CHAPTER-II
REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE
CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.0.0 Introduction:

In this chapter, a review of research studies conducted in different parts of India and abroad pertaining to the development and problems of women's education are presented. The investigator has made an attempt to review as many related studies as possible. The reviews are presented in the following pages.

2.1.0 Studies in India

Misra (1961)\(^1\) traced the History of Women's Education in India from 1961 to the end of the Third Five Year Plan (1960-61) with particular reference to the factors hindering progress, the nature and extent of wastage and stagnation, the educational facilities available to contemporary Indian women and co-educational. The main observations of the study were:

i) There has been a rapid progress in women’s education in all the spheres. There is a quantitative growth in the number of institutions for women and their enrolment.

ii) Education for women at the primary and higher stages is still an invitation of boy's education.

---

iii) The enrolment of girls for vocational and special education is still not impressive.

iv) The special courses for women like home science, drawing, painting, nursing still need improvement.

v) Funds for women's education has not been properly utilized.

Naik (1961)\textsuperscript{2} in a study on Education of Women in the Province of Bombay found that the educational position of women was at the lowest ebb in the beginning of the nineteenth century. Women in India have benefited most from the liberalizing influence of modern education and western contact brought about through the rule in the land.

Dave (1971)\textsuperscript{3} conducted a study on Evolution of Female Education in Gujarat till Independence. The main findings of the study were:

i) The girls were considered a burden on their parents until they were married.

ii) In the family the girl had no right to property.

iii) Customs of child marriage was deeply rooted in the society. Therefore, their education was not given any consideration.

iv) The role of women was limited and restricted to home life.

v) It was also found that the British rulers after the Sepoy Mutiny of 1857 did not take any kind of interest in the process of social-

\textsuperscript{2} Naik, J. P., Education of Women in the Province of Bombay, \textit{First Year Book-A Review of Education in India 1947-61}, New Delhi, NCERT.

reform neither did they recognize any educational reform demanded by the society.

vi) The recommendations of the Wood’s Despatch (1854), Indian Education Commission implemented whole-heartedly by the Government.

vii) The factor playing an active part in promoting female education were small institutions like Budha Vardhok Sabha and Gujarat Vernacular society. But gradually due to the efforts of the Reformists, customary evils were began to assign the value of the education of their daughters. Public opinion was preparing to give up prejudice against female education.

Desai (1972)⁴ conducted a study entitled A Critical Study of Development of Secondary Education for Girls in Gujarat and found that with the formation of separate state of Gujarat in 1960, women’s education has began to receive greater weightage than before in terms of financial allocation. During 1960-70, the state has made rapid progress in the development of secondary education for girls. The problems of girls education tackled include establishment of more high schools in rural areas, increasing the enrolment of girls by providing more economic incentive and improvement of social climate for the entry of girls in high schools and plugging the various holes from which a number of girls dropped out permanently before completing their high school education.

---

Basu (1975) made a study on Female Education in Bihar from 1904 A. D. The objectives were to find out the causes of backwardness of education in Bihar and to suggest solution mainly to problems regarding illiteracy and expansion of girls' education. The study revealed that prior to 1904 girls used to attend only the special schools except for a small number who studied along with boys. Between 1919 and 1927, the progress was still slower due to the prevalence of social customs, lack of trained women teachers and unwillingness on the part of parents to spend money on daughter’s education.

Gondhalekar (1975) made a study on Objectives of Women's Education as Perceived by the Students and their Parents. The study revealed that:

i) Both the students and their parents showed a keen desire for education, even in respect of higher education.

ii) The students belonging to the lower socio-economic strata expressed their desire to be medical doctors or teachers and aspired for professions and jobs carrying higher status. As one went up the educational scale, student’s responses tended to be realistic.

iii) All the parents were very keen on educating their daughters and sons and providing equal facilities for them.

---


iv) The aim and objectives of the students about education tended to vary with the social stratum. On the other hand, the importance of education for culture was emphasized by those belonging to the higher strata.

There was not much difference between the responses of college students and their parents in respect of marriage, which meant that the students were realistic.

Desai (1976)\(^7\) studied on Girl's Access to School Education in Gujarat, which highlighted the development of girl's education in Gujarat from ancient period upto the post-Independence period. The main findings of the study were:

i) During the ancient period girls had equal rights to undergo the upanayana sanskar and had the eligibility to study the sacred Vedic literature.

ii) But around the third century B. C. the girls' eligibility to study Vedic literature was restricted.

iii) The Muslim rule in Gujarat further curtailed girl's access to education upto the end of the thirteenth century.

iv) The next period upto 1818 A. D. was a history of woes and struggles due to the Maratha Supremacy. The sense of insecurity put the girls within the four walls of the home.

v) The advent of Britishers in the early nineteenth century led to the development of girls primary education of modern type, which began in the 1930's. At the end of the nineteenth century 23,816 girls out of 19,80,005 school-going age had access to primary education.

vi) The education of Hindu and Muslim girls was hindered due to the general religious and social conservatism. But the Christian did push forward girls education for their community.

vii) In the post-independence period, the expansion of girls education increased. In 1950-51, 36 girls against every 64 boys in the age group 6-11 years, 2 girls against every 10 boys in the age group 11-14 years had access to education.

Indukumari (1976) in Education and Social Status of Muslim Women in India intended to find out whether education played a significant role in raising the social status of Muslim women. The findings were:

i) The number of women who had undergone education beyond secondary school, who had entered or wished to enter into an occupation, or who wished to go for higher education to enter an occupation was found to form a very small proportion.

ii) The social structural and institutional variables were all found to prevent Muslim women from obtaining higher education. Compulsory religious education and early marriage were seen to

---

delay or prevent their entry into formal educational system and also to cause dropouts.

iii) The various circle formed by lack of education confining women to roles within the home, which in turn lower the educational aspirations of women as well as their interest in roles outside the home, was established by the study.

Lahkar (1976)⁹ in her study traced the History and Development on Women's Education in Assam for the period 1874 to 1970. Some of the important findings were- The advent of the British and missionaries helped to set up separate schools for girls. Zenana classes were started in Sylhet to provide facilities for girls. Teachers were given rewards for securing enrolment of girls into schools. The gradual increase in the rate of enrolment of girls in colleges led to the opening of high schools and colleges for them. Earlier the curriculum for boys and girls were the same, but after 1882, a separate curriculum for girls were introduced. For supervision the post of Deputy Director of Public Instruction (women) was created.

Gandhi (1977)¹⁰ made a study on the Development of Women's Education in Greater Bombay during 1961 to 1974. The major findings were:

i) 55.7 percent women and 69.5 percent men were literate in 1973-74 in Greater Bombay.

---


ii) Primary education had achieved the target of 99.6 percent boys and 70.1 percent girls to be enrolled during the Fourth-Five Plan. But 50 percent to 70 percent in the said period.

iii) Percentage of pupils enrolled in classes VIII to IX/XII was very low i.e., 50.2 percent boys and 47.4 percent girls. The percentage of wastage at this level was 27 percent in case of boys and 34 percent in case of girls.

iv) In Greater Bombay, the proportion of girls to the total enrolment in 1973-74 was 45.5 percent at the pre-primary level, 46.0 percent at the primary level and 42.0 percent at the secondary level. The proportion of girls to the total enrolment in Arts, Science and Commerce faculties were 62 percent, 31 percent and 14 percent respectively.

v) Self-Incentive was the main factor for seeking higher education.

vi) Equality of men and women’s status has yet to be achieved.

Das (1979)\textsuperscript{11} studied the Growth and Development of women’s Education at various levels in the state of Assam during the period (1947-71) and also studied its impact on the social life of the state. The study revealed that:

i) There was an increasing trend or positive rate of growth during the period of study.

ii) Compared to the increase in the number of men's colleges, the women's colleges did not increase proportionally.

iii) There was a wide gap between the educational opportunities and facilities available to men in compassion to women.

iv) Women's education brought about positive changes in the economic, cultural, political and religious spheres of the social life of the state.

v) The enrolment increased at all the levels of education.

vi) A great percentage of women were attending co-educational institutions.

vii) The majority of women studied male oriented curriculum.

viii) Shortage of women teachers affected the healthy growth of women's education.

ix) The total direct expenditure on women's education increase during the period of study.

Srivastava (1979)\textsuperscript{12} conducted a study on Problems of Women's Education and their Impact on its Progress in East U.P. at Secondary level since 1947. The major findings of the study were:

i) There was no uniformity in the perception of girls of class VIII, IX and X about the problems of women education.

ii) There was difference in the perception of girls of Classes VIII, IX and X about the problems of women education.

iii) There was uniformity about the perception of the girls of class VIII, IX and X and their guardians.

iv) There was uniformity in the perception of girls of classes IX and X about the problems of women education.

v) On the basis of opinion of all groups of respondents 25 problems were identified which were considered mainly responsible in the hindrance on the progress of women education.

vi) In training the history of women development since 1947, it was found that women education developed more in urban areas than in rural areas.

Basukumariah (1980)\textsuperscript{13} in his study on Rural Females and Secondary Education in Chitadevya District revealed that:

i) Girls formed one-tenth of the total school population and the school had only two female staff members.

ii) A large and joint family was the ideal but was gradually changing to a small unitary family, they felt the smaller size led to a greater freedom to the members.

iii) There was an obvious trend towards non-kin managers as a result of modern education.

iv) There was a strict division of labour within the family where men undertook hard and labour work.

iv) The novelists under study saterized the methods of imparting the same dull, irrelevant information to their children. That was not, the novelist's expectation from woman's education. It was the way a woman applied her knowledge and intellectual skills to daily living that determined the value of her education.

v) Since society in the 19th century made few demands on a woman's intellect and too many on her emotions Charlotte and Emily Bronte favoured educating a woman to express all her potential as a human being. Jane Austen, Anne Bronte and George Eliot believed that woman should be brought up in the right principles so that they did not compromise their moral standards and values when faced with temptations.

vi) The approach of 19th century to the education of women was relevant to women of the middle classes today as well as for all times because it made the greatest contribution to moral or value-oriented education as well as the education of feelings.

vii) The education recommended by 19th century novelists and thinkers also promoted self-awareness and self-assessment which would enable a serious commitment to humanity, while leading her the choice of not being dependent of marriage alone for self-fulfillment.
Mazumdar (1981)\textsuperscript{15} made a study on Women and Educational Development. The objectives of the study were:

i) To trace the educational developments of women from 1947 to 1979 and

ii) On the basis of general policies and programs to identify the objectives specific to women's education.

The study revealed that:

i) The expansion of educational opportunities was a demand during the struggle for freedom.

ii) Liquidation of illiteracy, universalization of elementary education for all up to 14 years of age, development of technical manpower, development of Indian languages as the media of instruction, transformation of the content of education to inculcate nationalism, self-realization, equality, democracy and special attention to weaker sections were the declared objectives of national policy for education.

iii) Attempts at equality, universalization, eradication of illiteracy and transformation of content of general education were defeated because of paucity of funds, the inequalities were sharper in secondary and higher education.

iv) There were five major changes of policy for the period 1978-83, namely nationwide program of adult education with special emphasis on the 15-35 age group, universalization with special

\textsuperscript{15}Mazumdar, V., A Study on Women and Educational Development, ICSSR, New Delhi 1981, [Abstract taken from M. B. Buch (Ed), Fourth Survey of Research in
emphasis on the enrolment of girls, regulation of enrolment in the
general academic stream, rural bias in educational programs,
science education and scientific attitude, provision of non-formal
education along with increase of facilities at all stages and
optimum utilization of existing educational facilities.

v) The committee on the status of women in India identified
ambivalence in understanding of the purpose and content of
women's education, the stated purpose was to make them more
effective wives and mothers.

vi) The realization of policy goals and educational system were not
instrumental in bringing about women's liberation as the obstacles
were primarily economic or functional, the effect of the provision of
more schools, women teachers or exclusive schools for girls was
not very commendable, instead a situational analysis of different
target groups, the working out of practical steps and efforts to
stimulate and motivate them would be helpful.

Devi (1982)\textsuperscript{16} in a Critical Study into the Problems of Women's
Education in Manipur revealed that Women's education was confined mainly
to domestic education and school education of girls in the royal families and
well to do families. There were no schools and colleges exclusively meant
for girls before 1947. There was a great disparity between boys and girls
enrolment. The enrolment of girls was lower than those of boys at every

\textsuperscript{16}Devi, I. H., \textit{Critical Study into the Problems of Women's Education in Manipur}, M. A.
stage of education and in every district of Manipur. The main problems of women's education were unconducive domestic and socio-economic atmosphere, lack of proper facilities and guidance, personal problems, public criticism and social prejudice.

Dutt and others (1982)\textsuperscript{17} conducted a study on Educational Backwardness of Girls in Haryana State in their project work. The main objectives of the study were:

i) To estimate the educational wastage and enrolment rates of girls (6-14) including Scheduled Caste (SC) girls in selected district.

ii) To know the existing facilities/incentives for girls education.

iii) To identify causes of dropouts and non-enrolment and

iv) To suggest measures for increasing enrolment and retention.

The main findings were:

i) For Sersa district, average dropout rates were maximum (33.7 percent) for class VI and minimum (11.6 percent) for class I; average repeater rates were maximum (23.9 percent) for class VII, minimum (4.7 percent) for class II; for Mahendragarh district, average dropout rates were maximum (37.2 percent) for class VI, minimum (9.4 percent) for class I; average repeater rates were maximum (26.3 percent) for class VII and minimum (5.9 percent) for class II. The enrolment rates of female to total, SC to total, SC female to SC total of Sersa district were 46.9, 23.9, 47.88

respectively and those of Mahendragarh district were 47.69, 28.15, 48.93 respectively.

ii) There were reported to be one college for girls in Sersa district, three ITIs for girls and two B. Ed colleges in Mahendragarh district, only one school in Sersa reported providing ayah facility. The incentive schemes being provided were free uniforms, free textbooks, midday meal, attendance scholarships and merit scholarships.

iii) Causes of girls dropout as reported were teachers behaviour, caste discrimination, poverty, helping parents in their work, looking after younger children, apathy of parents towards girls education, inadequate facilities in schools, early marriage, lack of interest in studies, irrelevant syllabus, ill health and non-existence of separate high schools for girls in many villages.

Khan and Ayesha (1982)\(^\text{18}\) made a study entitled The Status of Rural Women in India: A Study of Karnataka. The main findings were:

i) A little less than 50 percent women had not been enrolled in schools.

ii) The position on enrolment among the Hindus and Muslims were more or less similar.

iii) All the Christian women were enrolled in schools.

iv) Among the Hindus, Brahmins had the highest percentage of enrolment and the scheduled castes the lowest.

v) There were more illiterate women than men.

vi) There were original adult illiterate females and reverted illiterates.

vii) Majority of the women desired to procure primary education for girls and high schools and college education for boys.

Packiam (1982) made a study on the Progress of Secondary Education in Tamil Nadu During a Period of Twenty-Five Years from 1950-1975. The study revealed that:

i) The growth rate of the enrolment of scheduled castes and scheduled tribe girls was higher than that of SC/ST boys.

ii) The growth rate of enrolment percentage of boys to the total population of the age group 14-17 was higher than the percentage of girls enrolled to the total population of 14-17 age group.

iii) The growth rate of boy’s schools was slightly higher than that of girls schools.

iv) The growth rate of trained female teachers was higher than that of trained male teachers.

Padma and Mao (1982) studied Educational Problems of Naga Girl Students. The major findings of the study were:

---


i) The difficulty of coping with certain teaching subjects is mostly felt by the Naga girls (80.25%) mathematics is deemed to be the most difficult subject by 69.5 percent of them, followed by Hindi (51.75%) and Science (45.5%).

ii) The over-emphasis on the importance of exam creates certain usual psychological problems. As many as 58.25 percent of girls are afraid of failure in examination. Moreover, 57.75 percent are afraid lest they fail to get good position in exams, while 37 percent are afraid of the exam itself.

iii) As many as 56.75 percent are afraid of going to school when they fail to complete homework. It is also express by 37 percent that they usually do their homework just to avoid punishment.

iv) About 80 percent of girls feel hesitate to talk to the teachers or are unable to speak before others in the class due to shyness, nervousness and fear of being laughed at for their mistakes.

v) It was found out that 35.75 percent had problems with regard to non-availability of sufficient time for studies at home due to heavy domestic work. 31.75 percent disturbance caused by visitors and 27.50 percent lack of domestic tutors.

vi) It was found that poor facilities in the school like overcrowded room, noisy class are considered as problems by the least number of girls.

vii) Considering the number of problems felt by the girls class wise, it is observed that girls of class VI are at the top which decrease
gradually in higher classes. The percentage increases slightly in class X. as they advance from class VI to IX, they get better adjustment to school situations and so these problems slowly decrease. The slight increase in class X maybe attributed to the tensions arising out of the impending High School Leaving Exam. In the area of self, it was found that problems do not increase or decrease appreciably along with class.

With regard to problems at home, girls of class VI find the minimum difficulty while class X find the maximum. This indicates that greater responsibility for household duties is placed upon the girls studying in the higher classes thus leading to a negative effect on their school work and home study. The reason maybe that the parents either do not or are unable to keep their children in pursuing studies in the higher classes.

viii) The age group 10-13 has the highest level of problems relating to school, whereas the age group 13-14 has the lowest. From age group 15-16 onwards to the age of 19, it was found that problems concerning school increased along with age.

ix) In the area of self, the age group 10-13 has the least (38.89%), while the age group 17-19 has the highest (38.40%) of problems.

x) The problems related to home increased gradually with age group from 21.57 percent for the age group 10-13 to 41.96 percent for the age group 17-19.
Lalnilawma (1983)\textsuperscript{21} studied the Educational Problems of Girls from Class VIII to X in Aizawl. The major findings were:

i) Attitude of parents towards their daughter's education was on the whole good. They were interested in their daughter's study and helped them. But, the parents were not willing to give such freedom to their daughter's for extra-curricular activities like excursions, sight-seeing, etc.

ii) It was also found that visitors disturbed the study of the students. It is good that parents did not allow their daughters to have visitors while studying their lessons and they gave sufficient time to learn their lessons or home-works.

iii) It was also found that girl students were given much works to do besides their lessons at home.

Upadhyaya (1983)\textsuperscript{22} made a study on Educational Backwardness of Girls in Rajasthan. The objectives of the study were:

i) Identifying the causes of educational backwardness of girls and

ii) Suggesting remedial measures that would enable a large number of girls in the age group of 6-13 to participate in educational programs.

The findings of the study were:


i) The income of the family had a great effect on enrolment and the drop out situation of girls. Poor parents found themselves unable to bear the expense of school uniform, textbooks, etc.

ii) Girls from large families had to help their mothers.

iii) The parent's attitude towards girls education was negative.

iv) Girls were a considered to be among the weaker sections of society.

v) The village community had negative attitudes towards girl's education.

vi) Early marriage was also a major cause of low enrolment.

vii) A major cause low enrolment of girls was either absence of or inadequate number of lady teachers.

viii) Most of the schools did not have general facilities.

ix) It was found that some girls dropped out because they could not adjust themselves due to high pupil and teacher ratio.

x) At least 15 percent of the girls left the schools because they not properly motivated for learning.

Leelakumari (1981)\textsuperscript{23} conducted a study on the Development of Women's Education in Uttar Pradesh since Independence with Special Reference to Varanasi, with the objectives:

i) To trace the development of education of women in India in general and in Uttar Pradesh in particular up to the time of Independence and thereafter.

ii) To compare the development of women's education in Uttar Pradesh with that of other states.

iii) To make an intra-state or inter-district comparative study for U.P.

iv) To study the development of education of women in Varanasi city.

v) To make a survey of attitude of students of Banaras Hindu University and its affiliated colleges towards women's education.

vi) To offer suggestions for the development of women's education in Varanasi.

The findings of the study were:

i) Upto 1927 the condition of education was dismal with only 39 percent enrolment of girls of school going age.

ii) From 1937-47, girls education made rapid strides.

iii) Since 1947, the enrolment has been increasing but the increase has been uneven over different plan periods.

iv) Inter-state comparisons were confined to giving gross enrolment figures and numbers of institutions for various states and union territories.

v) The study of attitudes revealed that in general all had favorable attitude towards women's education with girls showing more favorable attitude than boys.
Patel (1984)\textsuperscript{24} made a study regarding the Development of Education Among Tribal Women in Gujarat. The major findings of the study were:

i) After independence although there was a rapid expansion of educational institutions and enrolment of tribal students at different levels of education, yet there was no special programs that could motivate tribal girls to take up education.

ii) Even among tribal women the literacy rate varied. Rebar women showed the lowest literacy rate and Dhadia women showed the highest literacy. As a whole the literacy rate per thousand populations was 62 among tribal women during 1971.

iii) There was a trend of general increase in enrolment of tribal girls in standard I, about 60 percent of school age tribal girls did not ever attend the school.

iv) There were variations in the context of wastage and stagnation among tribal girls with variation in development and types of social attended.

v) Tribal parents in different and apathetic attitude towards education tether with their poor economic conditions seems to be the major causes for irregular attendance, absenteeism and dropping out from school.

Rai (1984) made a study on Problems of Girls Studying in Coeducational Institutions of Varanasi Regions. The major findings were:

i) The major problems faced by girls in co-educational schools were in the areas of social and recreational activities, courtship, sex, marriage and finance, living conditions and employment.

ii) Girls in segregated institutions encountered maximum problems in the area of social and recreational activities, courtship, sex and marriage and home and family, while the least problems were in the areas of social psychological relations, curriculum and teaching procedures, moral and religious areas.

iii) Girls in co-educational institutions had significantly better homes, health, emotional, school and total adjustment than those in segregated schools.

iv) The co-educational school girls of upper SES had better or total adjustment and were better adjusted in home health, social and emotional areas than those in segregated institutions.

v) Girls in middle SES in co-educational institutions were better emotionally adjusted than those in segregated institutions.

vi) Those from lower SES in co-educational institutions had better total adjustment as well as home, health, social, emotional and school adjustment than those segregated institutions.

NIEPA (1986)\textsuperscript{26} conducted a study on Women's Education in India: A Regional Dimension with a view to identifying backward districts in terms of female education. The findings of the study were:

i) Only nine districts had a "very high" level of female education; 70 districts had a "high level", 137 districts had a "medium level" and an equal number had a "low level" of female education. There were 59 districts with a "very low level" of female education. In the light of these findings, it was found that there were several districts in different states, which needed special attention to promote female education. A regional approach was needed for female education.

ii) In the district of Jaisalmer in Rajasthan, the female education literacy rate of 1.67 was the lowest in the whole of India. This called for regional schemes suited to the needs of the regions/districts.

Pathan (1986)\textsuperscript{27} in A Critical Study of the Cost Responsible for the Educational Backwardness of the Muslim Women and to Suggest Ways and Means for Improvement. The major findings of the study were:

i) The illiterate Muslim women mainly belong to the age group of 30-40.


ii) The number of children in a family was 7 or more and the numbers were quite aloof from the concept of a small family.

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

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

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

vi) The lack of social stimulations and encouragements on the other hand and the opposition of relatives and family members on the other contributed to Muslim women's backwardness.

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

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

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

Bokhil (1987) in a study on Education of Rural women examined the factors that effect girls education in the villages of Ansarwadi, Arvi and Rohotwade around Pune and found that:

---

i) Girls from lower economic strata of the society remained outside the schools. They either helped their parents in work or earned their livelihood.

ii) Generally girls left school at the age of 18-19.

iii) Girls from families having a better socio-economic status were enrolled and remained in schools.

iv) The factors that affected girls education adversely were distance to be travelled to school, physical handicaps, constant domestic difficulties and continuous physical work during the day.

Liankhuma (1988) studied the Development of Women’s Education in Mizoram. The study revealed that:

i) The English Baptist Mission in the South and the Welsh Presbyterian Mission in the North Mizoram contributed to the development of women’s education.

ii) When girls education was introduced in Mizoram, the public opinion was against it. The prejudice was gradually overcome within a little more than two decades through the zeal and unyielding efforts of the missionaries.

iii) The first girls school was started in 1904 at Aizawl by the Welsh Chalvinistic Mission. The second girls school was opened by the English Baptist Mission at Seikawn in 1907.

---

iv) Right from the start till 1952 the entire education and administration was delegated to the Welsh Mission in North Lushai Hills.

v) The government from the beginning made recurring grants to the missions for maintenance of the schools.

vi) The number of primary schools in 1901 was 5 and it increased to 259 in 1947. Besides there was 12 middle schools and 1 high school in 1947. In 1981, there were 775 primary schools, 315 middle schools, 139 high schools, and 11 colleges with a university campus.

vii) The average percentages of girls enrolment to the total from 1968 to 1982 were 51.36 percent in pre-primary schools, 48.20 percent in primary schools, 40.65 percent in high schools and 24.37 percent in colleges.

viii) The literacy percentage of females in 1901 was 0.14 and in 1981 it was 54.91 percent.

ix) The achievement of boys and girls in the High School Leaving Certificate Examination from 1979 to 1982 in terms of pass percentage showed that boys were having higher achievements than girl students.

x) Almost all schools and colleges are co-educational.

xi) Besides general education there were 3 Nurse Training Schools, 2 Teachers Training Institutions, 1 Institute of Education, 1 Weaving school and 1 Institute of Music and Fine Arts.
Ganesan (1989)\(^{30}\) studied the Development of Women's Higher Education Since Independence in Pasumpon Thevar Therumagan Dist. The major findings of the study were:

i) There was significant development of women's higher education in the district from 1947-88

ii) There existed only one college extremely for women

iii) There will be an expected upward trend of women students enrolment in the academic stream. By A. D. 2000 their strength is anticipated to be 2836 in arts and science colleges.

iv) There existed only one engineering college and by A. D. 2000 there were likely to be 122 women students.

v) There was an upward trend of women students' enrolment in the engineering college in the district.

vi) There was one teacher Education College and one Tamil language college. Through trend analysis it was estimated that number of women students in both the institutions would be 157 and 82 respectively by A. D. 2000.

vii) There was one physical education college in the district. There was a downward trends of women students' enrolment and by A. D. 2000 the women student's enrolment would be only 51.

Nayar (1989)\textsuperscript{31} studied on the Education of the Child in India with special focus on Girls. It study the education of girls in India in terms of provision, enrolment, retention and curriculum transaction from gender equity. The major findings of the study were: More than half the children were born into extreme poverty and only 85 out of 100 lived beyond their fourth birthday to become eligible for entry into formed schools.

i) Of the eligible pre-schoolers (3-6 years), only about one in every ten children are covered by ECCE programmes, comprising ICDS, bolwadis, crèches, ECE etc.

ii) The constitutional detective of UEE upto the age of fourteen years is a sure strategy for providing access and retention of children of the disadvantaged sections, especially girls.

iii) Curriculum, howsoever, comprehensive on paper gets reduced to mere syllabus for academic subjects. Further the curriculum has a class and sex bias.

Sushma (1990)\textsuperscript{32} conducted A Critical Survey of Women's Education in Vidarbha 1947 to 1987. The main findings of the study were:

i) From 1978-85, at pre-primary stage the number of boys was always more than girls.

ii) After independence, growth in women's education at primary level had been obtained.


iii) The problem of wastage and stagnation among girls was higher than boys at the secondary level.

iv) There has been a lack of separate girls schools and women teachers.

v) At the higher education level, the gap between the number of educated boys and girls widened.

vi) The proportion of men and women in college education was 3:1.

vii) The number of girls taking general education was more than taking technical and vocational education.

Jain (1991) in Women and Education in Islam A Study of Muslim Women in an Urban Setting revealed the position of women's education in Jaipur city. The main findings were:

i) Women are denied equal access with men to education.

ii) Women are less likely than men to continue their education at higher levels. Only 50 percent women were college educated.

iii) The percentage of illiterate women was 53.7 percent.

iv) In comparison to the major communities in Jaipur city, the proportion of Muslim girls getting higher education was very low.

v) Parents had comparatively high educational aspirations for their sons than for their daughters.

---

Nayar et al (1992)\textsuperscript{34} conducted a Study of Drop-Out and Non Enrolment among Girls in Rural Haryana. The major findings of the study were:

i) Drop-out and never enrolled girls belonged to below subsistence level households, Parents pointed out that education was not cost free and they found it difficult to meet non-tuitions costs like uniform, books and money for Boys' Fund, Red-Cross Fund etc.

ii) Domestic work and sibling care were the chief reason for girls not attending school. From fetching water, fodder and fuel to care of livestock, washing, cooking, cleaning, looking after younger siblings were tasks that kept these girls busy, increased agricultural prosperity brought increased substantially and all of it meant more demand for women teachers was strong in Mewat drop-out girls, however expressed their willingness to return to school (which meant most of them liked) given an opportunity. The parents of such girls were apathetic and had lower educational and occupational aspirations for daughters compared to sons and saw girls as less equal than boys.

iii) Access was not much a problem, all villages from some dhanis (hamlets) were served by a primary school.

iv) Drop-out was negligible in the age group 6-8 years and was maximum after cl. V

v) Nearly all women teachers commute to villages from cities and towns and hence did not interact with the communities nor followed drop-out girls.

vi) The study recommended rationalization of teachers between rural and urban areas to ensure at least one woman teacher in every primary school; opening of junior primary or feeder schools in dhanis; unserved extension of incentives of free books, uniforms and stationary to all girls in poverty groups regardless of caste; noon-meal; extending child care facilities within/ near the school to free girls from sibling care and better coordination with ICDS (Anganwadis); creating a positive climate for girls and their educational development breaking the cause of low valuation and poor status in materially prosperous state.

Ray (1995) in an article on Women's Status and Education with Reference to Orissa highlighted the development of women's education in Orissa since the pre-independence period. During the pre independence period parents were reluctant to send their children to school due to fear of conversion to Christianity and deportation to England. From 1961-1991 there has been progress in enrolment of girls at the various levels. At the primary level girls enrolment increased from 4.40 lakhs in 1960-61 to 11.98 lakhs in 1983-84, at the middle school stage it increased from 0.12 lakhs to 2.43 lakhs; at the high school stage it increased from 0.04 lakhs to 1.31 lakhs. In

1960-61, there were 4 women's colleges and 25 co-educational colleges. In 1983-84 the corresponding figures were 31 and 268. To promote girls education, the government is giving some status to the women candidates at par with male candidates. Non-formal centres and anganwadi centres have been launched where girls are allowed with their siblings. There is 15 percent reservation for women candidates for teacher training course in Orissa.

Dkhar (1996) studied the Development of Women's Education in Meghalaya and Influence of Education on Certain Social Attitudes of Khasi Women. The study revealed that: there has been a remarkable progress in the field of women's educational facilities, increase in the percentage of female literacy, increase in the number of girls enrolment, better examination performance of girls and the like. It is also seen that education has proved to be a significant factor in moulding the social attitude of the Khasi women in a positive direction. The desirable values of modernization such as liberalism, equality, rationality and democratic outlook which are inherent in the traditional Khasi society have been reinforced by education. The other desirable values such as scientific outlook, secular outlook, achievement orientation and modern education. The present day educated Khasi women possess a desirable mix of useful values drawn from the past and the relevant values of modern times acquired during the course of their education.

Madhav (1996)\textsuperscript{37} conducted a Study into the Hindrances Faced by Rural Girl Children for Not Joining the School in Andhra Pradesh. The major findings of the study were:

i) The economic factor played a predominant role on the problem taken up for the study and it was also interlinked with other dependent factors like organizational, physical and educational factors.

ii) Social, historical and cultural factors were interrelated and physiological, psychological factors to rural girls education for not joining schools. Whereas, political factor had influence on the problem.

iii) The physical and organizational factors had same place in rural as well as in urban areas.

Subramanian\textsuperscript{38} studied on Drop-out of Girls in Schools. The findings of the study were:

i) Drop-out is high among standard 1X and V1 girls.

ii) There is no significant association between father's education and standards wise dropout of girl students.

iii) There is no significant association between father's occupation and standard wise dropout of girl students.

iv) There is no significant association between family income and stage of dropout. The girls from low family income were

early dropout and those from high family income were late dropout.

v) There is no significant association between mother's education and rate of dropout of girls.

vi) There is no significant association between mother's occupation and the rate of dropout of girls.

Kar and Kar\textsuperscript{39} made an attempt to study on Promoting Girls' Schooling in Orissa. The objectives of the study were:

i) To assess the extent to which enrolment in primary and secondary schools in the state of Orissa is determined by access to schools and quality of schooling.

ii) To ascertain the degree to which the patriarchal structure of the society explains women's position, more specifically, the extent to which the economic value and worth of women influences their educational level as well as the gender gap in education and

iii) To examine the magnitude of influence exerted by socio-economic development across the several districts of the state on the gender gap in education.

The findings of the study were:

i) There is no significant difference between the factors influencing girls' and boys' enrolment at the primary and


secondary stages of schooling. Therefore, the promotion of girls' education will not be at the cost of boys' education or vice versa.

ii) As regards primary school enrolment, on economic variable represented by agricultural development plays a major role while in the secondary stage educational factors like the number of schools and literacy rate become predominant.

iii) In the educational system the role of schools is instrumental in promoting secondary school education, but not in the case of primary educational enrolment.

2.2.0 STUDIES ABROAD

Manemann (1974)\textsuperscript{40} in his study of the Problems of African Girls concluded that their academic expectators are generally low and although the formal curriculum in secondary schools appears the same for females and males, instructional emphasis for girls is often placed on learning to image a home and marriage in a 'hidden curriculum'.

Youssef (1974)\textsuperscript{41} attributed the Predominance of Girls and Women in Non-Career Oriented Fields to several factors such as:

i) Society's expectation for women and the roles defined for them.


ii) Parental pressures, especially on girls and women to stay within the traditional female roles.

iii) School counseling limits "women" options study.

UNESCO (1975)\textsuperscript{42} in its report entitled Statistical Reports and Studies: Higher Education; International Trends 1960-70, revealed the enrolment ratio of students in higher education in developed and developing countries of the world. The percentage of female students to the total student population in the world was 33 percent in 1970. In developed countries the percentage were 35, 38 and 41 in 1960, 1965 and 1970 respectively. The proportion of women students was everywhere higher among the humanities and teacher education categories. In several countries female enrolment in medical sciences was higher in relation to the overall percentage. In engineering the proportion of women is extremely low- the highest figure being in Egypt (9 percent).

Gill and Smock (1977)\textsuperscript{43} in a survey of Women Roles and Status in Eight Countries found that the major factor in the ability of female to assume a wide range of social role in the increase availability of educational opportunities. Greater access to education for women result in a broad spectrum of positive consequences, ranging from increased participation in political and financial matters resulting in more higher and more continuous employment rates to be coming better role models and care takers for


children. In some regions, access to school is limited to both sexes but more so for girls. In the worst instances, girls are not admitted to school; in other they receive inferior instruction. Female in these regions often do not enter complete secondary schools. And early in their lives are confined to work at home or in menial home-related chores.

Jackson (1978)\(^44\) in Women and Development: A Study of Access to Education and Work in Tanzania and Cuba 1960-1980 made a comparative case analysis of the United Republic of Tanzania and Cuba with regard to Women's access to education and work, and found that in both countries women are protected by constitutional guarantee and have broad access to education and the social climates are supportive and conducive to change regarding women's rights.

Wardle (1978)\(^45\) in the Education of Women, Trends in Education in British observed that there was a great increase of women students in the universities. In 1921 there was 19,889 women students in the universities and increased to 92,483 in 1976/77. He also observed that this expansion had been almost entirely a feature of the past nineteen forty-five (1945) period, and infact much of the increase occurred in the past ten years. In 1976/77 13,663 women were following post-graduate courses. Again, a large addition must be made to the latter figures for non-university degree courses- a recent innovation or any large scale. In 1975, as many as 27,190


women in full time attendance in polytechnics. He also mentioned that a final development that deserves attention was the rapid disappearance of single sex schools and colleges. Whatever the academic merits or demerits of single sex education be, Wardle said that it could hardly be disputed that its removal was a step towards reducing discrimination on the ground of sex.

Eaves (1978)\textsuperscript{46} on the subject of Equal opportunities for Men and Women, Trends in Education, shows that the women students admitted to First Courses at British Universities in October 1973 were 35.7 percent female, 35.0 percent female if overseas students are included. Eaves observed that, by the end of 1976, percentages of women in First Degree were First Class Honours 25.0, a Second Class Honours (Upper Division) 39.5, Second Class Honours (Lower Division) 40.1, Second Class Honours (Undivided) 22.8, other Honours 24.4, and Pass or Ordinary 33.8. Thus, all First Degree of Women is 35.8 percent. He said that it could be seen that in terms of general performance there was only little difference between men and women; hence no evidence of inequality.

Byrne (1978)\textsuperscript{47} in Women and Education revealed the position of girls in the British education system. Eileen Byrne addresses the problem of the unequal representation of male and female students at all levels and in all kinds of educational institutions. She also examines the way in which female students become increasingly segregated within certain areas of the


curriculum as they progress through the system. Unlike many other writers, she does not neglect the further education sector where the problem of Women's segregation in a very narrow part of the curriculum is particularly acute.

As well as stressing the structural nature of discrimination against girls in the education system, Byrne also shows how certain girls are victims of what she calls the compound interest of inequality. She suggest that there are five main indices of inequality: sex, lower social class, lower range of intelligence, residence in certain areas with a history of under-achievement and residence in rural areas, where two or more of these factors are aggregated, a cumulative cycle of under-achievement is created. This cycle can only be overcome by positive, affirmative intervention programmes aimed at increasing resources, countering cultural and social barriers and adding to skills and experiences.

Rosemary (1978)\textsuperscript{48} in her study concerning the Oppression of Women in Great Britain points out that the education of women is different from and inferior to, the education of men. She further analysed that even among women, class differences still exist and while middle class women may encounter fewer difficulties in seeking careers and higher education, working class women still enter dead – end jobs and still consider home and family their primary occupation.

Deble (1980) study the School Education of Girls. The main aim of this study is to look at the conditions under which the girls obtain primary and secondary education in different parts of the world. It also aims to reach and improved understanding of female wastage from the educational system in different countries. Three particular questions are addressed. Are the same number of girls and boys admitted to school? Does their schooling follow the same pattern? Are these two aspects related? The final section looks at the steps taken up by various countries to reduce wastage in the education of girls bearing in mind that each state has its own system of education operating within a particular economic, cultural and social context.

Boxer (1982) in article For and About Women, the Theory and Practice of women's Studies in the United States survey the literature about Women's education, a field in American higher education, its history, political issues, theories and structures. She documents not only women's studies unifying vision of a society free of all oppression, but examines the conflicts which arise from women's studies struggle to survive as a radical alternative to the very University system within which it exists. Boxer delineates the tenuous balance between scholarship and politics which academic feminism must maintain. Other major issues which she considers includes the adaptation of the feminist principles in the classroom, the feminist attempts to transform academic structure and curricular, the struggles against racism and home inside and outside of women's studies, the accountability of

---


academic feminism to the larger Women's Liberation Movement, the difficulties of inter-disciplinary in the discipline based University, the current autonomy versus integration debate, and the formation of feminist methodologies appropriate to women's studies as an autonomous discipline and as a force for social change.

Kelly and Elliot (1982)\textsuperscript{51} in the book Women's Education in the Third World focuses on the under-education in women in Africa, Asia, Latin America and the Middle East. The authors ask how education effects women and how it can be made to improve women's times, while recognizing that schooling throughout the Third world functions in the context of social system that oppress women. They argue that schools need not merely replace or reinforce such systems but rather than they can be made into instruments of social transformation.

Part I attempts to identify the factors which predict whether a woman will or not attend school. Part II focuses on the kind of education girls receive once in school and suggests that equality in access to education cannot be meaningful without changes in the content of education, teaching methods and the structure of everyday life in schools. In Part III and Part IV, the author's focus is on the outcomes of female education. They ask whether education enables women to mediate the impact of the family on their economic and social lives and whether education substantially affects women's lives in the family.

\textsuperscript{51} Kelly, G. P. and Elliott, C. M., Women's Education in the Third World, Comparative Perspectives State University of New York Press, 1982.
Cunningham (1984)\textsuperscript{52} in Women's Access to Higher Education in Scotland analyzed the trends of girl's education in Scotland and also the international perspectives of women's education and revealed three World Wide trends:

i) There is a considerable increase in women's participation in higher education both in total numbers and as a proportion of all students.

ii) Despite this progress, the number of women continues to lag behind the number of men particularly in university education and

iii) There is a striking difference in the type of study followed by men and women.

Women are still congregated in arts and science faculties and teacher-training. These trends are found in economically advanced countries too, mostly in Western Europe from 1950 to 1967. Scotland has followed suit two of the international trends in the growth of numbers of women students and in their concentration in traditional fields of study. But in the third trend there is deviation from the pattern-girls have entered higher education in as great number as boys. In 1965 women's share of 48 percent put Scotland up with Finland and France as leaders of Western Europe. The number of women students in Scotland has increased since 1963 with the acceptance of Robbins Report, yet in view of early golden years, progress in the

The subsequent half century has been slow— the percentage of women's enrolment in higher education was 41 in 1982.

Don (1984)\(^{53}\) in Education Opportunities for Girls in Malaysian Secondary Schools revealed that:

i) Educational opportunities for girls in Malaysia have increased tremendously since the country attained its independence in 1957. Imbalances in male-female enrolment at the primary level in the early 1050's were almost completely eliminated by the 1970's with the implementation of the policy of free, universal primary education. At the secondary stage although access in non-discriminatory to girls, the traditional attitude among parents and among girls be resulted in a slightly lower proportion of girls enrolled in secondary schools as compared to boys. The access of girls to vocational secondary schools is limited.

ii) The academic school provides no curricular differentiation for boys and girls, with the exception of Home Science courses and certain co-curriculum is uniform.

iii) Religious schools showed higher enrolment of girls than boys.

iv) Participation rates of girls in tertiary education are about one-third of the total enrolment.

Jacquetta (1984)\textsuperscript{54} in the book Women and Education highlighted the position of women's education all over the world as follows:

i) Nowhere in the world do women participate equally with men in formal education. In the third world countries male enrolments outnumber female. In some countries where the schooling is compulsory, the earlier it ends, the greater the disparity between the both sexes. As soon as students are legally allowed to opt out of formal education, girls drop out to a greater extent than boys. Despite a worldwide increase in women's participation in higher education, the total number of women continues to lag behind that of men especially in the University sector.

ii) Throughout post-school education there is a striking difference between the type of courses studied by men and women: the vast majority of women are concentrated in arts, social-sciences and teacher education.

iii) Where primary education is universal and free, girls tend to do as well as boys and sometimes better. However, once out of primary school, females under achieve in a variety of subjects especially in physical sciences, engineering and technology related subjects.

Kelly (1984)\textsuperscript{55} in a study on Women's Access to Education in the Third World found that very few third world countries provide universal


\textsuperscript{55}
primary education. However, most males enter school at rates two or three times than those of females. In some nations like Upper Volta, only 8.9 to 9 percent of the girls in that age group enter schools. More commonly, about 30 percent of the age cohort six to eight years enters school. The gap between male and female enrolments grows exponentially for each year of education. The disparity between male and female participation in education has not disappeared with the expansion of schooling in the Third World and even in most parts of North America and Europe. Rather, as school enrolments have doubled and tripled in most countries of Africa, Asia, Latin America and the Middle East, this expansion has benefited males more than females. More women attend school than ever before, but women's representation in all levels of education has yet to equal males, except in Chile.

Adams and Kruppenbach (1986)\textsuperscript{56} in a paper on Some Issues of Access and Equity in the Education of African Females Progress and Prospects examined the status of females participation in formal education in Africa at the close of the International Decades for Women, and revealed that trends in the past two decades indicate that increased in number of African girls have gained access to a primary level of education to acquire those basic skills and attitude considered necessary to support general


development goals. However, the combination of low enrolment growth projections for the generally unfavourable economic forecasts for the foreseeable future suggest that those past efforts are now entering phases of stabilization stagnation or regression.

Bailey and Campbell (1992)\textsuperscript{57} in How Schools Shortchange Girls pointed out that stereotypes have long limited the options of girls and boys. Viewing science and math as things boys did and art and dance as things they did not do influenced the course taking patterns and achievement levels of both sexes. They noted that although girls were getting better grades and going on for post-secondary education in greater numbers than boys, the job segregation that limits women's employment choices and the gender gap in wages continued. This is still the case.

Today teachers and parents are working together in many schools to implement polices and programs that work for girls and for boys. Girls are participating more and doing better in math, science and sports than they were a decade ago. Boys' participation and achievement in math and science are up, too, and their participation in sports remains as high as ever.

Barry (2000)\textsuperscript{58} in Access to Training, Education and Employment Programmes reported that women have steadily increased their representation in education, training and employment schemes throughout the 1990s but there also remain important areas of under-representation.


Women accounted for 44% of participants on a selection of twenty-four education, training and employment schemes analysed by the Work Research Centre in 1998. (WRC 1998) Participation rates of women emerged in this study as highly uneven, ranging from 66% on educational programmes to 39% on training and employment programmes.

In State training courses operated by FAS, the National Training Authority, women's participation rates vary enormously from 96% on Return to Work Courses to 1% on Apprenticeship Courses. On the important Specific Skills Training Programme, women accounted for 42% of participants in 1998, while continuing to be heavily under-represented on courses linked to heavy manufacturing and construction industries. 51.0% of participants on core employment schemes, such as the Community Employment Scheme, were women in 1998 compared to 37.4% in 1995 and 45.7% in 1997. Broadly defined eligibility criteria provide much greater access to the Community Employment Scheme than to the Back to Work Schemes which is much more narrowly based on access through registration as unemployed. Women have accounted for only 14% of those who had participated on this scheme by April 1999. (Dept. of Social Community and Family Affairs 1999). Figures from the Green Paper on Adult Education show that women account for 50% of literacy students and 80% of community education participants. (Green Paper on Adult Education 1998). Adult education is particularly important to women in Ireland but it remains a seriously under-resourced part of the educational system. Educational qualifications are crucial to women's access to the labour market, a point
strongly made by in Report 2000, a Report on the Women's Education Initiative, a pilot programme of projects involving educationally disadvantaged women:

"for men educational levels do not, to a great extent, determine whether or not they are in the labour force. However in the case of women, there are three times more women who have second level qualifications working than educationally disadvantaged women working."

World Education on The Girls' Access to Education (GATE) Program\(^5\) pointed out that the reality in rural Nepal is that two-thirds of adolescent girls are not enrolled in formal schools. These illiterate, out-of-school girls are destined to lives of low status and limited opportunities. In 1998 World Education began the Girls' Access to Education (GATE) Program by developing a nine-month literacy curriculum that integrates adolescent health and girls' empowerment information and literacy training. While girls learn how to read, write and do basic mathematics, they learn about basic nutrition, reproductive health, the consequences of early marriage, early pregnancy, unsafe sex, STIs, and HIV/AIDS. World Education developed a series of booklets for the program that focus on the dangers of trafficking, child rights, and safe migration. Out-of-school girls who participate in non-formal education programs like GATE achieve a basic primary education. This is an extraordinary and life-changing accomplishment for a low-status, illiterate girl, but it is only half the story. Many GATE graduates re-enroll into the formal school system to continue
their education. In 2002, the GATE Program will increase the number of GATE classes for adolescent girls. The program will also pilot work with parents' associations. This new component of the program will look towards the work that World Education has pioneered in Africa to assist in its development. World Education capacity builds and works through a network of non-governmental organizations to implement the program. With funding from private donations, USAID's Regional Anti-Trafficking Initiative, The Oak Foundation, the Claneil Family Foundation and UNICEF in Nepal, GATE continues to expand.

Women Education on New School Program, Egypt⁶⁰ states that one of the greatest obstacles to increasing primary school enrollment in Egypt, particularly for girls, is the limited availability of physical infrastructure, and the financial constraints in meeting the demand for expanded formal school coverage. Problems with lack of classrooms are further compounded by varying levels in the quality of teaching, high student to teacher ratios, a national shortfall in the number of trained teachers, and gender bias. Teachers and facilitators' perception about the roles of women in society can negatively affect the success rates of girls in primary school, especially when they indicate, through their teaching behavior, that boys are more intelligent and academically gifted than girls.

The New School Program (NSP) is aimed at increasing the access to and quality of education for primary school girls in Egypt. World Education

⁶⁰ World Education, New School Program, Egypt, Project, By Sector, World Education, 2001-03.
works in partnership with CARE, EDC, EHAF Consulting Engineers, and Roa for Consultation and Training to help communities to respond to the challenges of education. Our role is to design and conduct training programs that will mobilize community involvement.

CONCLUDING REMARKS:

From the forgoing pages, it can be seen that although number of studies were conducted earlier on various aspects of women's education, no systematic study was conducted on the education of women students at secondary and college levels of Manipur. The present study would throw light on the same with special reference to the development and problems associated with the education of women students at secondary and college levels.