CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE RELATED STUDIES

No research has so far been conducted directly on the problem of disparity in men and women literacy in Punjab. All possible resources of information were searched out, but the investigator could not lay hands upon any piece of research pertaining to this topic.

However, a few studies in the general area of educational progress of Punjab were available. They are:

Krishan, G, and Shyam, M. (1973)\(^1\), conducted a study, in spatial perspective, on the district-wise progress of female literacy in India from 1901 to 1971. They used the official census data since the beginning of the century and found that various parts of India differ strongly in their female literacy rate and also found that the districts with moderate female literacy rates were relatively small in number and scattered in distribution in similarities to the industrialisation, urbanisation and socio-economic development. Spatial patterns and trends of female literacy are strongly correlated with those of male literacy. The impact of the latter on the former has been greater and the factors influencing

male literacy had their ultimate bearing on female literacy. They also found that areas exposed to a greater degree of external influences through their coastal location or process of emigration to other countries and those marked by Christian missionary activity, and still others with comparatively high degrees of urbanisation, industrialisation, and commercialisation of agriculture, consistently display relatively high rates of female literacy. They also found that female literacy rates of former British provinces were generally higher than those of the erstwhile princely states. They further found that non-Christian tribal areas are among the least literate. They concluded that female literacy, during the present century, followed male literacy first in coastal areas, then in urban places, and more recently in rural parts.

Avtar Singh (1966) conducted a study to investigate the development of literacy and education in Punjab during 1901-1961. The purpose of this study was to find out the disparity in rural and urban literacy as well as male and female literacy. The researcher used census figures for his study and found that the year 1931 marks a significant divider in the history of growth of literacy in Punjab. Prior to 1931, there was a phase of very low and stagnant literacy ranging from 3.8 per cent in 1901 to 5.5 per cent in 1931 associated with (a) a very low degree of urbanisation and industrialisation.

1951 to 1961 recorded the beginning of a period of literacy and education. The high rate of literacy growth is associated with:

(a) overall growth in urbanisation and industrialisation;
(b) establishment of institutions by various religious organisations;
(c) awareness on the part of the people regarding need of education among the masses.

He further found that male-female differentials were quite high in rural literacy as compared to male-female differential in urban literacy. While the differentials in rural male-female literacy showed a widening trend — from 2:1 in 1951 to 3:1 in 1961 — in urban male-female differential, the gulf narrowed down from 1.7:1 in 1951 to 1.5:1 in 1961. He concluded that the regional variations in female literacy in rural areas are not very significant as compared to rural male literacy.
Gosal, G.S. (1964)\(^3\) in his study, 'Literacy in India: An interpretative study' found that despite of remarkable progress in education during recent decades, only 2\(^{1}\) per cent of India's people, as of 1961 census operation, could read and write with understanding, placing the country far behind most of the advanced nations of the world in the field of literacy. To an appreciable degree, literacy in India still means only male literacy. However, in urban places, where the proportion of literate persons is relatively high, the male-female differential in literacy is low. The differential is roughly in the ratio of 8:5 in urban areas, but only 7:2 in rural India. Regional differences in literacy correspond to variations in the degree of urbanization; agricultural prosperity, period of contact with foreign nations, especially Europeans; role of the state and private organizations; and the part played by missionaries in the spread of literacy and education. In many cases, areas of high literacy also coincide with those of considerable emigration to foreign countries. There is a strong inverse correlation between the percentage of total literate population and the male-female differential in literacy. Among the areas of high literacy, those served by

missionaries have a much smaller male-female differential than the ones which merely have a high degree of urbanisation. This is especially true of rural literacy.

Krishan, G. and Shyam, M. (1977) studied literacy in India. In their opinion, any study of literacy in India is essentially an analysis of illiteracy. Hardly three in every ten persons are literate. The paper views this situation in the context of social, economic and educational history of the country. India, in line with other developing countries, is marked not only by a low literacy rate but also by wide differentials in literacy by sex, residence and area. The differentials, which have been narrowing down in recent times reflect the necessity of propensity and opportunity of various degrees among different population groups for getting literate. They concluded in their study that the coastal India is more literate than the interior, the south is more literate than the north, and the British administered areas more literate than the former princely states. They also concluded that these patterns have persisted atleas since the beginning of the present century. The vast Hindi speaking zone is marked by a literacy rate that is only two-thirds of the national average. Non-Christian tribal areas are

---

the least literate and the same is the case with those where Muslims dominate. They further concluded that literacy rates are consistently high in areas with a high proportion of Christian population. Areas with commercial economy and those with a sustained tradition of emigration or army service also rank high on this score. There is a positive correlation between literacy and per capita income as well as per capita expenditure on education of various states. The urban literacy rate is 2.2 times the rural and almost same is the ratio between male and female literacy rates. The most literate district of Alleppey (70.4 per cent) is more than ten times literate than the least literate district of Subansiri (6.9 per cent) in Arunachal Pradesh. There are striking regional disparities in the urban-rural and male-female differentials in literacy and these display a strong negative correlation with the literacy rates. The developments since Independence have been such that disparities in literacy by sex, residence and area have been narrowing down.

Krishan, G and Shyam, M. (1974) studied the 'Pattern of City Literacy'. Their purpose in this study was to investigate the following questions: (a) Why is a segment of population

\[5\text{Krishan, G and Shyam, M.,}'Patterns of City Literacy', Economic and Political Weekly, Vol. IX, No.20, 1974, pp.795-800.\]
in the cities illiterate? (b) How do the male literacy rates in cities differ from those of female literacy? (c) What have been the past trends in city literacy, specially since the beginning of the century? (d) How do cities differ in their literacy rates with regard to their location, function, population composition and size? They found that the reasons for considerable illiteracy in Indian cities are to be understood in the context of the low literacy rate (29.5 per cent) of India's population as a whole. No wonder the migratory current to cities from rural areas as also from smaller urban places consists of a large number of illiterates. The industrial structure of many cities is dominated by labour intensive, large-scale industries which can absorb illiterate migrants. Besides, a substantial proportion of the population in several cities, mostly of smaller size, is engaged in household industries, general labour, etc. for which literacy is not an occupational must. The higher incidence of illiteracy among persons belonging to the older age group, say 35 plus, also has a depressing effect on the literacy rate. The excessive literacy among females brings down the percentage of literate persons. Among the migrants to cities, the proportion of literate males is much higher than that of literate females. They also concluded that the literacy rates of cities find a strong association with the literacy patterns of areas in
which these cities are situated. The continuance of higher literacy rates in south Indian cities as compared to those in north Indian cities is in conformity with the continuing relative differences in the literacy rates of the two areas. The occupational pattern of a city is an equally strong factor in determining the literacy rate. Cities with a sophisticated industrial base requiring skilled labour as in Poona, Nasik, Bangalore, Ranchi, Jabalpur, Barela and those with a predominance of administrative and educational services as in Chandigarh, Gauhati, Bhubaneswar display higher literacy rates than those cities where a considerable proportion of the population is engaged in household industries, general labour or agriculture as in Varamasi, Bhagalpur, Malegaon. It is also found that the literacy rates of state capital cities are generally higher than those of all the other cities in the state. The population composition of cities is another determinant. Cities with a relatively high proportion of Muslims are marked by low literacy rates. He further found that the cities with a relatively high percentage of Christians (e.g. Alleppey, Cochin, Quilon and Mangalore) are distinguished by high literacy rates. A relatively high percentage of scheduled castes in a city has an adverse effect on its literacy rate. Despite great disparities in literacy rates of cities in a particular size category, the bigger cities as a group display higher literacy
rates than the smaller ones. This is so because the bigger cities, by virtue of being greater centres of modern industry, administration and education, tend to attract a higher proportion of literate migrants. Thus, literacy rates of cities are related mainly to their location, function, population composition and size.

Koshy, T.A. (1964)\(^6\) studied the problem of illiteracy in India. He concluded that there was a greater concentration of illiterate population in the rural areas. The census report of 1961 revealed that illiteracy in the rural areas was as high as 81 per cent as against 53 per cent in urban areas. While illiteracy in the rural areas diminished from 87.10 per cent to 81 per cent, thereby showing a decrease of 6.9 per cent during the decade 1951 to 1961, in the urban areas it diminished by 12.4 per cent. As nearly 80 per cent of India’s population lives in the rural areas, greater efforts will have to be made there for bringing about a substantial reduction in illiteracy. He concluded that it is the numbers which make the task of eradication of illiteracy a stupendous one.

Yegnaramm, V.S. (1964)\(^7\) studied the progress of literacy in India during the decade 1951-61. The following are

---


the broad findings of this study: (i) In absolute numbers, female literacy figures had doubled as compared to 70 per cent increase in case of male literacy during 1951-61 (ii) In calculating literacy rate children of the age group 0-4 (who cannot be exposed to literacy) were included, and with their inclusion the total literacy level came to 28.8 per cent in 1961. Although, both male and female literacy has progressed during the decade, the male literacy moved faster by two times, thereby enlarging the gap in the literacy rate between the sexes. There is wide gap in literacy between rural and urban areas, the divergence being more marked in case of females. (iii) The study also revealed variation in literacy rates in 1961 viz., 40 per cent of all India value compared to 52 per cent in 1951.

Singh, B.P. (1974)⁸ studied Educational Progress and Economic Development in Punjab. According to him the literacy figures are based on total population; actually the age group 0-4 should be excluded for calculation of effective literacy rate. For the purpose of census, a person is deemed literate if he can both read and write with understanding in any language. This is a very broad concept and cannot show

---

⁸Singh, B.P., Educational Progress and Economic Development in Punjab, Patiala, Punjabi University, 1974, p. 44.
the educational competence of the population. However, he concluded, in a predominantly agricultural state like Punjab, literacy is important for dissemination of knowledge of new techniques and methods of agriculture. Punjab's effort to have increased literacy is not very impressive. During the 1961-71 decade the growth of literacy was only 24.87 per cent, giving Punjab the fourteenth place in the overall ranking of the states (including union territories). Apart from adult education campaigns, increase in literacy comes through a greater proportion of school age child population being sent to schools. From the economic point of view, its contribution to productivity would be discernible after a time lag. But the increase in literacy through adult education has immediate economic significance.

Krishan, G. and Shyam, M. (1978)\(^9\) conducted a study to investigate the "regional aspects of urban-rural differential in literacy in India: 1971. The purpose of the study is to describe and interpret the regional aspects of urban-rural differential in literacy in India on the basis of statistical analysis and mapping of the 1971 census data for all the 356 districts in the country. It is primarily an empirical

investigation of the rural lag behind the urban in literacy in the context of economy, society and educational history of different parts of India. They observed that out of 356 districts, 15 were either entirely rural or wholly urban and to these the differential was not applicable. In the case of the remaining 341 districts, urban literacy was greater than rural literacy in all but two districts, namely, Alleppey in Kerala and Mahe in Pondicherry, where the latter was marginally higher than the former. The urban literacy rate was more than double the rural rate in five out of every eight districts. The differential index exceeded 1.60 in every fifth district. They concluded that the low urban-rural differential in literacy was, thus, characteristic of areas marked by relatively high degree of urbanization, commercialization of agriculture, dense network of roads and exposure to external influences through coastal location or emigration. The differential was low in many of the less urbanized areas also, provided their rural literacy was stimulated by missionary effort, diversification of rural economy, and efficient administration. By contrast, the high differential was generally typical of non-christian tribal tracts, erstwhile princely states and predominantly subsistence agricultural economy areas. In their opinion, the disparity between the urban and rural areas is a manifest expression of the nature and quality of relationship between the two. Under conditions of wide disparity,
As obtaining in India for long and still persisting in many parts, urban places become centres of economic exploitation and political subjugation. Back-wash effects of the towns dominate. The relationship becomes gradually reciprocal as the two develop an interface with the other. Spread effects of towns gain momentum as rural literacy rates come close to urban literacy rates. Hence in any scheme for reduction in inter as well as intra-regional disparities in development, special attention should be given to bridging the literacy gulf between the urbanites and the ruralites.

Shankar, R. (1979)\textsuperscript{10} conducted a study to investigate 'Literacy and adoption of improved agricultural practices' based on 'Deoria' study. The study investigated the relationship between literacy status of the farmer and his level of adoption of improved agricultural practices. He had a sample of four villages, selected from amongst the villages exposed to the programmes of farmers training and functional literacy. The four selected villages consisted of 365 families with a total population of 2490 persons. The stratified sample of 182 farmers from 182 families which was nearly 50 per cent

\textsuperscript{10}
of the number of families of the four villages, was covered under the study. This study was divided into five groups, i.e., (i) Age of farmers, (ii) Land holdings, (iii) reported literacy ability score (RLAS), (iv) Functional literacy score (FLS), and (v) adoption of improved agricultural practices (AIAP).

Theoretically, there should be a high degree of relationship between the reported literacy ability score (RLAS) and functional literacy score (FLS). To check if this was true, the "Product Moment" coefficient of correlation was computed between (RLAS) and (FLS). It was found that a high degree of relationship (r = .777) did exist between these two variables. The "Product-moment" coefficient of correlation between the reported literacy ability score practice (AIAP) was computed. The correlation co-efficient obtained (r = .237) was significant at .01 level. The co-efficient of correlation obtained (r = .145) between the functional literacy score (FLS) and the adoption of improved agricultural practices (AIAP), through positive results was not significant. A highly significant correlation co-efficient (r = .44) was obtained between land holding and adoption of improved agriculture practices. In general, the findings have fairly indicated that the adoption of improved agricultural practices increased with rise in literacy.
Besides the above studies, the investigator also consulted the following publications: (1) Annual Reports of Education published by the State Department of Education, Punjab, (2) Historical records on education, Government of India, (3) Census reports of Punjab from 1901 to 1981, (4) Statistical abstracts issued by the Economic and Statistical Organisation, Punjab, (5) Education Quarterlys published by the Ministry of Education, Government of India, (6) Journals like 'Punjab on the March', published by the Finance Department, Punjab, (7) Reports of the Five-Year Plans, published by the Planning Commission, (8) Reports of the different committees and commissions and several other reports, documents etc.