in the population. Gender equality is understood more broadly as the right to access and participate in education, as well as to benefit from gender-sensitive educational environments, processes and achievements, while obtaining meaningful education outcomes that link education benefits with social and economic life. Achieving gender parity is therefore understood as only a first step towards gender equality (p. 12).

Herz and Sperling (2004) also support that reconceptualizing girls' educational challenges requires addressing parity *and* equality issues. They argue that addressing quality issues is the real key to tackling inequality in schools. They suggest making schools more "girl friendly," and they consider many of the same environmental factors laid out by UIS. Some of their suggestions include private bathrooms for girls, assuring safety and privacy that are culturally sensitive, addressing teachers' biases and behaviors, and engaging in gender sensitive teaching. One additional consideration they suggest is introducing more female teachers to the classroom. UNICEF has long been a supporter of girl friendly schools, a label they changed in recent years to "child friendly" schools. In this rights-based model, UNICEF identifies gender sensitivity as one of the many components of child friendly schools (UNICEF, 2004).

Increasing the number of women teachers is often cited as a major strategy for promoting girls' education, especially in developing countries. In addition to Herz and Sperling's report, many other researchers recommend more female teachers as one answer to addressing some of the serious access, quality, and equity issues girls face when trying to receive an education (see, for example, Rugh, 2000; World Bank, 2001; Nilsson, 2003; Rihani, 2006; Roby; Lambert, & Lambert, 2009). The remainder of this report focuses on the effects of teachers (particularly of female teachers on girls' education), explores the barriers that keep women out of the teaching profession, and examines policies and practices that can change the situation.

Various writers highlight the role of education for the empowerment of women. According to the International Encyclopedia on women (1999), education is considered as one of the most important means to empower women with the knowledge, skill and self confidence which are necessary to participate fully in the process of development.

According to Sushama Shay (1998, p.56) Women Empowerment is a process which helps women to change other women's consciousness through creating awareness.

In addition to that Dasarathi Bhuyan (2006) reveals that the women's empowerment is a new phrase in the vocabulary of gender literature. At this juncture, it is remarkable to quote the famous educationist; Rameshwari Pandya (2008) who defines that empowerment has become the key solution to many social problems. Empowerment of women is empowerment of family and in turn development of a nation (2008, p.5).

Further M. Sugana (2011) emphasizes that women education in India has also been a major preoccupation of both the government and the civil society as educated women can play a very important role in the development of the country.

The research paper of Mary Arends-kuening (2011) shows that participation in a community-level female empowerment program in India significantly increases participants' physical mobility, political participation, and access to employment.

The opinion of Mukut kr. Sonowal (2013) states that the education is the key factor for women empowerment, prosperity, development and welfare of the nation. It is obvious that discrimination of women starts from womb and ends at tomb.

2.6. CONCLUSION

The literature reveals the knowledge and experiences of the development of women education, factors determining women education of empowerment, problems of women education and empowerment of women etc. The review of the related literature provides us to know the techniques, and methods of study.

End Notes

1. Acharya, M. and L. Bennett. 1983. Women and the Subsistence Sector: Economic Participation and Household Decision-making in Nepal. Working Paper Number 526. Washington, D.C.: World Bank.
2. Elizabeth M. King, Hill, M. Anne, (1993), “Women Educational Developing Countries, Barriers, Benefits and Policies”, A World Bank Book, London.
3. Talwar. Sabanna, (2007), ‘Women Education, Employment And Gender discrimination, Serials Publications, New Delhi,(India).
4. Bhandari, S. K., (1998), “Education Development of Women in India’, Ministry of Education and Culture Government of India Pub, New Delhi.
5. M., Manvel (1998), “Women and Development” Karnavati Publication, Ahamadabad.
6. UNGEL’s (2000), “Scaling up Good Practices in Girl’s Education” UNESCO, UNS Publish.
7. Shireen, Jeyeebhoy (2001) “Women’s Education Autonomy and Reproductive Behaviour: Experience from Developing Countries”. From Internet
8. Global Monitoring Report 2003-2004 “Gender and Education for all the leap to equality”

9. Kishor, Sunita Gupta Kamla,(2004), Women's Empowerment in India and Its States: Evidence from the NFHS, Economic and Political Weekly February 14, 2004 , PP. 694- 712
10. Kavshik Vijay, Sharma Bela Rani, (1998), "Women Power and Development" Sarup and Sons New Delhi.
11. Goel, Arun, A, (2004) "Organization and Structure of Women Development and Empowerment" and Deep and Deep Publication
12. Champa, Limaya, (1999), 'Women Power and Progress', B-Publishing Corporation, New Delhi.
13. Kothai, L., (1995) 'Women and Empowerment', Gyan Publishing House, New Delhi.
14. Bhatia, Anju, (2000), 'Women's Development and NGOs', Rawat Publications, Jaipur.
15. Atapour,. Jopsjamy, (2004) "NGOs in developing women in Hamandan Province" Shafab Publication, Tehran.
16. Mirzaie, Hossein (2004), 'Factors Impacting Iranian Women's Economic Participation', Tehran Publishers, Tehran, Iran.
17. Shahnaz , T Y Abadi, (2005), 'Women's Empowerment by Promoting Awareness and Developing Entrepreneurship', Available from www.info.worldbank.org/etools/mdfdb,docs/WP_TESEV4.pdf
18. Vianello, Mino and Siemienska Renata, (1990), Gender Inequality: A Comparative Study of Discrimination and Participation. New Delhi: SAGE Publications.

19. Jejeebhoy S.J. and Z.A. Sathar (2001), "Women's Autonomy in India and Pakistan: The Influence of Religion and Region", *Population & Development Review* 27, p. 687-712.
20. Amarnath R. and Ch., Umamohan, (1996), "Gender and Work", Contemporary Indian Women Collected Works, Vol. 6, New Academic Publications, Delhi.
21. Encyclopedia of Women Development and Family Welfare, ed. Laxmidevi, Pub: New Delhi, Vol. 6, p. 66.
22. Kabeer, N., (1999) "The Conditions and Consequences of Choice: Reflections on the Measurement of Women's Empowerment", UNRISD Discussion Paper No. 108, August.
23. Burr, W.R., (1973). Theory Construction and the Sociology of the Family. Wiley Pub.
24. Malhotra Anju, Schuler, S.R. and Boender. C. (2002), "Measuring Women's Empowerment as a Variable in International Development", Background Paper Prepared for the World Bank Workshop on Poverty and Gender: New Perspectives.
25. Peattie, L. and Rein, M., (1983), Women's Claims: A Study in Political Economy. Oxford University Press: London.
26. Pradhan, N., (1992), "A Study of Secondary School Teachers' Attitude Towards Some Selected Aspects of Teaching-Learning Process: The Effect of Sex and Management of School", Teacher Education, New Delhi.

27. Stacki, Sandra, (2002), "Women Teachers Empowered in India: Teacher Training Through A Gender Lens", UNICEF Publication, New York.
28. Sapiro, V., (1984), *The Political Integration of Women*. University of Illinois Press.
29. Scribner, J. P., Allen, D. T, and Hager, R. D., (2000), "An Exploratory Study of Career and Technical Education Teacher Empowerment: Implications for School Leaders", University of Missouri-Columbia.
30. Mangal, Santhosh (1991), "Role Conflict among Working Women in Teaching Profession", Council for Social Development, New Delhi.
31. Govindasamy, P. and A. Malhotra (1996), "Women's Position and Family Planning in Egypt", *Studies in Family Planning* 27 (6): 328-340.
32. Malhotra, A. and M. Mather. (1997). "Do Schooling and Work Empower Women in Developing Countries? Gender and Domestic Decisions in Sri Lanka." *Sociological Forum* 12(4), p. 599-630.
33. Jejeebhoy, S.J. (2000), "Women's autonomy in rural India: Its dimensions, determinants and the influence of context.", In H. Presser and G. Sen (Eds), *Women's Empowerment and Demographic Processes: Beyond Cairo*, New York: Oxford University Press.
34. Usher, A. and Cervenán, A. 2005. *Global Higher Education Rankings: Affordability and Accessibility in Comparative Perspective*. Toronto, ON. Educational Policy Institute (EPI).
35. M. Gillet. ed (1969). *Readings in The History of Education*. McGraw-Hill, TORONTO.