CHAPTER I
INTRODUCTION

Section I. Primary Education in Assam -
A Brief Historical Review
1. Growth Of Education In Assam During Pre-British Period

The present organised system of primary education in Assam, as in the case of any state in India, had been the outcome of British rule in the state. Assam came under the British East India Company in 1826. Prior to that indigenous educational system was prevalent in the state. Elementary education was never organised and systematic because it had been mostly a family affair. As such relevant records on education for that period are difficult to collect. During the Ahom suzerainty a disorganised system of elementary education evolved out of this indigenous practices of education. In this disorganised system, there had been an organised part of it which was mostly based on religion. In India as a whole, at that time, organised system of education was based on religion. This organised part of education was not open to the masses, only the mobility had the privilege to undergo instruction under the Brahmin teacher. For the masses, vocational education with the rudiments of 3 R's was available.

This vocational instruction had been the responsibility of the family-group. Each family-group followed a particular vocation and the experienced members of a particular family gave instruction on the technical knowledge of the vocation with special emphasis on 3 R's to their
own children. These family schools became the nucleus of the elementary school in Assam.

At the advent of Vaisnavism, the Satras, the seats of religious practices, played a very important part in the education of the new converts. "In short, the cultural history of Assam in respect of fine arts, craft education and learning since the beginning of the sixteenth century, till the advent of the British, largely developed centering round the Vaisnava movement which in turn found expression through Satra institutions." By 19th century these institutions declined as educational centres.

2. Growth of Education During The British Period

Though Assam came under the British East India Company in 1826 the final shape of the state took under its rule only in 1857. Practically the British period of education began only from 1857. Missionary activities in Assam started late. The American Baptist Mission came to Assam in 1840. The Baptist Mission started their educational activities in Sibsagar, Gauhati and Nowgong. Theirs were the pioneering activities in the field of elementary education in the state.

Wood's Despatch And After

Under the provision of the Wood's Despatch, 1854, grant-in-aid system was introduced and the post of Director of Public Instruction was created. Many schools were established. But statistical data were not available separately for Assam because Assam was tagged with East Bengal at that time. In 1874 new sub-divisions were created and in each sub-division education expanded under private initiative. The following table shows the number of elementary schools existed in Assam and East Bengal at that time.

**TABLE NO. 1'1**
Number of schools in 1907 - 1908 *

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Schools</th>
<th>Government</th>
<th>Non-Government</th>
<th>Enrolment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Middle Vernacular</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>2507</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(-)</td>
<td>( 4 )</td>
<td>( 249 )**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>2633</td>
<td>10,3703</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(2)</td>
<td>( 190 )</td>
<td>(4809)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Education expanded during the period mainly under private venture. Education during Diarchy under the


** Figures within brackets indicate girls education.**
provision of the Act, 1919 did not expand under public initiative. But under the impact of the Freedom Movement education in Assam as in other parts of India expanded under private initiative. The following table shows the increase of primary schools during the period under review.

TABLE NO. 1'2
Progress of primary education in Assam during 1921-1932

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years</th>
<th>No. of schools</th>
<th>Enrolment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1921-22</td>
<td>3711</td>
<td>148987</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(343)</td>
<td>(23184)**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1931-32</td>
<td>5891</td>
<td>270490</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(623)</td>
<td>(49265)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The above figures included unrecognised schools. Girls education also received great impetus. Institutions for girls education increased. And co-education at all levels was accepted. For the grown-ups and married women zemana schools were set up in some places.

Beginning Of Government Initiative

The Assam Elementary Education Act was passed in 1926 and this was the first official act passed on

* Source - Ibid
** - Ibid
elementary education in Assam. Under the provisions of
the Act elementary education was made free and compul-
sory in the areas where the local authorities decided to
introduce free and compulsory education. The local author-
ity was entrusted with the responsibility of appointment
of teachers, maintenance of schools, enrolment, subject
to the approval of the Deputy Inspector of Schools. But
the local bodies failed to carry on the responsibility
entrusted on them. Economic depression of the thirties
also affected the progress of education in Assam. During
1932 to 1937 the progress had been at a low rate.

TABLE NO. 13
Progress of primary education in Assam during 1932-1937.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years</th>
<th>No. of schools</th>
<th>Enrolment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1932-33</td>
<td>5891</td>
<td>270490</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1937-38</td>
<td>6795</td>
<td>321628</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Besides these there were about 869 un-
recognised schools both secondary and primary with an
enrolment of 36807. During this period about 39743 girls
attended boys primary schools. But girls education
attracted the attention of general public. Girls schools
rose from 632 in 1932 to 793 in 1937 and enrolment from

* Source - Ibid
27,035 in 1932 to 28,865 in 1937.

Expansion After World War II

Education in Assam was badly affected by the World War II. Freedom Movement of 1942 also affected the progress of education because the attention of general public was diverted to the struggle for independence. The first Congress Ministry of 1937 took steps to expand education. But the efforts were not successful.

**TABLE NO. 1**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years</th>
<th>No. of schools</th>
<th>Enrolment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1937 - 38</td>
<td>6,795</td>
<td>321,628</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1942 - 43</td>
<td>8,595</td>
<td>409,298</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

During 1943 - 47 the local bodies were made fully responsible for primary education. In urban areas Municipality Boards and in rural areas Local Boards were connected with expansion of elementary education in Assam. The then Congress Government in Assam decided to introduce Basic Education in the state in 1938. A few basic schools

* Source - Ibid
were established and teachers were trained. But basic education at the elementary level as the state policy was taken only in 1954. So basic education did not spread much during the period under review.

During 1942 to 1947 the progress of education had been slow as may be seen from the table below.

**TABLE NO. 1'5**

Progress of primary education in Assam during 1942 - 1947*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years</th>
<th>No. of schools</th>
<th>Enrolment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1942 - 43</td>
<td>8595</td>
<td>409298</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1946 - 47</td>
<td>9884</td>
<td>506056</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3. Growth Of Education During Post Independence Period

**Assam Compulsory Education Act 1947**

The first compulsory education act in Assam after independence was passed in 1947, which is known as Assam Compulsory Education Act,1947. Under the provisions of the Act compulsory education was introduced in 10 towns 1384 villages for the age group 6 to 11 years. Compulsory

* Source - Ibid
education was not introduced in the hill districts of the state. The control of the primary school was transferred from the local bodies to the regional boards. For convenience of administration each district was sub-divided into regions known as educational sub-divisions and each sub-division was placed under a Deputy Inspector of Schools. In these regions "Regional School Boards" were constituted with the Deputy Inspector as the secretary and a nominated unofficial chairman and few nominated members. Elementary education expanded under the administration of the regional boards.

TABLE NO. 1'6

Primary education in Assam in 1947-48 *

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No. of schools</th>
<th>Boys</th>
<th>Girls</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No. of pupils</td>
<td>Boys</td>
<td>407621</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No. of teachers</td>
<td>Men</td>
<td>9151</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A satisfactory progress had been made in the field of primary education after the introduction of the Compulsory Education Act, 1947.

* Source - Ibid
Basic Education Act, 1954

Basic education was initiated in Assam as early as 1938 but finally introduced by the Basic Education Act, 1954. All the primary schools were converted into junior basic schools, teacher training schools were set-up to train the teacher in basic education, the Regional Elementary Education Boards were converted into Regional Basic Education Boards. A state level advisory body was set-up known as the State Advisory Board for Basic Education. A post of Special Officer on basic education was created to organise basic education in the state. Basic education was made free and compulsory. In the sub-divisions where compulsory education was introduced few posts of attendance officers were created for enrolment drive.

Assam Elementary Education Act, 1962

In 1962 Assam Elementary Education Act was passed. Under the provisions of the Act the Regional School Boards were abolished. A State Elementary Education Board was constituted with the Joint Director of Public Instruction as the secretary and the Education Minister as the chairman. At sub-divisional level the Deputy Inspector of Schools became the assistant secretary of the Elementary Education Board. The assistant secretary was assisted by a small advisory
board with nominated members and a chairman. This advisory board became the appointing authority of the elementary school teachers.

4. Present Position Of Primary Education In Assam

Primary education in Assam expanded rapidly since independence which may be seen in the diagrams No.1, No.2, No.3. (PP 12, 13, 14)

A primary school in Assam

Elementary education in Assam consists of two stages - lower primary stage with Junior Basic Schools and upper primary stage in which there are two types of schools - Senior Basic Schools and Middle Vernacular Schools. In the lower primary stage there were five classes prior to the introduction of four-year syllabus since 1973.* In the upper primary school there were eight classes, five classes for the lower primary stage, three classes for upper primary stage. The existing elementary stage of education in Assam may be seen in the diagram No.14 (PP 15)

There are independent primary schools with five classes which follow the primary school syllabus.

In the M.V. or Senior Basic Schools the lower five classes

* After the introduction of four year primary syllabus in 1973 the 5th class had been gradually abolished by 1977.
Growth of primary schools in Slesum from 1947/48 to 1972/73.
Growth of enrolment in Assam (age group 6-11) from 1947/48 to 1972/73.
FIGURE NO. 3

Growth of teachers in primary schools in Assam.

Total teacher
Woman teacher
Man teacher
Elementary stage of Education in Assam. 1973/74.

Elementary stage of Education.

Structure of a M.Y. School.

Structure of a Lower Primary school known as a junior Basic School.

FIGURE NO. 4
are primary classes which follow the primary syllabus but
the upper three classes are upper primary classes which
follow the middle school syllabus.

Teacher pupil ratio in the primary school in Assam

In a primary school in Assam the general
norm is to have one teacher for 40 pupils - the teacher
pupil ratio is 1 : 40. But the total enrolment in a
primary school varies from place to place depending on
the total population of that particular locality. As such
there are in Assam, primary schools with an enrolment as
high as five hundred or more and as low as twenty or less.
Though five teachers for five classes is the ideal norm,
the number of teachers varies depending on the total enrol-
ment. So there are one-teacher schools, two-teacher schools,
three-teacher schools and four-teacher schools which involve
multiple-class teaching.

Teaching staff of a primary school

Primary education in Assam is co-educational; there are few girls primary schools which are the remi-
niscence of the growth of girls education in the wake of
Freedom Movement in the early twenties. In these girls pri-
mary schools, the teaching staff generally consists of
women teachers. A woman teacher may be posted in a single
teacher school. But she is not posted in a single
teacher school permanently. A teacher may change the school on transfer. In the rest of the schools the teaching staff consists of both men and women. Appointment to a primary school is made through open competition. There is no special reservation of posts for women teachers. Though in recent years, the state government has taken up a policy to appoint more and more women teachers in the primary school. The head of the school is appointed on seniority basis. The entry of women teachers to the primary school is a recent phenomenon, as such not many senior women teachers are available for promotion to a head teachership. So there are very few head mistresses in the primary school in Assam.

Qualifications of a primary school teacher

At present the minimum qualifications prescribed for a primary school teacher are high school final examination pass, formerly known as the Matriculation examination, and junior basic training certificate course pass. But prior to 1962, the minimum qualifications were lower than what they are at present. An M.V.School prepared teachers for a primary school. These teachers were trained in a Normal School. A Normal School is the earliest teacher training institution of the state.

But education at the primary level expanded tremendously during the Second Five Year Plan. Primary
schools in the state grew from 9144 to 16961 in 1960 - 61 and the numbers of teachers from 10015 to 27980 in 1960-61. The demand for teachers increased to a great extent. The existing M.V. Schools which prepared teachers for primary level failed to cope with the growing demands. The M.V. Schools follows a eight-year syllabus, five years lower primary and three years upper primary. To meet the growing demands for teachers, a person having three years schooling in a secondary school was taken to be equivalent to an M.V. passed teacher. Of course, an M.V. school follows a higher standard of syllabus with advanced Mathematics and advanced language, as compared to a secondary school syllabus. In this way non-Matriculate and non-M.V. passed teachers were appointed in the primary schools. After the Second Plan period, the minimum qualifications for a primary school teacher had been raised to Matriculation pass.*

Teacher training

As stated earlier a primary school teacher was trained in the Normal School. But prior to 1960 - 61 there

* In subsequent discussions in the present study, the academic qualification of the sample will be stated as Matriculate or non-Matriculate for convenience of reference.
were only two Normal Schools in Assam. After the introduction of Basic Education in Assam in 1954, the Basic Training Centres were established in the state. There are at present 23 Basic Training Centres, one Basic Training College and five Normal Schools. The Basic Training Centres train the teachers of the lower Primary school and the others train the teachers for the upper Primary stage.

As stated earlier, untrained non-Matriculate teachers had been appointed in large numbers during the period between 1952 to 1960-61. The Department of Education of the state had taken up the responsibility to train the primary school teachers at the newly set-up Basic Training Centres. Teachers are sent to undergo training to the Centres on deputation.

Administrative Set-up Of Education Department In Assam

Early history

The Education Department was set-up in Assam in 1874 with the Director of Public Instruction as the head of the department. The district level administration was set-up with the Inspector of Schools as the district level officer. From records available in the office of the D.P.I., Assam it is seen that there were
three Inspectors of Schools, nine Deputy Inspectors of Schools, and 14 Sub-Inspectors of Schools in Assam in 1932.

Present set-up

The administrative set-up of the Education Department in the state has grown in bulk and complexity in recent years. The diagram in page 467 presents the picture of the administrative set-up of the state as it was in 1973-74.

Administrative set-up at the district level

At the district level, there is a district Inspector of Schools for each revenue district of the state. The district Inspector of Schools is in charge of the secondary education of the district and is under the control of the D.P.I., Assam. The Inspector of Schools is assisted by one Assistant Inspector of Schools and one Assistant Inspectress of Schools.

For the elementary stage of education each district has been subdivided into educational sub-divisions taking the revenue sub-division as a unit and each sub-division is placed under one Deputy Inspector of Schools who is entirely responsible for the elementary education under his jurisdiction. The Deputy Inspector of Schools is assisted by an Additional Deputy Inspector of Schools who is in charge of the Middle School. There are several
Sub-Inspectors of Schools under each Deputy Inspector of Schools, who are the actual field workers in the field of primary education. The Deputy Inspector of Schools depends on the Sub-Inspector of Schools in matters of appointment, promotion and transfer of teachers, release of grants to schools and setting up of new schools. The Sub-Inspector of Schools is mainly responsible for the supervision and inspection of the primary school. The Deputy Inspector of Schools is directly under control of the Joint D.P.I. so far as the educational matters are concerned, but in administratively he is under the control of the D.P.I., Assam.

5. The Role Of The Woman Teacher In The Primary School

For the progress of girls education the role of the woman teacher in the primary school cannot be undervalued. The National Committee on Women's Education (1958-59) had recommended special programmes and efforts to increase enrolment of girls. One of these recommendations was appointment of more women teachers in the primary level. The Indian Education Commission (1964-65) also recommended that appointment of women teachers at the primary stage would increase the enrolment of girls. The National Committee of the Status of Women in India (1975) also recommended that more women teachers might be appointed in rural schools to increase
the enrolment of girls and to check wastage in girls education. Better facilities such as residential, medical, educational and financial for women teachers may be provided to encourage them to serve in rural schools.

It is also accepted that a woman makes a better teacher in a primary school. With her tender and affectionate attitude she can go deep into the minds of a young learner. She can be a substitute for the mother whom a young learner leaves at home when he comes to school. A woman teacher can break the prejudice of many a society in India against girls education.

After the introduction of Assam Elementary Education Act, 1962, Government of Assam took up a policy to appoint more women in the primary school of the state. There were 4063 women teachers in the primary school in Assam in 1961-62 as against 23917 men teachers. The figure rose to 5932 in 1972-73 as against 29460 men teachers. More women have been increasingly appointed in the primary school of the state since 1962 but the need for making a special study of the working conditions of the women teachers has not been realised so far by the education authorities or by the educational thinkers of the state.
Section II . The Need For The Study On The Working Woman In Assam
1. The Purpose Of The Study

It is widely accepted that education is the means through which economic growth commensurate with the national development of any country may be aimed at. It is recognised that a well-planned education system is the prime requisite for the development of human resources of a nation, it is also recognised that the development of human resources of a nation does not so much rest with the physical facilities adequately provided, but it rests mainly with the human element connected with the educational system. The most important part of the human element in an educational system as may well be realised, is the teacher. The teacher is the person who can to a great extent make or mar any educational system of the state. The ultimate success of an educational system depends on the teacher who handles it. But "in no country is the esteem in which teachers are held commensurate with the appreciation of and faith in Education." 1

Teaching is held as the oldest occupation of the world and it has the highest contributions towards the economic development of a nation. Yet it has taken a long time to emerge as a profession. A profession generally takes the responsibilities for the competence of its

members and checks the entry of incompetent persons without vocational preparation into its folds. For such restrictions the competence of the members of a particular profession has least chance to deteriorate and the layman dare not to question the effectiveness of the services of the members of that particular profession. It may be admitted that vocational preparation of teachers was not rigid and methodical and entry into the teaching was not difficult for an untrained person. Educational expansion in any country demands more teachers, but limited educational facilities cannot provide qualified persons to meet that growing demand during the period of expansion. Consequently persons may get into teaching without vocational preparation at the call of the demand. But after the educational expansion is consolidated teaching as a strict discipline emerges and takes its professional status. Because of low qualifications and lack of vocational preparation of the teachers and large supply of such persons the salary-scale of the teacher is not as high as compared to other professions. The comparatively low salary-scales also lowers the professional status of a teacher. With a low professional status the teacher fails to earn a social estimation. The qualifications for entrance into teaching have been gradually raised, teacher preparation programmes have been increasingly made more methodical, more scientific and efforts have been made to increase the economic status of the teacher by raising the salary-scales.
and by introducing fringe benefits. Such efforts have raised the present status of the teacher no doubt, still the teacher occupies a lower position in the professional strata of a society.

Leaving the international scene apart, in the national sphere it is known that the first vocation ever taken up by women was teaching, the second being medicine. Today school teaching is one of the few vocations in which there are large number of women. The number of women teachers have been increasing over the years. In 1947 only 14.4 percent of the school teachers were women. In 1973-74 their proportion had increased to 26 percent in primary schools, 37 percent in middle schools, and 30 percent in secondary schools. In the universities and colleges the proportion of women teachers increased from 8.5 percent in 1950-51 to 15 percent in 1970-71.** This is all about the national scene.

Coming to the state level, it is seen that the number of women teachers in the school have been increasing since independence. But prior to 1947-48 there was no systematic record regarding the number of teachers.

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* Cf. The Educated women in Indian Society today. Y.W.C.A., Bombay, 1971

** Source - Report on the National Committee on the Status of Women in India, 1975.
working at different levels of education. Even the Educational Survey of Assam, 1957 did not contain any information regarding the teachers serving in the state. It shows that, though everybody had been much concerned about the expansion of education in the state nobody had felt for the teachers who had been serving in the school. Teachers were left unnoticed and unrecorded. In 1947 the number of women teachers in the primary stage of education had been 8.62 percent, in the middle stage 12.2 percent and in the secondary stage 12.3 percent. The corresponding figures during 1973-74 had been 17 percent in the primary stage, 11.2 percent in the middle stage and 11.4 percent in the secondary stage.* In the national scene there had been a fall in the number of women teachers at the primary stage but rise in the middle and the secondary stage. But in the state level there had been an increase in the primary level and decreases in the middle and the secondary levels. As stated by the National Committee on the Status of Women in India (1975) several factors have been responsible for the decrease of women teachers in the primary level of education. The causes are (1) the urban teachers do not like to go to the rural school because of the resistance from the family,(2) the fear of insecurity in

the village, (3) the lack of physical amenities such as accommodation, schooling, transport and medical facilities. The same reasons are applicable in the middle and the secondary levels of education in Assam. In the primary level there has been an increase in the proportion of women teachers. But most of these teachers are in the urban schools though they are mostly from rural areas.

Whether the women teachers are in the urban school or in the rural school, the fact remains that the number of women teachers in the primary school of Assam has increased in absolute numbers and in proportion to the total number of teachers. (Cf Diagram No. 3 P 14)

Given at a table the rate of growth of the primary school teacher in the state of Assam since independence is as follows:

**TABLE NO. 1'7**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years</th>
<th>Man</th>
<th>Woman</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Percentage of woman to the total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1947 - 48</td>
<td>9151</td>
<td>864</td>
<td>10015</td>
<td>8.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1950 - 51</td>
<td>15187</td>
<td>1977</td>
<td>17164</td>
<td>11.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1960 - 61</td>
<td>22674</td>
<td>3680</td>
<td>26354</td>
<td>13.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1970 - 71</td>
<td>27517</td>
<td>5444</td>
<td>32961</td>
<td>16.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1972 - 73</td>
<td>29460</td>
<td>5982</td>
<td>35442</td>
<td>17.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

About 17 percent of the primary school teachers in Assam were women in 1972-73. The corresponding figure for 1947-48 was only 8.62 percent which included the state of Meghalaya and the Union Territory of Mizoram which were two districts of Assam. Meghalaya and Mizoram had been separated from Assam in 1972 and 1973 respectively. In twenty-five years the number of women teachers had doubled. In fact the number of women workers had increased in all categories of works in the state during the period under review.

The women employees under the state government as on 31.3.71 were 3560 that is 4.5 percent of the total employees which increased to 3944 (4.2 percent) in 1975. Although there has been an absolute increase in the number of women employees there has been a decrease in the proportionate number from 4.5 percent to 4.2 percent. In the primary school there were 5444 women teachers in 1971 which rose to 6677 in 1974. Though there has been a decrease in the proportion of the woman to the man employee in other fields of government sector, there has been an increase in respect of the primary school teacher. It may be mentioned here that the primary school teachers were not government employees prior to 1975. As such these women teachers were not included under the government employees in 1971 and in
1975 as noted above. *

It may be seen that large number of women teachers are there in the primary school of the state. Of the total women teachers in the primary school about 70.06 percent were married in 1972-73. The total number of married women teachers comprised about 12.73 percent of the total working force at the primary level of education during the year under review. This growth of total number of married women in the primary school is a recent phenomenon. The phenomenon may be due to the increasing demands for women teachers in the primary school and may be due to pressing economic necessity of the present age or may be due to both the reasons.

Another reason may be that married women no longer find it difficult to work outside in spite of their married life.

The educated married woman is increasingly entering a vocation and her outlook on life, on her own status and role have been changing. But in India the attitude of the other members of the family or a working wife has not changed much. Indian Society is still a traditional society. Society's outlook on life and work is still governed by the traditional ideas. A woman is

still regarded as inferior to a man in the family, in
society, even in the political life. Prejudice against
women entering a vocation still remains strong. Society's
attitude towards the working status of a woman is
different from that of the man. "A man is socially a
complete and independent individual, he is regarded first
of all as a producer whose existence is justified by the
work he does for the group, we have seen why it is that
the reproductive and domestic role to which a woman is
confined has not guaranteed her an equal dignity."1 What
is true of a modern western society is equally true of
an Assamese society which is still more tradition bound.
Not to speak of a low paid primary school teacher, even
high officials " fail to draw from it the same social
benefits as do men."2

Again in the choice of the profession a
woman is bound by certain conditions. As Caplow (1970)
said, "The occupations which women are able to enter freely
are those which have low prestige and poor working condi-
tions or are associated in some way with home and house
work."3 Whether the working conditions are favourable or

   New York, 1961, p 401
2. Ibid
   Book Depot, Allahabad, 1970, p 246
not, whether the social outlook has changed or not one fact is clear that married women are coming out of home for gainful jobs out-of-home and this employment out-of-home has considerably changed their own outlook on life as a whole, which has affected the family structure of a working wife. For a happy combination of both the roles, the role of a wife and mother and the role of a working woman, the teacher must be able to adjust herself with her husband, and with other members of the family. One-sided adjustment will not deliver the goods. The husband must change his outlook, the members of the family must change their outlook, even the employer must change his outlook on the role and status of a working wife.

Many studies have been made in other countries on the working conditions of the married woman. But these studies have not been made in the Indian context. Entry of large number of married women in the primary school teaching must have some impact on the total social change which has already set in as a result of newly acquired freedom with its consequent developmental programmes for the nation as a whole. But to sustain the change in the social order in the right direction certain behavioural changes on the part of its members are necessary. A married woman teacher directly comes in contact with her husband, with the members of her family and with
her employer. It is doubtful whether behavioural changes on the part of the husband, the members of her family and the employer have already taken place. In this changed situation the husband is expected to realise that the wife has to take up the increased responsibilities for the sake of the family or may be for her own sake, the family must realise that the working woman needs its help and cooperation to be able to carry on her dual role which she has taken up for its benefit, the employer must encourage the woman teacher to come forward to take up teaching in the primary school who will be an asset to the department itself.

Indian society has certain special features not to be found in any society elsewhere. Some of the special features are the joint family system, the caste system and ethical views on life and work. In Assamese society, being less exposed to modern outlook on life, less urbanised and less industrialised outlook on life and work is far more tradition bound as compared to the industrialised and urbanised states of India. For example, the joint family system is found even in the urban areas which is practically absent in industrialised urban societies in which large number of working women are to be found. Outlook on marriage and family life has not changed much. Social mobility is practically absent in Assam which
indicates stagnated social outlook.

Again family welfare services are very meagre in the state which are expected to educate the working wife on her role and status both as a wife and mother and as a teacher. Guidance on family life is also not available in the state. The most conspicuous absence is the vocational guidance facilities for a girl in the school. The old concepts on the role and status of a wife need some modifications. At least, those concepts which are detrimental to the development of the newly acquired economic freedom and social status of a woman. Favourable concepts may be evolved which would help the heavily burdened working wife to seek guidance to enable herself to combine the two roles happily and successfully. In the absence of such agencies to educate and to guide the woman to enable her to adjust herself in the new situation the working wife must have faced certain difficulties and problems which must have disturbed the family life of the working wife and the social set up in Assam. The purpose of the present study is to find out these problems and difficulties of the working wife in the primary schools under the following three broad fields:

Social
Economic and
Professional
2. The Objectives Of The Study

With this purpose in view the present study had been taken up to investigate into the problems of the married woman teacher with the following objectives:

(1) Why does a married woman join teaching in a primary school?

(2) Is she satisfied with her profession?

(3) Has she been able to carry on her dual-role successfully?

(4) What are the problems and difficulties faced by the married woman teacher in carrying out her dual-role successfully?

(5) To suggest measures for improvement of the present working conditions of a married woman teacher on the basis of the findings of the present study.
3. General Statement Of The Problem

As stated earlier, for a woman to come out of the four walls of the family to take up gainful employment, is a recent phenomenon. Education for the girl has expanded as an impact of the democratic ideal accepted by modern India. Expansion of education has an impact on the position of employment of the woman in the country. As Nye (1963) said, "Education facilitates employment but also is a manifestation of and a stimulation to the achievement motivation." He further stated that money is also the motivating factor for many women to go for paid jobs. In India, women started coming out of their homes in large numbers only after the Second World War. Since then the number of working women has been increasing every year. Such an influx of women in the job market is the result of two factors, expansion of girls education and pressing economic need of the post war period. There are women working in government offices, in schools, in public or private firms and in other private professions.

The phenomenon that a large number of women are employed in paid jobs and as such away from home for long hours during the day, has greatly affected the social and family life of an individual. This phenomenon may be

regarded as a great social change in India. Till the recent years there was strict division of labour between a man and a woman. The field of activities for a man is out of home while for a woman within the four walls of the family. The main responsibility of a woman is to rear children, to attend to the man, in fact to look after the entire family, to wait upon it for its needs and comforts. To earn for the family is the sole responsibility of a man, the wife is never expected to go for extra-domestic job to support the family or to supplement the income of the family. But a social change has set in. The expansion of education among girls has changed the achievement motivation in them. They want to go for remunerative jobs to utilise their education, to come into contact with a new social life outside the family and for the pressing economic necessity. As Shushilla Nayer (1971) said, "The present economic situation in the country is, however, such that even if it is not proper for women to step out of home and take up jobs, even if women themselves are reluctant to do so, the rising cost of living would compel them to take to outside work."

Whether due to economic necessity or the changed attitude on the part of the woman, this section of society has been

increasingly coming out of home for gainful employment.

A competitive economic life resulted by technological
advancement along with the development of democratic ideals
encourages the woman of urban society to professional career. Rapid urbanisation also encourages the village woman to take part in economic as well as social activities of the nation. There has been a change of outlook so far as the equality and independence of the woman are concerned. The Constitution of India has granted equal rights to the woman in all fields of life, economic, social, and political. Under the impact of independence movement in the country, the Indian woman had been liberalised and the emancipation of the woman had been realised by society. This novel realisation on the part of society and the newly acquired economic independence as a result of gainful employment out-of-home have changed the outlook of the woman on her own role and status. The changed outlook of the woman has affected the social outlook to a great extent. But this has not affected the attitude of the man to the desirable extent. The attitude of the man on his own role and status in the family has not changed much. As such there must be attitudinal imbalance between the wife and the husband. Such imbalances must have created clashes and conflicts in the family. Indian woman has acquired new socio-economic status which has affected
her outlook on her own privileges and responsibilities. This socio-economic change has affected the position of the woman in society to a great extent. She is not only a wife and mother in the family, she is an economic asset of the family. But the socio-economic change of the new era has not affected the position of the man in the family to the extent it has affected the position of the woman. Though the educated woman is expected to earn for the family, yet the husband is not expected to help her in her domestic activities. As stated by Dube (1970) the norms of intra-family relationship may be either complementary as between brothers and sisters and daughters-in-law, or symmetrical as between daughter-in-law and brothers and sisters or reciprocal as between married sisters and brothers and in course of time between the daughters-in-law. But it is doubtful, if the present relationship between a husband and a wife could be fit into any of these of norms. The household chores are a must for the wife and even for the working wife there is no escape from these. As stated by Hate (1969) the double role of a woman is still not fully recognised by Indian society. The reason may be found in the report of IWW (1965)

When economic needs are important they weaken the hold of tradition and even result in a search for means of lightening the burden of women with children or of helping them to return to professional life once home responsibilities decrease. On the other hand, when there is economic
stagnation, it is hard for women to gain the right to full development of their personality. Women themselves are hampered and intimidated by myths that retain their full impact and negative forces.

The two responsibilities that a working woman has to bear make her tired. Unless the husband and the other members of the family are considerate enough to help her in her household chore, the working wife is bound to carry on her dual responsibility singlehanded. She suffers from both physical and mental fatigue. Even though the husband lends a helping hand, the larger part of the work is to be carried out by the wife. But inspite of the fact that the dual role exerts tremendous pressure on a woman, both physical and mental, the number of working women has been increasing day by day. Can it be taken as an indirect proof to show that women workers have been able to combine the two roles successfully? Kapur writes "The very fact that the number of married working woman is increasing indicates that they have been able to combine their two roles - home and work." Montague also upholds the same view (1954),"for a married woman to be gainfully employed out side the home is in no

way incompatible with her being a good wife and a good mother, millions of married working women constitute living proof of the contrary. An Indian woman to-day enjoys equal rights and privileges with a man. Along with these rights and privileges come duties and responsibilities. An Indian woman to-day is expected to carry out these responsibilities successfully. To be a wife is her responsibility and to be a working wife is her privilege with its added responsibility. The present problem of the married woman is to harmonise these two roles.

"To be a successful wife is a career in itself, if a woman chooses another career she has to reconcile between the two roles in order to bring about harmony within herself." Our primary school teachers are academically poor, they come mostly from low-income group of families. Their primary aim as a working woman is to increase family income. Most of them do not have any high hope of improving their professional qualifications and thereby to go high up in their career. A large number of qualified men are without jobs, because a large number


of women have been entering the profession. This group of women must be, and quite naturally so, dissatisfied because these women are employed in the school. This has created a clash between the working wife and the unemployed youth. Women teachers generally do not get a congenial atmosphere in the school where they serve. This state of affair must have caused a conflict between the woman teacher and the man teacher. The family has not changed much. There has been very little attitudinal change in the other members of the family of a working wife. A working wife is not free from household chores. Again, the social change, that married women are employed out-of-home to add to family income, has not changed the traditional outlook of the man on the status, rights and abilities of a woman. So the woman teacher comes into conflict with the traditional society. There is no institution to educate our working woman in matters of household duties, how to minimise physical labour without affecting the total household necessity and how to economise time without affecting the total comfort necessary for the family. Over and above these, the traditional superstitions are there to inhibit a wife and a mother. All these factors must have made the life of a working wife both in the professional field and in the family tiresome. "The attainment of goal of a marriage requires 'self-negation' and cooperation while to be successful in the other..."
requires 'self enhancement' and competition. To be successful in both the fields is a great problem because the two fields require diagnostically opposite qualities. The humble primary school teacher with her poor social, economic and professional background is at her wit end in such conflicting situations.

Again the physical background in which the primary school teacher serves is in no way satisfactory. The primary schools are not well organised. Some of the schools are big, some are very small, the teaching staff is not adequate, the class room consists of heterogeneous group of children - heterogeneous in age, ability, standard of attainment, family background. The teacher is not adequately trained to handle all these factors effectively and efficiently. The woman teacher is to struggle hard to teach in such a class with such a group of children. Professional guidance in the school is practically absent. The in-service training which they receive, is not generally put into practice. In the class room as well they are generally tradition bound. Haste (1969) found this situation prevailing in the school in India.

Children are born to a woman teacher, mostly, not in a planned way. So she has to rear a big family with her meagre income. Education in our schools does not teach a girl the economies of family life. Popeace (1970) observed

that many an American College graduate complained bitterly
that, "the schools and colleges prepared me for everything
except what I was actually going to do in life." What is
ture to an American system of education can be equally true
of an Indian system. Family life, education is practically
absent or very much shy in our country. By the time the
teacher realises the problems of a big family she already
plunges herself into the problems never to be relieved of
these. All the factors like a big family, a meagre income,
an uncordial school atmosphere, a tradition bound social
life, tend to make the working woman pessimistic in her
life. Inspite of all the shortcomings in her social, econo-
ic and professional life, the resourceful teacher succeeds.
But due encouragement to this teacher is not forthcoming.
In a man dominated society to go ahead in one's own pro-
essional career, is very difficult for a woman. More so is
the case with a primary school teacher.

Rossi (1964) writes, "able young women students
with high abilities and genuine interests have restricted
their occupational choice while they were in college
believing that a professional career would restrict their
chances to make a good marriage. This notion persists

despite several studies which found no difference in marital
satisfaction between the marriage, where the wife works and

1. Poponee, Paul., Introduction to Marriage And Working
Woman in India. By Pramilla Kapur,
the marriage where the wife stays at home. "1 Studies made by different researchers show that whether the woman stays at home or goes to work the satisfaction in the family life is not affected. Still people have the notion that a working wife does not make a good wife. Mead describes this situation very effectively, "But the more successful a man in his job the more certain every one that he will make a good husband, the more successful the woman is, the most people are afraid she may not be a successful wife."2 That is why highly intelligent and capable woman in the college career does not like to take up gainful employment after she is educated, apprehending that such an out-of-home career would hamper her success as a wife. This is a social waste. Our society has been deprived of the able services of the intelligent and capable women. It is an economic waste as well. The expenditure incurred in educating a woman of such a calibre does not in return contribute to the national development in tangible terms.

The young learners in the school are to be educated in a line which will enable them to combine happily the two roles open to a woman as a result of the emerging social change. The present society is to be educated in the same line to enable it to realise that a woman can combine

1. Rossi, Alice S., A Good Woman is Hard to Find. 'Transaction', Community Leadership Project of Washington University, Nov-Dec, 1964 , P 12.

the two roles successfully if congenial atmosphere prevails.
A little attitudinal change on the part of society will help a woman to attain the goals of marriage and work simultaneously. A large number of primary school teachers have been rendering services to the cause of education of the state. But it is doubtful if their services have been recognised, their problems have been realised by society adequately. Are they satisfied with their job? Have they been able to combine their two roles successfully? What are their problems in social, economic and professional life? What attitudinal change is necessary on the part of society in the present context? The present study is designed to study these questions.

4. Related Studies On Working Woman

Studies on the problems of married working women are mostly recent. The earliest study done by LaFollette in 1934 was published in a journal, "Teachers College Contribution to Education", in which he studied the problems of married women workers and found that a great satisfaction prevailed in a family where the husband and the wife worked, because the economic burden was divided between the two. Havemann and West conducted a comparative study in 1952 in which they found that a large number of divorce cases were found in the American society where both the pair worked.
These two were diagnostically opposite findings. LaFollette's view was endorsed by Bowmann in his study which he did in 1954. Bowmann found that a better understanding prevailed in a family where both the husband and the wife were engaged in gainful employment. Another important study was done by Jephcott, Seer and Smith in 1962 in which they found that a working wife was in no way threatening to good relations in married life. Rossi also endorsed the same view in her study, "A good woman in hard to find." (1964)

There are other studies which found no difference between the marital adjustment of wives who are employed and that of those who are not employed. Locke and Mackeprang conducted a study on this problem in 1949 in which they found "no significant difference between the marital adjustment of wives who are engaged in full time employment and that of those who are engaged in full time home-making was found in this study." (Cf Kapur, 1970)

In India, the problem of married working woman is of much recent origin. As such the problem has attracted the attention of the social scientist only recently. The reasons are not far to be seen. As explained by Kapur (1970) marital adjustment was not considered to be a problem in tradition bound Indian society. Marriage was and still is considered to be a sacrament. Husband and
wife were expected to accept a married life in all eventualities as inevitable. Marriage was a social function and as such individual interest did not come into forefront. Because of such a concept of marriage, marital adjustment did not appear to be a problem.

Again the traditional joint family system provided facilities for marital adjustment. Ross (1961) stated that in a joint family husband and wife need not remain maritally unsatisfied because there are other choices of company among the members of the family. So marital adjustment did not appear as an acute problem.

Moreover, husband and wife in a Hindu family accepted the status assigned to them by the social system. Each one in the family was expected to play a definite role and to bear some specific responsibilities. A man and a woman were expected to perform the duties allotted to each of them. There was no question of competition to achieve superiority on each other. Cormack (1961) wrote that the absence of such competition facilitated marital adjustment in Indian families.

The traditional values of the Indian family also paved the way for a harmonious family. A wife was never expected to be independent of a husband, her role and responsibility were so defined that she could not but accept her married life as it was. At the same time, a
married woman was never out-of-home to earn for the family. A man was the sole bread winner of the family. The traditional view which considered a man to be superior to his opposite sex had assigned to a woman a subordinate status in society. The question of economic independence of a woman did not arise. She had no separate social status. Education, to which a woman had equal access, had been withdrawn from her gradually. In this way the position of a woman in the family became a nonentity. So her problems in her family as well as in her family life were of no concern to anybody.

But this situation had changed which Dube described in the following words:

Increasing association with the values of modern science and thoughts has brought about considerable change in the thinking of the educated section about the position of women. Educated women can assert their claims for equality and gain at least partial acceptance for them. Prejudice against women entering the professions and services still persists, but many in urban areas are beginning to recognise it as inevitable. This trend towards the relative economic independence of women is viewed with a degree of ambivalence by many men even some of them western educated.

Spread of education as a result of acceptance of democratic ideal as well as the impact of technological change, have brought about a social change which has defi-

nitely changed the outlook of the woman on her role and status. The socio-economic changes have greatly affected the educated woman of the middle class families. (Kapur, 1970). The Indian woman today enjoys equal legal and political rights, gets equal opportunities for education and to express her own views just like a man. As a result of this socio-economic change, her way of feeling, thinking, looking at things, willing and doing of things must have also been affected (Newcomb and Parsons, cf. Kapur, 1970). Her traditional role and status must have been affected due to this change of outlook. When her own outlook regarding her own role and status as a wife and as a mother has changed, this change must have affected her attitude towards her husband, his role, his status and his responsibilities.

Such a change in the socio-economic life of Indian society though affects the woman to a great extent has not affected the man in particular and the Indian society in general to that desirable extent. As a result of which some sort of conflict has emerged in the Indian family in the recent years. This conflict has attracted the attention of Indian social scientists. In the University School of Economics and Sociology, Bombay, Hate (1930-1946), Desai (1945), Merchant (1930) carried out studies to find out the process of attitudinal change of the woman in India at the wake of socio-economic change in the country.
The studies revealed that the sacramental attitude towards marriage and its religious base had been gradually fading away. The interest of the persons involved in the marriage and their personal considerations had been gaining ground. In her study on educated working women, Kapur (1960) found that educated working women desired to have a relationship with their husbands quite different from that of their mothers and grandmothers. They desired that the relationship might be that of a co-partnership instead of subjugation on the part of the wife. A marriage by choice was preferred to an arranged one. They became conscious of their privileges. This study revealed that a great change had taken place in the attitude of women towards marriage and family life. But inspite of the changing attitude of women "influenced by the equalitarian ethos, the traditional authoritarian and male dominated set-up of the Hindu social structure confines to be basically the same." Though old forces are dying, new forces have not yet replaced them totally. There is "conflict not only between generations but also between the sexes. Fortunately there are no immutable standards in the organisation of social structure. Each society has to change its pattern keeping in view the elements that constitute political, economic and cultural change. No single one of these elements could be isolated.

If people chooses to follow a certain pattern which requires the emancipation of woman, then this emancipation must come about."¹

Emancipation of woman in India is no longer a problem. Man and woman are equal in all respects at least in the eye of law. But in the sphere of occupation woman has to face some problems even to day. There is still a question - should a woman come out of home to be gainfully employed? Neera Desai observed that, "women do not always work to escape responsibility in the home or to be aggressively feminist and deprive men of their jobs."²

But inspite of all opposition and ambivalent outlook of society educated women in India have been coming out to take up vocations to choose a career in their life. Of all the vocations, teaching is the main vocation which attracted the largest number of educated women in India. Out of these teachers, the largest number is employed in the primary school. In 1961 forty three percent of the total working graduates in India were teachers. In a primary school graduates are not appointed. They are all Matriculates or equivalent or even below that. If the primary school teachers are counted the total percentage of working woman at that time must have been higher. As stated earlier


17 percent of the total primary school teachers in Assam are women. Inspite of all the stigma, all the opposition and the criticism they are there in the school serving the cause of education in the state. No study has yet been made to find out their working conditions and their problems in social, economic and professional life. As such this present study has been undertaken.
Section III. The Study Design
1. Delimitation Of The Study

(i) The district

The study was confined to the district of Sibsagar of Assam. There are ten districts in Assam, eight plain districts and two hill districts. Sibsagar is one of the biggest districts of the state. The geographical boundaries of the district are as follows. The mighty Brahmaputra is on the north, who enfolds a part of the district in its two folds, Dibrugarh district on its east, the state of Nagaland on the south and Mikir Hills district and Nongpoh district on the west.

(a) Area and population of the district

The total population of the state of Assam was 146.25 lakhs with an area of 78,523 sq. kilometres as per census of 1971. In respect of area Sibsagar district ranked fifth place and in respect of population the district ranked fourth place amongst the districts of the state. (Cf. Appendix II, TABLE NO. 1'8)

The density of population of the state of Assam was 186 per sq.km. as per census of India 1971. According to density of population Sibsagar district ranked fifth place, the figure being 204 persons per sq.km. The total population of the district according to 1961 census was
15,08,390 and the sex ratio was 865 women per 1000 males. The percentage variation of the total population from 1961 to 1971 had been +21.81. The sex ratio of the district increased from 865 in 1961 to 886 in 1971. The percentage variation of the total population for the state as a whole had been +34.94 and the sex ratios for 1961 and 1971 had been 872 and 897 respectively. Both the percentage variation of the total population and sex ratio of the district had been lower than that for the state as a whole.

As per census of 1971 in the whole state of Assam 72.51 percent of the population were Hindus, 24.56 percent were Muslims, 2.61 were Christians and the rest (0.32 percent) belonged to other religious communities. According to castes, 6.24 percent of the population belonged to the scheduled caste and 10.09 percent belonged to scheduled tribes. The districtwise distribution of the total population may be seen in TABLE NO.10. Appendix II.

(b) Rate of literacy in the district

Out of the ten districts Sibsagar district has been enjoying the highest position in the state so far as the rate of literacy is concerned. (Cf. TABLE NO. 1.12 Appendix II). The rate of literacy of Sibsagar district had been all the time high in respect of both man and
woman through the decades. The rate of literacy of Sibsagar district as per census, 1971, had been the highest in the state. It enjoyed a better position in comparison to the country as a whole so far as the rate of literacy was concerned. The all India rate of literacy for male was 39.5 percent and for female was 18.7 percent, the same for the district of Sibsagar had been 44.4 percent for male and 27.9 percent for female. Though there had been a very little increase in the rate of literacy in Assam during 1951 to 1971, the rate of literacy among women showed a marked increase. The rate of literacy in Assam for women increased from 15.1 percent in 1961 to 18.6 percent in 1971 while in case of man there had been a slight fall from 37.3 percent in 1961 to 36.7 percent in 1971. The phenomenon showed that women education in Assam had expanded at a higher rate during the decade.

(c) Working force

According to 1971 census the total workers in Assam were 40.88 lakhs. The number of workers in 1961 were 46.09 lakhs. There had been certain changes in the definition of workers and non-workers in 1971 as such the percentage of workers to the total population 42.5 percent in 1961 fell to 27.9 percent in 1971. Out of these total of 40.88 lakhs of workers cultivators and agricultural labourer
constituted 65.8 percent, workers in manufacturing industry 2.8 percent, in trade and commerce 5.7 percent. The break up of the total workers in the state was 48.88 percent for man and 5.4 percent for woman. The district wise break up of workers and non-workers, both man and woman, may be seen in TABLE NO. 1'13 Appendix II.

Of the plains districts Sibsagar had the highest percentage of women workers, (9.06 percent) followed by Lakhimpur district (8.73 percent). But as regards agricultural labour Mikir Hills had the highest percentage of workers (83.9 percent) while Sibsagar had the lowest percentage (51.1 percent). As regards factory workers Lakhimpur had the highest number (28,173), Sibsagar came next (16,287). The sex-ratio among total population, each category of workers and non-workers for rural and urban areas may be seen in TABLE NO. 1'14 and 1'15 Appendix II.

A large number of these workers belonged to cultivator and agricultural labour categories. The number of government employees in Assam in 1973 were 93.35 thousand while the percentage of the total workers were 28 percent, the break up being 47.7 percent man and 4.5 percent woman. The TABLE NO. 1'16 (p 60) gives the number of state government employees according to status through the years 1960-61 1972 -73.
# TABLE NO. 1\textsuperscript{16}

State government employees for the years 1960-61 to 1972-73 according to status *

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years</th>
<th>Gazetted</th>
<th>Non-Gazetted</th>
<th>Grade IV</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1960</td>
<td>1,771</td>
<td>28,124</td>
<td>25,171</td>
<td>55,066</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1965</td>
<td>2,879</td>
<td>39,423</td>
<td>36,164</td>
<td>78,466</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1968</td>
<td>3,511</td>
<td>42,654</td>
<td>43,690</td>
<td>89,855</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1971</td>
<td>3,796</td>
<td>40,475</td>
<td>35,609</td>
<td>78,880</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1973</td>
<td>5,283</td>
<td>46,530</td>
<td>41,533</td>
<td>93,346</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(figures for 1971 and onwards excluded Meghalaya and Mizoram which were prior to 1971 parts of Assam)

The total public sector employment in Assam increased by 0.9 percent over the previous year. The women employees under government as on 31.3.71 were 3560 which were 4.5 percent of the total employees. The number increased to 3944 (4.2 percent) in 31.3.73.** The employment position in Sibsagar district in 1976 had been as per TABLE NO. 1\textsuperscript{17} and 1\textsuperscript{18} (Appendix II)

The figures as shown in TABLE NO. 1\textsuperscript{17} under private sector excluded a large number of teachers. As mentioned earlier prior to 1975 all the primary schools were non-government institutions excepting a very few

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* Source - Statistical Hand Book, Assam, 1974, Department of Economics and Statistics, Govt. of Assam, Gauhati.

** Source - Cf. page 31.
attached to the teacher training institutions and a few government lower primary and M.V. schools. Out of a total of 1,727 high and higher secondary schools in 1975 only thirty were government, of 2,494 lower secondary schools only twenty six were government.*

In fact primary school teachers constituted the single largest working force in quasi government sector of employment in 1973-74. Out of 74.72 thousand employees under this sector in 1973-74, there were 69,407 teachers serving in primary, middle and secondary schools, the percentage being 93.3 percent. Of these total teachers 9,851 were women teachers, the percentage being 12.7 percent.**

(d) Schools and teachers

In Assam primary schools and primary school teachers have outnumbered the rest of the schools and the teachers serving in the schools. In 1973, there were 35,442 primary teachers in 19,213 schools whereas there were 16,371 teachers in 3,208 junior high schools and 17,694 teachers in 1,499 high and higher secondary schools.***


There has been a tremendous growth of schools education in Assam since independence. (Cf. TABLE NO.1'19 Appendix II)

A large number of women teachers had been working in different categories of schools. Their number had increased since 1947-48 which may be seen in TABLE NO. 1'20 Appendix II. The rate of increase in the total number of teachers of all the categories both man and woman had been phenomenal. The growth of total number of teachers at different levels can be seen from the TABLE NO. 1'21.

TABLE NO. 1'21

Growth of teachers in Assam (in percentage) 1973-74

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stages of Education</th>
<th>Man</th>
<th>Woman</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>221.94</td>
<td>592.36</td>
<td>251.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle</td>
<td>390.22</td>
<td>356.60</td>
<td>88.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>641.42</td>
<td>546.98</td>
<td>590.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Base year 1947-48)

The figures above show that the highest percentage of growth of teachers was in respect of the women teachers at the primary stage. The district wise distribution of growth of teachers at different levels has been shown in TABLE NO. 1'22 (a), 1'22(b), 1'22(c) Appendix II.

The numerical strength of the women teachers
had been high in all the stages in Sibsagar district, through the decades. The percentage of men and women teachers to the total teachers of the district may be seen from the TABLE NO. 1'23 given below:

TABLE NO. 1'23

Percentage of man and woman teacher at the primary stage to the total teacher in Sibsagar

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years</th>
<th>Man</th>
<th>Woman</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1951 - 52</td>
<td>89.77</td>
<td>10.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1961 - 62</td>
<td>83.50</td>
<td>16.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1971 - 72</td>
<td>79.79</td>
<td>20.21</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

While there had been a fall in respect of man teacher, there had been a rise in respect of woman teacher. This was due to the new government policy to appoint more women in the primary stage than men as stated earlier. As a result of which large number of women had been getting into primary schools. This large influx of women teachers in the primary school must have stirred the family, social and economic life of the state which prompted the present investigator to take up this study with special reference to Sibsagar district which has a unique place in the state so far as the growth and development of
educational facilities are concerned.

(e) The sub-divisions

There are three revenue sub-divisions in the district of Sibsagar, namely, Golaghat, Jorhat and Sibsagar. In Sibsagar district there is one inspectorate for the district. But there are four Deputy Inspectors of Schools. For convenience of administration Jorhat sub-division has been subdivided into two educational sub-divisions namely, Jorhat and Majuli. Majuli is a river island created by the Brahmaputra. Educational administration at the primary level has been separated from Jorhat sub-division and Majuli has been placed under a separate Deputy Inspector of Schools. This has to be done only because of the communication difficulties which are caused by the heavy floods of the Brahmaputra every year. This fourth educational sub-division of the district has been excluded from the present study for the reasons discussed below.

As per census of 1971 Majuli had a population of 93,618 of which 44,003 were women. Out of these forty-four thousand women only 18.3 percent were literate as against 27.7 percent for the entire sub-division. Out of these literate women only 86 were primary school teachers in 1973-74 as against 1614 women teachers in the primary schools of Sibsagar district. The number of schedule caste
and scheduled tribes population of Majuli are very high. There are 24,405 scheduled caste people and 6,518 scheduled tribes which are 27 percent and 5.2 percent of the scheduled caste and scheduled tribes population respectively of the district as a whole. Majuli is the seat of Vaisnavite learning which has an impact on the socio-cultural life of the inhabitants. And due to the intermittent dislocation of communication by heavy floods it has an economic life of its own. With its socio-cultural and economic differences with the rest of the sub-division, Majuli envisages an independent study of its own.

The sub-division wise area and population of the district has been appended in Appendix II TABLE NO.1.24. The total population of the district had been 16,82,665 and urban population had been 1,54,724 as per census, 1971. There were 2,345 inhabited villages and nine towns in the district. The religion wise distribution of population of the district has been appended in Appendix II TABLE NO.1.'24.

(ii) The primary school

In the present study under primary schools only those schools had been included which followed the primary school syllabus. The primary schools rather the primary classes attached to M.V. or Senior Basic schools were excluded from the present study. In such a school the teaching staff though belonged to the entire school, there
is a kind of division of labour, one set of teachers teach in the primary classes, another set teach in the upper section. In such a situation, the interaction among teachers is different from that of the primary school in which there is only one category of teachers. Again the study covered the teachers of the primary schools formerly controlled by the Elementary Education Board, Assam. Other primary schools managed by a company or by a denominational institution or by any other private agency were excluded from the study. The scale of pay and the minimum prescribed qualifications for the teacher are not uniform in such different types of schools. Whereas in the schools controlled by the Board the scale of pay and qualifications prescribed are uniform. The social as well as economic status of a teacher in the different categories of primary schools as noted above differ from each other. Again the number of such private primary schools are too small to preclude a comparative study with the schools covered by the present study.

The present study covered the following categories of primary schools such as -

- Big schools
- Small schools
- Urban schools
- Rural schools

The Department of Education in Assam has not
yet evolved a definite criterion to define a big or a small school. For the purpose of the present study a school was considered to be big in which ten or more teachers serve irrespective of the number of pupils on the roll. In the same manner a school having a total number of teachers less than ten was classified as a small school without reference to the strength of the total enrolment.

Other categories of schools were self explanatory. A school situated in the urban areas was classified as an urban school and a school situated in the rural area was classified as a rural school irrespective of the residence of the pupils.

(iii) The primary school teacher

In 1972-73 there were altogether 2698 primary schools in Sibsagar in which 5184 teachers served.* Of these total primary school teachers some 1121 women teachers, out of which about 812 teachers were married. In the entire state of Assam 17.00 percent of the primary school teachers were women. Roughly 70.63 percent of these women teachers were married. The corresponding figure for Sibsagar district was roughly 72.4 percent.

All these women teachers enter the profession through open competition. Promotion to head mastership is determined on the basis of seniority. Out of these 1121

women teachers only 107 were head teachers though there were 2698 primary schools in the district in 1972 - 73. Out of these 107 headmistresses only twenty seven were married.

While selecting the sample for the study teachers of the following categories were excluded for the reasons given alongwith.

(a) All the non-Assamese teachers were excluded. In Sibsagar district non-Assamese teachers included Bengalee and Hindi teachers. The socio-cultural background of these non-Assamese teachers is different from that of the Assamese teachers. At the same time non-Assamese teachers were small in number. As such no independent study of this group of teachers could be taken up even for a comparative study.

(b) Teachers of a single-teacher school were excluded. Being the sole member of the staff, the teacher has not been exposed to social-interaction within the school, which is a major factor affecting professional aptitude of a teacher.

(c) Teachers having less than two years of experience as assistant teachers had been excluded. An experience of at least two years is considered to be necessary for the teacher to be able to realise the responsibility of the new role and status she undertakes and the problems and difficulties associated with it.
(d) Teachers below twenty years and above fifty years of age were excluded. Teachers below twenty years of age were mostly newly married who did not have enough experience of a married woman with dual role to play. Teachers on the wrong side of the scale were at their retiring age who were not much interested in their career.

(iv) The head master

Two hundred head teachers were covered by the study. These teachers were chosen from the following types of schools:

- Big schools
- Small schools
- Purely girls' schools
- All women teachers schools
- Rural schools
- Urban schools

The head teachers so selected from these schools covered the following categories of teachers:

- Man and woman
- Experienced and fairly new
- Teachers who served only as a head teacher
- Teachers who served as an assistant teacher and as a head teacher.
Teachers who served as an assistant teacher in one school and as a head teacher in another. Teachers who served as a head teacher in more than one school.

(v) The Sub-Inspector of Schools

As stated in the section I of the present chapter the Sub-Inspector of schools is the actual field worker at the sub-divisional level so far as the elementary education is concerned. He has the first hand knowledge of the primary school teacher, her social, economic and professional status and the outlook of society on the teacher and the school. The S.I. of schools is selected from the secondary school teachers having at least five years teaching experience.

The S.I. of schools in the three sub-divisions having more than two years of experience as a supervisor were covered by the study. There were thirty S.I. of schools in the entire district having more than two years of experience. All these thirty supervisors along with the three D.I. of schools and three Addl. D.I. of schools were covered by the study.
2. Sampling Procedure

The nature of the study was such which made the sampling procedure difficult. The present study dealt with the personal matters like married life and professional career of the woman teacher. So detailed information had to be collected. At the same time the investigator was aware of the poor academic background of the primary school teacher in Assam. As such a truly representative sample of the married women teachers could not be obtained. Again a random sampling posed some difficulties. It was apprehended that there would be a large number of non-responses because of the shy nature of the teachers with poor academic background. The investigator was aware of the sampling error that might have crept in. But the purpose of the present study was not to make a strict generalisation but to find out the working conditions of the married woman teacher in which each woman teacher was a sample by herself with her individual preferences and choices, satisfaction and dissatisfaction.

Stratification was difficult on any possible categories as follows:

- On the basis of residence
- On the basis of age and experience
- On the basis of qualifications

Because of some practical reasons teachers could not be
categories into urban and rural. Who was a rural teacher? Was it her place of residence or her place of work which determined her urban or rural background? A large number of teachers were from rural areas, but most of them had been serving in urban or suburban schools. There were very few women teachers from urban areas in the school. Moreover, the teachers change schools on transfer. There were only nine towns in the district under study. So the number of schools in urban areas were few in comparison to schools in villages. Rural schools and teachers with rural background outnumbered the urban schools and teachers with urban background which made true stratification on the basis of residence difficult. Again, as regards working conditions, there was not much difference between urban primary schools and rural primary schools in Assam. It was difficult to categorise the teachers into young and aged for the purpose of sampling. Very few of the teachers were in the age group 40-50, while a large number were young teachers. Categorisation of teachers according to qualifications was not considered to be a correct proposition. Because as per rules prior to 1962 non-Matriculate teachers were considered to be qualified for appointment. This batch of non-Matriculate teachers passed a decade or more in teaching and gained experience in the practical field. Thus their deficit in academic qualifications had been
compensated by the experience they gained by now. The Matriculate teachers were all new having ten or less than ten years of experience in the school. Again non-Matriculate teachers were very large in number. So a true stratification on the basis of qualifications was not possible. Categorisation of teachers as trained and untrained was not feasible. Eighty three percent of the teachers were trained while only 17 percent were untrained, one out weighed the other.

Inspite of the limitations, it was tried to make this sampling as representative as possible to minimise sampling errors. Sampling had been done taking into considerations all the difficulties inherent in the population. Selection of the sample was done on several stages. First of all, the names of the married women teachers were collected from the pay-rolls of the offices of the Deputy Inspector of schools of three sub-divisions - Golaghat, Jorhat and Sibsagar. There were 812 married women teachers in the district as a whole. Care was taken to cover the following types of teachers in the sample:

- Head teachers of both urban and rural schools
- Teachers in rural schools
- Teachers in urban schools
- Teachers from rural areas
- Teachers from urban areas
Teachers served under a headmaster
Teachers served under a headmistress
Teachers from all woman - teacher schools
Teachers from schools with both man and woman teachers in the staff
Teachers from big schools
Teachers from small schools
Aged teachers and young teachers

Out of these categories of teachers selected for the purpose of drawing the sample 500 teachers were selected randomly, which was roughly 61.5 percent of the total number of married women teachers in the primary school of the district.

3. Methods followed

(a) Collection of data

The sample of the present study was large, diverse and widely scattered throughout the district and the personal preferences, choices, attitudes, opinions, behavior patterns, habits and practices of the sample had to be collected. For such a wide range of data from a large number of sample the questionnaire method was considered to be the most suitable a method for collection of data for the present study.

The questionnaire was not mailed to the informants. The investigator herself approached the individual woman
to get the questionnaire filled-in. The primary school teachers in Assam gather together every month on the last
day of the month or on any date convenient in the last week
of the month centre wise to discuss academic and other prob-
lems. This gathering is known as "Teachers' Centre Meeting."
A Centre is constituted with a number of schools near
about taking into consideration of transport and communi-
cation facilities. In this way, there are several such Centres
in one sub-division as necessitate by physical and geogra-
phical hindrances. There were 31 such Centres in Jorhat
sub-division, 24 in Golaghat and 35 in Sibsagar. From the
list of schools in each Centre, Centres having large number
of women teachers were selected for personal visit of the
investigator. The rest of the teachers were approached through
the supervisory staff. The questionnaire was administered
between December, 1974 to May, 1975.

The questionnaire meant for the headteacher was
mailed to him. The opinionnaire was mailed to the S.I. of
schools. But they were approach personaly to get it filled-in.

(b) The tools used

The questionnaire and its sources

Two different questionnaires were prepared for
the study. They were termed as Questionnaire No. I and
Questionnaire No.2 and an Opinionnaire was prepared for the supervisors. The Questionnaire No.1 was meant for the teachers and it was the main tool for collection of the major data for the study.

Before constructing the Questionnaire No. 1, the Information Schedule and the Interview Guide adapted by Kapur (1970) for her study were studied. She herself adapted her Marriage Adjustment Form from the Burgess - Corttrel-Wellin’s Marriage Adjustment Form (1956). The present study did not investigate into the marital adjustment of the teacher. As such questions directly related to marital adjustment as dealt in the original Schedule had been totally dropped. The present study tried to find out the conditions of the teacher in her family life and in her school which made her working life easy and satisfactory or otherwise. So the present questionnaire consisted of a large number of items which tried to collect personal data of the teacher in details which would reveal the social, economic and professional background of the respondent, her husband’s family and her father’s family. Such exhaustive items were absent in the original Information Schedule of Kapur (1970).

Kapur used five point scale for all questions in her Schedule. But in the present adapted questionnaire three point scale was used for scoring. In pretesting the questionnaire it was found that five-answer category of
questions were difficult for a primary school teacher to respond. Academically being very low the teachers found it difficult to discriminate between 'Much more' and 'More' and 'Less' and 'Much less'. So in the final form all the questions were framed as three-answer category.

The Questionnaire No. 1 consisted of the following parts:

Part I; This part related to the bio-data of the teachers including their family background and social and economic background of both her parents' and husband's. The bio-data included the professional and educational backgrounds of the teacher.

Part 2: This part consisted of questions related to the first objective of the study which sought to find out the reasons for joining the profession by the woman teacher and her special aptitude for the profession.

Part 3: This part consisted of the questions related to the second objective of the study which sought to find out the professional satisfaction of the teacher.

Part 4: This part consisted of questions related to the third objective of the study, which was designed to find out the difficulties faced by the teacher in her social, professional, family and economic life.

Questionnaire II

The responses from the headteachers were
collected through the Questionnaire No.II. Questions contained in this questionnaire were so framed as to elicit the views of the headteacher regarding the working conditions of the woman teacher and to check and recheck some of the responses made by the teacher on her own professional aptitude, competence and status.

The Questionnaire No.II consisted of twenty one broad questions, with sub-questions tagged to some of them, which sought to find out the following information:

(a) Bio-data of the headteacher including his family, social, economic and professional backgrounds.
(b) The school in which the headteacher had been serving at the time of this present investigation.
(c) The reaction of the headteacher regarding his members of the staff on the points noted below:

- Professional competence
- Behavioural reaction
- Teacher-pupil relationship
- Specific problems faced by the headteacher in connection with the staff
- His choice of a teacher

The Opinionnaire

The Opinionnaire was meant for the S.I. of
Schools which consisted of fifteen broad questions which could be grouped as follows:

(a) Background information of the officer, his professional and academic qualifications.
(b) Information regarding his official responsibilities.
(c) His reactions regarding the teachers on the points noted below:

   Social and economic status of a man teacher and a woman teacher
   Attitude of the teachers towards the profession
   A choice between a man teacher and a woman teacher

The Interview Schedule

Two different types of interview schedules had been used for the purpose of the case-study, one for the special cases of the sample covered under the present study and another for the superannuated women teachers selected for the case-study.

The first schedule consisted of twenty broad questions with several sub-questions tagged to fourteen of them. It was a general type of schedule which was used to study all the special cases considered for the present study.
Interview Schedule tried to go into the following factors which might have affected the working conditions of the married woman teacher:

- Her relationship with the husband
- Her relationship with the other members of the family
- Her relationship with the colleagues and headteacher and the district authorities
- Her relationship with the neighbour
- Her interests both social and academic

The second schedule consisted of 24 broad questions with sub-questions tagged to 21 of them. The following types of information had been collected with the help of the Interview Schedule No. 2:

- Socio-cultural and economic background of the retired woman teacher
- Society's attitude towards a woman teacher in general and a married woman teacher in particular during pre-war, post-war, and pre-independence periods
- The personal reactions of the retired teacher towards her own role and status as a working woman
- The changing social outlook on the working wife as viewed by the retired teacher and her own outlook towards the same.
The sociological nature of the present study did not require any highly technical statistical calculations. As Travers (1958) remarked, "There is some division of opinion among those engaged in educational research concerning the utility of complex designs that take into account a large number of different variables, except in areas where much knowledge has already been acquired. Those who design studies involving numerous variables claim that this is necessary if useful results are to be achieved. The argument is that many variables are involved in most of behavioural phenomena and hence these should be taken into account in any study that is planned. On the other side of the argument, it is claimed that the research worker usually does not know what these variables are and gross work rather than sound theory is likely to be the basis for including those that are included. Only rarely do elaborate designs give the impression of being firmly rooted in theory. Skinner (1956) who has participated in the controversy has pointed out that most of the important facts of science were discovered long before complex designs had ever been invented. In addition it is true that important facts in the behavioural sciences continue to be brought out by workers of educational research using simplest type of experimental designs. Many fine studies may illustrate the use of complex designs, but it seems likely that simple designs will serve a useful purpose for many years to come."

The present investigator was mostly prompted by the remarks of Travers who was an authority in this particular field.

The sample of the present study was large and at the same time varied. Simple tabulation was used to analyse the data collected. As stated earlier in the present chapter the purpose of the present study was not to make strict generalisation but to find out the working conditions of the sample under study as they were. As such a complex design involving complex tabulation was not attempted. To analyse and to present the personal data of the teachers percentage calculations were used. Simple frequency calculations were used to analyse the rest of the data. Only percentage calculations were applied all throughout the study to find out the variation and its comparison. It may be stated that for the presentation of the weighted scores of the responses percentage calculations were found to be more appropriate than any other types of calculations.

(a) Tabulation of data

Questionnaire No.1

The Questionnaire No.1 was the main tool for collecting data for the major part of the study. This Questionnaire was divided into four parts as stated earlier. The personal data of the teacher included a wide range of information, such as the home address of the teacher, her school, her religion, caste, age, qualifications both academic and professional, total teaching experience in the
present and in the schools served earlier, aptitude and interest, present status in the school, continuity in service, present monthly pay, her husband, his age, caste, religion, residence, occupation, monthly income, date of marriage, her father and his residence, his monthly income, the size of the father's family, her position in the family line. This exhaustive list of information covered the background of the teacher comprising her social, economic and academic life.

The list of information had been classified into three broad heads:

(i) Social aspects - Age, religion, caste, family occupation, husband's age, caste, religion, present status in the school, her position in the father's family line, her residence.

(ii) Academic aspects - Qualifications both academic and professional, aptitude, continuity in service, classes and subjects taught and experience in teaching.

(iii) Financial aspects - Pay, total income of husband and wife, number of children, number of dependants, income difference husband and wife.

Though a wide range of factors had been collected under personal data, some of the factors were not considered suitable for selection as variables. Religion was not considered as a basis for selection of variables. In the present sample there were 234 Hindus, 13 Muslims and three Christians. The sample could not be classified into trained
and untrained for the sake of variables. Likewise qualifications and the present status of the teacher were not considered as a basis for selection of variables. Continuity of service was also not considered as a basis for selection. On the basis of all the factors it was not feasible to classify the sample teachers into variables. Father's family also did not receive consideration for the purpose of classification. The teacher was away from the father's family. So it had no direct bearing on the working conditions of the teacher. Husband's age and age difference between husband and wife were not considered for classification of the sample. Age difference between husband and wife is not a factor in marital adjustment in the life of a working wife as found by Kapur (1970). Date of marriage and years of experience in teaching were almost of the same significance. Young girls married in the sixties while older ones married in forties or fifties. The young girls had shorter period of experience and the older ones had longer period of experience. So, both the categories were rather one and the same, as such only total experience in teaching had been taken as a basis for classification. Regarding father's income only 88 teachers out of the total sample responded. As such these respondents were not considered suitable for classification as variables. The variables selected for the study were:

(1) Age
(2) Caste
(3) Family background
(4) Family pattern
(5) Residence
(6) Monthly pay
(7) Total income of husband and wife
(8) Number of children owned by teachers
(9) Educational qualifications
(10) Total experience in teaching

The second part of the Questionnaire No.1 contained ten broad questions relating to the marital status of the teacher and her choice of the profession. Through question No.4 it was sought to find out the causes of joining teaching profession by the teacher. Eight probable causes, (from a to h) were given to the teacher out of which she was to tick-off three causes. The questions No.7 and 8 of this part related to the consideration of the teacher to continue or not to continue in the job after marriage. Here also there were six probable causes, (from a to f), in each question given to the teacher to tick-off in order of priority.

In part 3 of the Questionnaire there were twelve questions of which the question No. 2 and 3 related to the satisfaction and dissatisfaction of the teacher. The question No.2 contained six probable causes, (from a to f), of satisfaction of the job and the question No. 3 contained
seven probable causes, (from a to g), of dissatisfaction, out of which the teacher was expected to tick-off three causes in each question in order of priority. The question No. 4 of this part related to the causes of continuance in the job inspite of dissatisfaction which contain four probable causes which the teacher was asked to rank in order of importance.

In part 4 of the Questionnaire there were 36 questions of which questions No. 12, 16 and 28 were three-answer category questions. The teacher was asked to rank four probable causes, (from a to d), given under the question No. 12 of not taking longer leave after childbirth in order of importance. Under question No. 16 there were five probable causes, (from a to e), of not giving up the job due to household difficulties out of which she was expected to tick-off three in order of priority. The question No. 28 related to the reactions of the in-laws towards the working status of the daughter-in-law of the family. This question contained six probable causes, (from a to f) out of which the teacher was to tick-off three in order of importance.

The questions No. 34, 35 and 36 related to the reactions of the teacher towards the school as a whole. The question No. 34 asked the teacher whether she loved her school or not and this question contained five
categories of answer:

Love very much
Love
Do not love
Do not love at all
Indifferent

The question No. 35 related to the teacher's reaction towards the existing conditions of the school. There were six conditions, both academic and physical, open to the teacher against which she was to give her either positive or negative reaction.

The question No. 36 related to the wants the teacher faced in her school. Eight such probable wants were stated, out of which the teacher was asked to tick-off three in order of importance.

The questions No. 2 and 3 related to the family pattern of the teacher and its impact on her working conditions. Nine probable conditions were included under the joint family pattern. These were three-answer category responses. Under the nucleus family seven probable conditions were included which were two-answer category responses.

The question No. 20 related to the personal habits of the teacher in which there were six probable leisure time activities in which the teacher was occupied.
These activities were three-answer category responses.

The rest of the questions in the entire questionnaire were single-answer category questions.

The responses to three-answer category questions were converted into numerical score by using a three-point scale, the two-answer category by a two-point scale and the five-answer category by a five-point scale. The total scores were all weighted scores.

Questionnaire No.II

As stated earlier the Questionnaire No.II was meant for the headteachers. The reactions of the headteachers towards the members of their staff were collected with the help of the questions No. 15, 16, 17 and 18. All these questions were single-answer category questions.

Opinionnaire

The reactions of the supervisors were collected with the help of an opinionnaire. All the questions were single-answer category questions.

(d) Case - study

A few case-studies had been done with different purposes which are enumerated below:

(1) Altogether 25 cases were studied to substantiate the major findings of the present study. The entire group of
Teachers had been classified into 24 clusters on the basis of the social factors. Of the social factors the major one was the residence. As such the entire group was divided into rural and urban. These two categories of teachers were further categorized on the following factors:

1) aged or young
2) stayed in a joint family or a nucleus family
3) joined teaching after marriage or before marriage
4) widows with children or without children
5) widows stayed with parents or alone

Accordingly there were 12 clusters of teachers each in rural areas and in urban areas in the present sample. Such as:

1. Rural joint aged after
2. Rural joint aged before
3. Rural joint young after
4. Rural joint young before
5. Rural nucleus aged after
6. Rural nucleus aged before
7. Rural nucleus young after
8. Rural nucleus young before
9. Rural widow childless alone
10. Rural widow with child alone
11. Rural widow childless with parents
12. Rural widow with child with parents

and

1. Urban joint aged after
2. Urban joint aged before
3. Urban joint young after
4. Urban joint young before
5. Urban nucleus aged after
6. Urban nucleus aged before
7. Urban nucleus young after
8. Urban nucleus young before
9. Urban widow childless alone
10. Urban widow with child alone
11. Urban widow childless with parents
12. Urban widow with child with parents

Out of these 24 probable clusters (12 clusters each in rural and urban areas), the following clusters of teachers were not available in the group of teachers under study:

- Rural joint aged before
- Rural joint young after
- Urban joint aged after
- Urban widow with in-laws

An all categories of widows in rural areas.

Of the remaining 16 clusters 25 teachers had specially been chosen from Jorhat sub-division because the numbers of
rural teachers and urban teachers were almost equal in the sub-division. In the other two sub-divisions the rural teachers outnumbered the urban teachers and most of them served in urban schools. In Jorhat sub-division about one third of the teachers were in rural schools whereas in Golaghat and Sibsagar only about one fourth of them were in rural areas. Considering this fact Jorhat sub-division was considered as the suitable field for case study. The individual cases from each cluster were chosen by drawing a lot.

(2) To make a historical study of the working conditions of married woman teacher through the generation the retired old women teachers were selected for case-study. Out of the very few available eight such old teachers were selected for the study. This group included the primary, the middle and high school teachers and a few administrators.

(3) To find out the causes of friction on money matters with her family members cases of woman teachers were selected from both rural and urban areas. There were eight such cases in the entire sample.

(4) To find out the causes of dissatisfaction of the few women teachers found among the sample teachers another case-study was made. There were only two such cases, one was a widow who was covered under the profile of the widow, the other was a rural woman in a joint family. Both of them
were from Jorhat sub-division.

4. Sources of Information

A wide range of information had to be collected for the present study. Information was collected from various sources as noted below:

(1) Quarterly Bulletins published by the Directorate of Education, Government of Assam were some of the important sources of information.

(2) The departmental data as preserved by the statistical branch of the Directorate of Education, Assam were also sources of information.

(3) The Directorate of Economics and Statistics, Government of Assam, supplied many valuable information for the purpose of the present study.

(4) Offices of the Deputy Inspector of Schools of all the sub-divisions supplied very valuable data for the study.

(5) The Data-Cell, State Institute of Education, Assam, Jorhat was one of the important sources of information to the present investigator.


(7) Of all the sources of information, the most important source of information was the teacher community which was
covered by the study. The headteachers and the supervisors were no less important sources of information to the present investigator.

(8) Retired teachers, educationists and other conscious public personnels were approached by the investigator from time to time to collect information regarding social and economic status of a working wife.

(9) The last but not the least, the reports of various committees, seminars and conferences, the books on the working wife published in India and elsewhere also supplied handy information.