

CHAPTER - I

INTRODUCTION AND METHODOLOGY

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INTRODUCTION :

All efforts of the government have been directed towards mainstreaming of women into the national development process. Attempts are being made to raise their overall status-social, economic, legal and political.

The impact of various developmental plans, policies and programmes have brought about perceptible improvement in this regard. Significant gains in respect of women's health status have been achieved. Expectancy of life for females at birth has risen. The sex-differential in Infant Mortality Rate has now been almost bridged. Maternal Mortality Rates have also been showing a declining trend. Similarly, in the field of education, there has been a distinct Orientation in favour of women's equality and empowerment. As for employment and work participation, there has been a marked rise as reflected in available statistics.

Such achievements, notwithstanding Country Report (1995) notes, "women still comprise the largest section of

population living in absolute poverty and they represent the poorest of the poor. Gender discrimination today, though amongst the most subtle, is one of the most all pervading forms of deprivation is the persistence of an adverse sex ratio which declined from 934 females per 1000 male in 1981 to 927 females per 1000 males in 1991. Gender violence both societal as well as domestic, continues unabated.”

The report also acknowledge that, women continue to be in marginal employment's and low levels of skills, their contribution being largely “invisible.” The prevailing social construction of gender largely relegates women to the inside sphere. Reproduction and responsibilities of nurturance, management of a fragile environment, and low paid or unpaid but heavy work responsibilities in agriculture, animal husbandry and other traditional sectors create a syndrome of gender stereotypes, marginalisation, alienation and deprivation.

Lack of education, information, lack of training and low levels of literacy aggravate the situation of deprivation. Women are thereby excluded not merely from political, social and economic power but knowledge power as well.

This introductory chapter is divided in two sections. First section deals with same statistical indicators of the status of women in contemporary India. Second section deals with the research problem and methodology adopted for the present work.

SECTION - I

STATUS OF WOMEN IN INDIA : SOME STATISTICAL INDICATORS.

The statistical data regarding female population, sex-ratio, age structure of female population, life expectation at birth, health nutrition and mortality, age at marriage, fertility, employment, literacy and pattern of enrolment at various levels is given below. A fair idea regarding the changing status of women in contemporary India can be had from the data presented below.

1) Female Population :

The 1991 census counted 407.1 million females against the male population of 439.23 million constituting just

women

less than half (48.09%) of the total population of India :

(846.30) million.

2) Sex-Ratio :

The sex-ratio which was 927 females per thousand males in 1901 has been more or less steady over the decades, except for a marginal rise between 1941 and 1951 and a small rise, more recently, between 1971 and 1981.

3) Age Structure of the Female Population : *women*

The percentage of children in the age-group 0-14 years among females has declined from 39.9% in 1991.

On the other hand, the percentage of women in the working age group 15-59 years shows a rise from 53.9% in 1981 to 57.8% in 1991 mainly due to the relative decline in child population. This also indicates a relative increase of women in the reproductive age group 15-49.

4) Life Expectation at Birth :

Life expectancy for females which was 23.96 years at the beginning of the century has risen to around 58.1 years during in 1986-90.

5) Health, Nutrition and Mortality :

During the seventies, Government took a number of steps to improve the health status of the population, especially women. Primary Health Centers (PHCs) and Sub-Centers were expanded throughout the country for better reach of health services. By September 1993, there were 21,000 PHCs 1,31,000 sub-centers and 2,000 Community Health Centers (CHCs) having beds with specialist facilities.

During 1975-76, a major initiative of the Government was the launching of the Integrated Child Development Services (ICDS) Scheme. Again a programme called Child Survival and Safe Motherhood (CSSM) was launched in 1992-93.

The impact of these special interventions has reduced the death rates for both sexes. A significantly sharp decline may be noticed in the mortality / death rates amongst female children in the 0-4 age group from 55.1 in 1970 to 28.2 in 1992. The overall death rate of female population has also declined from 15.6 in 1970 to 9.7 in 1991.

6) Age at Marriage :

Traditionally, attainment of puberty has played an important role in determining the age at marriage of girls. By the age of 25-29 years, more than, 90% of women were married in 1992. About 30% females who were married off at younger ages were still in their teens (i.e. 15-19 years).

The mean age at marriage for females which was around 13 years at the beginning of the century rose to 18.3 years by 1981. The mean age at 'effective marriage' for females was 19.5 years in 1992. The Child Marriage Restraint Act, 1976 raised the minimum age at marriage of girls to 18 years from 15 years and for boys to 21 years. This was intended to prevent child marriages, early marriage of girls and consequent early pregnancies and thereby curtail fertility at young ages and birth of premature babies. Acquiring higher education and greater employment by women have also played a role in raising their age at marriage.

7) Fertility :

The age-specific fertility rates declined for women in all age groups between 1981 and 1991, but not uniformly.

The decline was small for the peak fertility ages 20-29. The reduction in fertility rate was significant for the age groups above 30. The reduction at ages above 30 years were substantial for rural areas between 1981-91. This shrinking of the age span of fertility among urban women especially after 35+ years facilitated their joining other productive activities.

8) Employment :

Employment of women is an index of their economic status in society, specially with reference to equality. According to the Census data, the work participation rate (i.e. the proportion of employed or total workers to population) of females steadily rose from 14.22% in 1971 to 19.67 in 1981 and to 22.27 in 1971 to 19.67 in 1981 and to 22.7 in 1991. During the 1991 census, conscious efforts were made to count women workers more completely and remove their invisibility. This could be one of the reasons for the increase reflected in the work participation rates between 1981-1991. It is significant to point out that women constituted 90% of the total marginal workers.

The distribution of female main workers by industrial categories shows a change in the pattern of females between 1981 and 1991. Cultivators among main workers have increased from 33 to more than 34% in 1991 and agricultural labourers have decline from 46 to almost 45% . This shift is seen both in rural and urban areas.

In the household manufacturing industry, the percentage of female main workers has decreased from 4.6% in 1981 to 3.5% in 1991. The corresponding decrease in urban areas is from 10.4% to 7.5% . Another significant change is the increase in percentage of main workers in "Other Services" from 6.9% to 8.3% and the corresponding change in urban areas from 37% to 40% .

An overall representation of women in the labour force still remains low for various reasons such as change in the definition of 'workers' (Since 1981 Census. Low percentage of workers may also reflect a higher capacity of the working population to support a large number of the dependents and may be due to growing magnitude of unemployment in general.

9) Literacy :

Despite intensive efforts of the state during the last four decades to improve the literacy levels, the achievement has shown substantial increase from 18.33 in 1951 to 52.51 in 1991. The sex differentials in literacy however, have been throughout consistent and pronounced.

Over the four decades (1951-91), female literacy has however, gone up five times i.e. from 8.86 in 1951 to 39.29 in 1991. During the decade 1981-91 in particular, female literacy increased at a relatively faster pace (9.6%) than male literacy (7.5%).

There are wide regional variation too, ranging from near universal literacy in Kerala to 20.8% female literacy in Rajasthan. Rural-urban differentials in literacy are also wide. The literacy rate for rural areas is 44.7 against 73.1 for urban areas in 1991. Female literacy rate in rural areas at 30.6 is still very low and is less than half of the literacy rate in urban areas.

10) Pattern of Enrolment at various levels :

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Girls' enrolment in schools has increased greatly and consistently at all level. At the primary stage, girls enrolment has increased nine-fold from 5.4 million in 1950-51 to 46.6 million in 1993-94 and at the upper primary middle stage over thirty-fold from 0.5 million in 1950-51 to 15.7 million in 1993-94.

At the high higher secondary stage it increased from 0.2 million to 8.1 million over the same period. A substantial increase in school enrolment at the higher level indicates improvement in girls education which is very significant for their all round development status.

Not only has girls' school enrolment increased, but the percentage of girls in total enrolment has also improved at all stages over the years. Between 1950-51 and 1993-94 the percentage of enrolment of girls rose from 28.1% to 42.9% at the primary stage, from 16.1% to 39.3% at the middle / upper primary stage and from 14.3% to 34.6% at high / higher secondary stage. These trends show a fairly rapid advance at all levels.

Enrolment ratio, i.e. the percentage of enrolment to the population in the relevant age group have also risen for girls at both primary and upper primary levels. Girls' enrolment has increased by 88% at primary level during the period 1951-54.

Though school enrolment ratios have been rising, high rate of drop-out, particularly of girls, still continues to be a major problem. During 1993-94, little more than 1/3 (39%) of the number of girls enrolling at the primary stage dropped out before completing primary level and about more than half of them (about 57%) dropped out before completing upper primary levels and of the remaining 43% who reached the high / higher secondary stage, another 10% dropped out before completing the school stage. Thus, only about 32% of girls entering the primary stage reach the end of schooling. High drop out rates amongst girls are embedded in the socio-cultural and economic factors.

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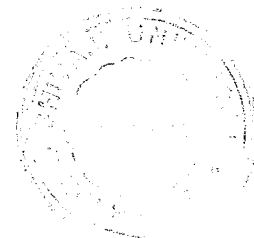
SECTION - II

METHODOLOGY

INTRODUCTION :

It has been increasingly recognised that, education acts as a catalyst in Socio-economic transformation and education of women occupies a pivotal position in the scheme of Socio-economic. recognised this, in the post-independence period, Govt. of India accepted education as the key instrument to translate the constitutional guarantee of equal status and equal opportunities for women into reality.

Since independence, the policy makers have argued for universal education as a tool for bringing about social equality. But inspite of concerted efforts to improve the educational status of women in India, the progress is far from satisfactory. Though there is no denying the fact that female education has steadily expanded, disparities in education of men and women persist. There are regional disparities, too. Various studies have noted the increasing enrolment of women at various levels of education. Studies focusing on proportion of women at various levels of education in various parts of



India are necessary to evolve appropriate strategies to expand women's education in India.

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Increasing women's literacy, arresting their drop-out rate ensuring their retention in the educational system and providing adequate opportunities for higher education to them, are some of the important measures ^{for} to expand ^{women's} education in India. To empower women in all walks of life, and to ensure their participation in the process of national development in real sense, increasing attention has to be given towards strengthening higher education ^{for} of women. It is the effective way to empower them socially, politically and economically independent and to acquire positions in society having more status and power. Once this is achieved, they themselves will become agents of social change eventually leading towards gender equality. It is in this context that understanding women's proportion in higher education needs to be treated as one important area of research.

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REVIEW OF RELEVANT LITERATURE

Considering appropriate in the context of the present work, a brief review of few available studies on women's education is presented below :

* Hate, Chandrakala's book titled "Changing Status Of Women In Post-Independence India" (1969) is mainly based on statistical data. This book emphasizes that modern women must play a complex role. Rights given by law, the freedom that she is enjoying and the education that she is receiving should prompt her to make the best of the chances open to her and thus contribute her might to the welfare of humanity.

Altekar's book titled "The position of women in Hindu Civilization" (1973). Describes the position of women in Hindu Civilization. One finds useful information regarding educational status of Hindu women from 2,500 B.C. to 1800 A.D.

Mathur Y. B.'s book titled "Women's Education In India (1813-1966)", (1973) is a work on the history of women's education in India. Mathur shows in his book that, in the early nineteenth century, social customs and practices like the

purdah, sati and child-marriage, and the deepseated prejudices against education of women prevented them from playing their proper role in society. But today they are not only occupying responsible position in the society but are making their own meaningful contribution to practically every field of national development. This spectacular transformation is mainly due to the spread of education amongst them. The dedicated efforts of the missionaries, the zeal and sacrifices of the social reformers, the generous financial help by philanthropists as well as the helpful policies of the government all have had their share in realizing this great transformation. The another uncludes that, the total number of girls under education is at present infinitesimal, the progress made in the last few years is significant. The interest now evinced in the subjects is a hopeful sign and the enhanced rate of development in the education of boys, especially in its higher branches, is bound to influence favourably the popular attitude towards the education of girls. There is every reason, therefore, to hope that the demand for girls' education and the supply of means to faster its growth may in the future so react upon each

other as to provide for an early and substantial development of this important fact.

Agarwal S. P. and Agarwal J. C.'s book titled "Women's Education In India (1992) is divided into III parts. Part I deals with Historical review, present status and perspective plan. In part II, statistical data showing progress of women's education from 1881-82 to 1986-87 is presented. In the third part Index to scholarly writings in India, educational journals and Newspapers Since independence has been given.

The India Country Report (1995), describes various aspects of status of women and provides useful information regarding women in Indiaⁿ society. It deals with specific topics such as policies and programmes for the advancement of women, macro economic policies and their impact on women, women's contribution to the economy, focus on agriculture, women in decision making, women's health needs, Countering the threat of violence against women, women I media, women's movement, perspective for the future.

Agrawal S. P. and Aggarwal J. C.'s book titled "Second Historical Survey Of Women's Education In India 1988-1994"

(1996), provides an overview of the state of women's education in India since 1988 in all its aspects in the light of National Policy On Education (NPE) (1986), and its programme of Action (POA). It also provides detailed information about the recommendation relating to women's education of the Ramamurti Committee (1990) which was set up to review the implementation of NPE, 'Education for All 2000' (1990). Prepared by the National Institute of Educational Planning and Administration (NIEPA) New Delhi, and the comments of the Central Advisory Board of Education Committee known as Janardhan Committee on the recommendations of modified NPE and POA on the basis of which the Central Government may take its decisions on the matters pertaining to women's education. The special feature of this book is the global view of women's education highlighting the programmes being followed in other developing countries and the efforts of the U.N.O. bodies in accelerating the pace of development in this regard.

Beena Shah (2000), with the help of statistical data, has examined the education dimension of women's empowerment in



India. She has also given some suggestions for enhancing women's participation in development.

THE RESEARCH PROBLEM

The present study aims at the analysis of enrolment pattern in Shivaji University, in order to understand the proportion of women in higher education in general, and to understand proportion of women in various faculties and professional courses in particular.

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY :

A) General Objective :

The general objective of the present study is to understand the proportion of women in higher education enrolled in Shivaji University Kolhapur.

B) Specific Objectives :

The specific objectives of the present study are as under:

- 1) To study the sex-wise enrolment pattern in Shivaji University over the years, i.e. from 1965-66 to 1995-96.
- 2) To study the enrolment by sex in institutions of higher learning affiliated to Shivaji University in

four districts viz., Kolhapur, Satara, Sangli and Solapur.

- 3) To study the enrolment by sex for traditional courses such as B.A., B.Com., B.Sc. and M.A., M.Com., and M.Sc.
- 4) To study the sex-wise enrolment pattern for various professional courses such as Law, Teaching, Medicine and engineering.
- 5) To study the sex-wise enrolment pattern in relation to various caste categories such as S.Cs, STs, NTs, OBCs and others.

SCOPE OF THE STUDY :

A) The study is confined to the analysis of sex-wise enrolment pattern in Shivaji University , Kolhapur. As such , it has focused on enrolment data . The are mainly collected from secondary sources, viz , annual reports of the Shivaji University and from concerned section (P.G. seminar , and statistics) of the Shivaji University. For detailed statistical analysis, attention has been focussed on enrolment data relating to selected years i.e.

academic year ,1965 – 66, 1970 – 71, 1975 –76 , 1980 – 81 , 1985 – 86 , 1990 – 91 and 1995 – 96.

ANALYSIS INTERPRETATION AND PRESENTATION OF DATA :-

The data collected from the secondary sources ^{ve} has been analysed , interpreted and presented in a systematic manner in different sections.

Reference : Against this background in the next chapter a brief outline of the progress of women's education in India is presented.

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