

## CONTENTS

	PAGE
PREFACE . . . . .	(iii)
CHAPTERS	
I. The Changing Pattern . . . . .	1
II. Historical Retrospect : 1813 to 1947 . . . . .	7
III. Trends of Expansion in Women's Education in Post- Independence Period . . . . .	19
IV. Women's Access to Higher Education . . . . .	27
V. The Problems and the Future . . . . .	33
APPENDICES	
I. Women's Education—A Comparative Picture . . . . .	59
II. The Education Commission (1964-66) on Women's/ Girls' Education—Recommendations . . . . .	75
III. Suggested Reading . . . . .	78
IV. Graphic Survey . . . . .	80

India,

## PREFACE

It is a matter of great satisfaction that the Union Ministry of Education is issuing this brochure dealing with one of the most important aspects of Education in the country. I was entrusted with writing it perhaps because I am connected with the only women's university in the country as its vice-chancellor. I consider this a privilege and hope my effort will be of some use to the readers and give them an idea of the present position of women's education in the land of Mahatma Gandhi.

A number of studies on problems connected with this subject have been undertaken at both governmental and non-governmental levels and specially by the National Council of Women's Education which is the body set up by the Union Government guiding policies and programmes in the field. I am indebted to various official reports and publications as also to the vast literature on the subject by a number of authors who have made it richer by their contributions. For the guidance of those who may like to go deeper into the subject, I would recommend a few selected books and reports that have been listed in *Appendix III* of this brochure.

While preparing this brochure I have tried to show the magnitude of the problem of women's education as it faces the country and the various issues arising out of it. The background of this will be found in the period of the last one and a half century.

To heighten the narrative part, a graphic survey of girls' and women's education in comparison to that of boys and men, beginning from the early years of this century, going right up to the present day has been included as an appendix (*Appendix IV*).

The Education Commission (1964-66) set up by the Government of India undertook a detailed study of the entire problem of education in India and women's education v one of the important subjects referred to it for considera

Any publication on Indian education in the post-Commission period can hardly ignore the Commission's views and recommendations. For these have immense value in making up the leeway and furthering women's education in the country, like its recommendations in the other sectors of our educational development. Naturally, therefore, they have not been lost sight of in this brochure. While they have been referred to in the body of the brochure in the appropriate context, for the inquisitive readers, all of them have been included, but briefly, in an appendix to it (*Appendix II*).

For the inquisitive readers, we have also appended (*Appendix I*) a short paper on the progress of girl's/women's education in a few representative countries of the world—both developed and developing—including ours, against the background of the general educational system of those countries. If not anything else, this will help us to make an appraisal of our present position and embolden us to forge further ahead.

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## CHAPTER I

### THE CHANGING PATTERN

“There cannot be an educated people without educated women. If general education had to be limited to men or to women, that opportunity should be given to women, for then it would most surely be passed on to the next generation.”<sup>1</sup>

The above quotation, in a nutshell, very aptly describes the importance of women's education which holds a sure key to progress. Unfortunately, in this country a wide gap exists between the education of boys and girls and men and women which has to be made up to achieve the progress desired by us.

In order to emphasise the ideological and sociological issues underlining women's education in independent India, the action and re-action of social currents affecting the educational systems of the eras now past, will be touched upon very briefly to show how important a role social forces have played in moulding the educational system of a particular era together with the economic, political and religious factors. This glance backward will help us in understanding the changing pattern of our education and its reflection in the emergence of new values and needs.

In ancient India, women enjoyed a high status and the educational opportunities accorded to them were the same as to men. The *upanayana* ceremony, which marked the initiation of a child into a study of the Vedas, was performed for boys as well as for girls.

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<sup>1</sup> Report of the University Education Commission (Dec. 1948—Aug. 1949) Volume 1 ; Ministry of Education, Government of India, 1963; page 393

In fact the Atharvaveda observes that a maiden's marriage is successful only if she has been properly trained during her period of studentship.<sup>1</sup>

The social, political and economic changes that took place in Medieval India brought down the status of woman and consequently the opportunity for her education. In this traditional society, the role of formal education was limited. Instruction under this social order was gained through direct, face-to-face contact. Children acquired knowledge from members of the family and in an informal way through observations both inside and outside their homes. Those who were fortunate in getting an apprenticeship, received, formal but specialised training in a specific occupation.

In this type of society, one was born in a particular stratum and usually lived his life in the same environment. Formal education under such circumstances was overwhelmingly devoted to society's traditional, religious-philosophical concepts and the schools were geared to perpetuate the old system.

Under these conditions, it was but natural that women's education would be neglected. Whatever education they received was received at home. As Dr. Altekar remarks, "Society had a general prejudice against female education; it was believed that a girl taught to read and write would become a widow. It may therefore be stated that on the advent of British rule female education had practically disappeared from the Hindu community".<sup>2</sup> Further, the ascriptive value system also made women accept this position.

After the advent of the British, the pendulum gradually swung towards industrialisation and this change was reflected in the trends of education imparted to the people.

Education as a whole received an impetus in the country. But compared to other countries, it was backward and the pattern less varied. As a policy, it was subjected to very

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<sup>1</sup> The Position of Women in Hindu Civilisation, Altekar A.S. 1962; p. 10

<sup>2</sup> The Position of Women in Hindu Civilisation, Altekar A.S. 1962; p. 24

severe criticism and was described disparagingly as a foreign plant not suited to Indian soil.

As far as women's education was concerned, social prejudice against women going in for education diminished, and the need of education for women at different levels was established, although the educational opportunities accorded to them were not as satisfactory as they should have been. Society, although very reluctantly, had come to accept the fact of women taking up careers, and this broadened the scope and sphere of educational avenues open to women. Besides general education, more and more branches of professional education were being opened up to women.

With the advent of independence, the need of education changed completely, and with it also changed the whole outlook of the people. The political framework has had democracy as its base. Planning has been accepted as essential in the economic and social life of the country. It is but natural that these changed circumstances would usher in a new era with regard to the status of woman and the role she is expected to play in society.

As stated in the Preamble of our Constitution, we are engaged in a quest for democracy through the realisation of justice, liberty, equality and fraternity.

Equality of status and opportunity for man and woman occupy an important place in our Constitution. This is supported in Articles 15 (1), 16(1) and 16(2) respectively wherein it is stated that "the State shall not discriminate against any citizen on grounds only of religion, caste, sex, place of birth or any of them;" and that "there shall be equality of opportunity for all citizens in matters relating to employment or appointment to any office under the State". This is the highest aspiration in the realm of modern and progressive social thought and this complete equality of both the sexes has for the first time brought a new awareness with regard to expectations from and equipment of women as equal citizens of India.

As a free and equal citizen, the Constitution and the democratic framework created by it demand that woman should actively participate in all types of activities. Further,

it is recognised that the success of national developmental programmes such as the community development movement, social welfare and rural uplift, depend upon active and useful participation by women in these spheres.

What is the role of woman in our society? There are two opposing viewpoints on this question. One school of thought strongly feels that the woman's rightful and proper place is the home. The second—more progressive—school of thought feels that if woman has to act as a companion to man, her responsibility increases and lies even beyond the home; consequently, all the openings available to man should be available to woman also. Even if the woman's duties are restricted to the home and to motherhood, imparting education to her is essential. In emerging modern societies, the family which is one of the most important social institutions is also undergoing considerable change. This fact demands a different and more conscious participation by woman in all activities. This would also enable her to play her role as wife and mother more satisfactorily. In these capacities, education gives her some vital skills so necessary for playing this role more efficiently.

Besides playing the role of the housewife and mother, many women are required to work outside the home. In fact, an estimate of womanpower for the future has been made by the Planning Commission, which points out that there would be need for the cooperation of women in all fields of human activity, as time goes by. In short, in the society of the future, woman's part as a participant in activities which add to the family income and which lie outside the home cannot be overlooked. Even where it is not necessary for the woman to shoulder any economic responsibility, she can participate in the wider life through voluntary social service organisations. To quote from the Education Commission Report (1964-66): "For full development of our human resources, the improvement of homes, and for moulding the character of children during the most impressionable years of infancy, the education of women is of even greater importance than that of men. In the modern world, the role of the woman goes much beyond the home and the bringing up of children. She is now adopting a career of her own and sharing equally

with man, the responsibility for the development of society in all its aspects. This is the direction in which we shall have to move. In the struggle for freedom, Indian women fought side by side with men. This equal partnership will have to continue in the fight against hunger, poverty, ignorance and ill-health."

Thus, a woman should be considered a full and equal partner of man not only as an individual but also as a member of society. In order to help her achieve this objective, her education, in addition to having a sound general background, should also include suitable professional and vocational courses. This alone would fully equip her in performing duties and shouldering heavy responsibilities at home as well as outside.

It does not follow from this that the education of men and women should be identical. Little thought, however, has so far been given to the education of women as women. Educational policy-makers should take the fact into account that women's interests and fields of work differ widely from those of men. Husbands and wives have to play different roles in life. Much of their education may run on parallel lines but there should be no imitation of each other. The theory of equality of opportunity is sound; but this does not necessarily mean identity of opportunity.

However, in order to keep pace with the changing pattern of society and the needs and aspirations of a developing nation, it is necessary to re-orient the form and content of the education to be imparted.

Today, on the one hand, the world has become smaller and, on the other hand, has opened up new vistas in this age of rapid discoveries and inventions. It is necessary to mobilize our resources to meet this challenge. Education has a very important role to play in this exciting drama. It is also necessary to build up a society of well-informed, articulate citizens, and provide facilities for newer and ever newer discoveries and inventions.

Needless to say, a nation cannot live just within its boundaries. An atmosphere of international understanding for better living and peaceful co-existence is also essential.



Ultimately the purpose of this philosophy is to prepare men and women, who would gain wisdom and knowledge and who would develop in themselves a sense of responsibility and contribute their mite to the future improvement of the country. As democratic citizens under a socialistic pattern of society, they should be willing to work together towards a common goal.

The foregoing briefly depicts how changes in social environment affect the aims and philosophy of a nation's education.

## CHAPTER II

### HISTORICAL RETROSPECT : 1813 TO 1947

In order to appreciate the impact of the growth and progress of women's education during the post-independence period, it is necessary to trace very briefly the history of women's education during the British period. This background will be helpful in properly understanding the trends that have followed the achievement of independence, in this field.

To get a clear picture of the growth of the education of women under the British rule, in relation to modern education, we may conveniently divide the events into the following phases :

- (1) 1813 to 1854 and the Wood's Despatch
- (2) 1854 to about 1902—the Victorian Era in Indian Education
- (3) 1902 to 1921—the Period of Transition
- (4) 1921 to 1937—Education under Dyarchy
- (5) 1937 to 1947—Education under Provincial Autonomy and Attainment of Freedom

#### **The First Phase : 1813 to 1854**

Education in India under the British rule can be said to have gained attention worth the name only from the beginning of 19th century with the Charter Act of 1813, although education still remained a minor subject. Even in 1835 Macaulay's famous Minute which contained the germs of the future policy of the East India Company towards education of Indians did not contain any reference to the needs of women's education. Under these circumstances, it was natural that the position of women's education should be most

unsatisfactory. There was complete absence of education of women in Indian society and the number of women taking domestic instruction was infinitely small.

The important enterprises which influenced official educational policy during this period can be enumerated as work by missionaries, work done by private educational bodies including British officials and non-officials.

### **The Second Phase : 1854 to 1902**

The renewal of the East India Company's Charter in 1853 emphasised the need for an inquiry into the educational policy of the Company. As the Wood's Despatch passed in 1854 laid down a detailed policy for the country's future educational reconstruction, it is very often known as 'Woods Education Despatch' and is regarded as "The Magna Carta of English Education in India". It is a very important landmark as it set forth a scheme of education far wider and more comprehensive than any suggested so far.

It contained several new schemes relating to the medium of instruction, setting up of an education department, the establishment of universities and of a network of graded schools, conditions for grant-in-aid, and finally the education and employment of women.

Women's education in the Victorian Era (1854 to 1902) can be conveniently sub-divided into two periods: (a) 1854 to 1882 and (b) 1882 to 1902.

#### **1854 to 1882**

This period, was comparatively a period of peace and tranquillity and the most harmonious relations existed between the rulers and the ruled. During this period, a very keen interest was taken by those concerned with the question of education. Education of women received its due share in this period also, as the Government assumed direct responsibility for making women literate under the Despatch of 1854. Wherever possible, special girls' schools were started by the newly created departments of education. The following

statistics for 1882 will give an idea of the progress made in this respect :

EXPANSION OF EDUCATION AMONG WOMEN 1882<sup>1</sup>

	Number of Institutions for Girls				Total No. of Scholars
	Government	Aided	Unaided but Inspected	Unaided and not Inspected	
Collegiate Schools . . .	1	..	..	..	6
Secondary Schools . . .	6	50	25	..	2,054
Primary Schools . . .	605	1,591	398	6	82,420
Mixed Schools (Primary)	..	..	..	..	42,071
Normal Schools . . .	4	11	..	..	515
TOTAL . . .	616	1,652	423	6	127,066

The main features of expansion in women's education during this period are :

- (i) concentration of pupils at the primary stage;
- (ii) slow progress in higher education;
- (iii) training of women primary teachers;
- (iv) prejudice against co-education; and
- (v) demand for differentiation of curricula.

In 1882, the Government of India appointed a Commission "to inquire into the manner in which effect had been given to the programmes of the Despatch of 1854 and to suggest such measures as it may think desirable in order to the further carrying out of the policy therein laid down".

<sup>1</sup> A History of Education in India, Syed Nurullah and J.P. Naik; 1951; p. 388

The Commission made recommendations on several issues covering almost every aspect of female education. However, the emphasis was on voluntary expansion; but this did not help to promote the programme due to lack of public support in this field. The Commission also failed in making any specific recommendation about finance. Thus, although most of the recommendations of the Commission were accepted by the Government, expansion of women's education did not take place at the rate at which it should have done.

### 1882 to 1902

During the two decades between 1882 and 1902, the education of women made slow but steady progress.

(i) *Collegiate Education*: The most significant achievement of this period was the entry of women into universities and the first two Indian women graduates passed out from the Bethune College, Calcutta, in 1883. It was not difficult for Indian universities to change their regulations to admit women to their portals as soon as the need arose. The number of women students in Indian universities rose from 6 in 1881-82 to 264 in 1901-02. Two important features of this development which attract attention are the acceptance, by the Indian society, of the principle of providing collegiate education to women and the starting of separate colleges for women, as this new departure implied resistance to orthodoxy. By 1901-02 there were as many as 12 separate colleges established for women.

(ii) *Secondary Education*: The period also witnessed the amelioration of the social position of women and an expansion in women's education. This resulted in the recognition of the need of secondary education for girls by Indian society, just as the public had accepted the necessity of elementary education for girls during the earlier part of this period.

The total number of girls studying in secondary schools in 1902 was 41,582 as against only 2,054 in 1882.

(iii) *Primary Education*: Progress here was even greater. In 1901-02 the total number of girls going to school was

348,510 (160,164 in boys' schools and 188,346 in girls' schools as against 124,491 in 1881-82.

In 1881, one girl out of every 3 was in a mixed school; in 1901-02 this ratio had gone up to one girl to one boy. This was a very welcome change as social prejudice against co-education, at least as far as primary education was concerned, was breaking down.

(iv) *Professional Education*: The statistics of 1901-02 show that the progress in this field was extremely slow:<sup>1</sup>

	Number of Women Students in 1901-02
1. Training Schools . . . . .	1,412
2. Schools of Art . . . . .	40
3. Medical Schools . . . . .	166
4. Technical or Industrial Schools . . . . .	468
5. Commercial Schools . . . . .	26
6. Other Schools . . . . .	695
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>2,807</b>

### The Third Phase: 1902 to 1921

This period presents distinctive features like provision of larger finance, a more active role assumed by the Government in education, vigorous attempts to improve education qualitatively, unprecedented expansion of education in all branches and the growth of a spirit of nationalism among the people. Lord Curzon supported the cause of women's education and a similar policy was enunciated by a Government Resolution on Education Policy (1913).

<sup>1</sup> A History of Education in India, Syed Nurullah and J. P. Naik; 1951; p. 401

This policy was important in as much as it emphasised the social aspect of the problems for overcoming social prejudice. It also sounded a note of dissatisfaction with the existing system of education which lacked practical training and was not related to the social needs of women.

This period witnessed a steady growth in the education for women at all stages as indicated below.

(a) Collegiate education expanded rapidly. 1921-22 statistics reveal that there were 1263 women reading in arts colleges as against 6 in 1882 and 177 in 1902. Quantitative progress was thus quite encouraging. Even on the qualitative side, women were showing excellent progress in examination results, exploding the age-old myth of inferiority of women. However, women had still not begun to participate in the corporate life of colleges.

A very significant step in this direction was the establishment of the Indian Women's University in 1916 by Maharshi Karve on the model of the Women's University of Japan. It laid before it the ideal of training good mothers and good wives and tried :

- (a) To make provision for the higher education of women through modern Indian languages (mother tongues) as the media of instruction;
- (b) To regulate pre-university education, to start, aid, maintain and affiliate institutions for such education and to formulate courses of studies specially suited to the needs and requirements of women;
- (c) To make provision for the training of teachers for primary and secondary schools;
- (d) To institute and confer such degrees and diplomas, titles, certificates and marks of honour in respect of degrees and examinations as may be prescribed by the regulations; and
- (e) Such other objects, not inconsistent with these, as may be added from time to time by the Senate.<sup>1</sup>

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<sup>1</sup> Constitution of the Indian Women's University; p.1

This was a great venture, private universities being unknown in India. Although the initial progress of this university was slow, a liberal donation of Rs. 15 lakh given by Sir Vithaldas Thackersey placed it on a safe financial footing and assured it of a stable future.

Today this University, located in Bombay, is known as the Shreemati Nathibai Damodar Thackersey Women's University and looks after the higher education of over 7000 girls and women every year. Though originally an unrecognised and private institution, today it enjoys full recognition and an equal status with any other university in the country.

(b) Secondary education revealed a tremendous increase in the number of pupils which in 1921-22 rose to 36,698 in high schools and 92,466 in middle schools as against 9274 and 32,308 in 1901-02.<sup>1</sup>

(c) Primary education witnessed an unprecedented expansion and the number of students rose from 348,510 in 1901-02 to 1,198,550 in 1921-22.<sup>2</sup>

(d) In professional education there was no material progress.

The picture of women's education considerably changed during this period as will be noticed from the following table :

EDUCATION OF GIRLS AND WOMEN IN INDIA 1921-22<sup>3</sup>

	Number of Girls under Instruction
<i>Colleges for :</i>	
Medicine . . . . .	197
Teaching . . . . .	67
Commerce . . . . .	2
	266

<sup>1</sup> A History of Education in India, Syed Nurullah and J. P. Naik; 1951; p. 575

<sup>2</sup> A History of Education in India, Syed Nurullah and J.P. Naik; 1951; p. 580

<sup>3</sup> Report of the National Committee on Women's Education (May 1958 to January 1959) ; Ministry of Education, Government of India; 1959; pp. 24-25



<i>Schools for :</i>	Number of Girls under Instruction
Teaching . . . . .	3,903
Art . . . . .	32
Medicine . . . . .	334
Technical and Industrial Careers . . . . .	2,744
Commercial Careers . . . . .	308
Agriculture . . . . .	79
Other Careers . . . . .	3,170
	10,570
<b>GRAND TOTAL</b>	<b>10,836</b>

An increasing number of girls was now attracted to new careers; and besides teaching and medicine, commerce and agriculture were gaining gradual popularity.

#### **The Fourth Phase: 1921 to 1937**

Factors which helped in the expansion of women's education during the period under review are: rise in the age of marriage, greater political and social awakening of women, specially under the leadership of Mahatma Gandhi, a new leadership rising in their midst which led to greater education, and the establishment of the All India Women's Conference (1926).

In spite of expansion, the total education of women was comparatively very low as the number of girls being educated was only 2.38% of the total population.

A stage was now reached for introducing a planned, comprehensive and large-scale drive for the education of women. This view was shared by the Hartog Committee which expressed the opinion that education is not the privilege of one sex only but equally the right of both the sexes and

felt that in the interest of the advance of Indian education as a whole, priority should be given to the education of women in every scheme of expansion.

### The Fifth Phase : 1937 to 1947

During this period, higher education of women saw rapid progress. As the volume of total employment increased, more and more women became career-minded and Indian society very gradually, though grudgingly, began accepting this new change.

The following table describes the position of education of women in 1946-47 :

#### EDUCATION OF WOMEN 1946-47<sup>1</sup>

Type of Institution	No. of Institutions	Scholars
<i>General Education</i>		
Universities . . . . .	..	..
Arts and Science Colleges . . . . .	59	17,648
High Schools . . . . .	576	178,341
Middle Schools . . . . .	1,187	177,784
Primary Schools . . . . .	14,330	2,833,096
<i>Special Education</i>		
Professional and Technical Colleges . . . . .	3	1,768
Training Colleges . . . . .	11	660
Training Schools . . . . .	188	10,483
Other Special Schools . . . . .	594	27,864
Unrecognised Institutions . . . . .	537	46,604
	17,485	3,494,248

N. B. (1) Students in universities are not included.

(2) These figures refer to the Indian Union only.

<sup>1</sup> A History of Education in India, Syed Nurullah and J. P. Naik; 1951; p. 799

Reviewing the progress achieved in women's education during the British period, the following controversies and movements can be said to have affected the question one way or another.

Credit for a remarkable change in this direction must be given to social workers and British administrators who brought about a gradual change in public opinion in support of the education of women. The story of women's education in India is largely one of private enterprise.

In order to appreciate the achievement of the progress in this field, admittedly a very slow one, we should understand the social position of women. The customs of the purdah and segregation of womenfolk were prevalent among Muslims, while Hindu women were faced with problems of child marriage, *sati*, absence of divorce, enforced asceticism for widows, *devdasis*, female infanticide and a very strong social prejudice against the very idea of education of women. The greatest single contribution in overcoming this obstacle and raising the position of women during this period was made by Mahatma Gandhi. He was a strong advocate of equality of men and women. The following words quoted from his writings emphasise his views on this subject :

"I am uncompromising in the matter of woman's rights. In my opinion she should labour under no legal disability not suffered by men. I should treat daughters and sons on a footing of equality".

The fight put up under Mahatma Gandhi's lead during the various movements against a foreign power helped women to secure emancipation. In this Indian Renaissance women walked hand in hand with men and fought shoulder to shoulder with them against an alien rule. This fight helped women to achieve emancipation and gave them a status which is worthy of the best traditions of Indian culture.

This period thus helped in gradually overcoming public prejudice against women going in for education at various levels and also entering professional fields as career-women.

A band of workers who could participate intelligently in the social, political and economic problems grew up due to this new development.

Another feature of this period was the increasing demand for mixed schools, popularising co-education.

In spite of the above encouraging trends, the over-all education of women was still very backward as the number of girls educated was still only 2.38% of the total population. The following table will help in giving the reader a comparative picture to show the gap that existed between the education of boys and girls, and men and women and the tremendous task that lay ahead to make up the leeway:

EDUCATION OF GIRLS AND WOMEN IN INDIA<sup>1</sup>  
1946-47

	No. of Boys Enrolled	No. of Girls Enrolled	Total	No. of Girls for Every 100 Boys at School
Universities and Colleges of General Education	175,854	20,304	196,158	12
Colleges of Professional and Special Education	41,234	2,903	44,137	7
High Schools . . .	1,912,667	280,772	2,193,439	14
Middle Schools . . .	1,459,882	321,508	1,781,390	22
Primary Schools . . .	9,561,083	3,475,165	13,036,248	36
Other Special Schools . . .	442,801	56,090	498,891	12
TOTAL . . .	13,593,521	4,156,742	17,750,263	30

N.B. : Unrecognised institutions are excluded.

<sup>1</sup>Report of the National Committee on Women's Education; Ministry of Education, Government of India; 1959; p. 28

When India achieved independence, the education of women was about a hundred and thirty years old. During this period, it may be said, there was improvement both quantitatively as well as qualitatively, but in so far as the comparison is limited only to the Indian context. However, the pace was very slow. Even boys' education in India, compared to other countries, was distinctively backward. The tremendous gap that existed between the education of girls and boys, and men and women in India showed that the position of girls' education was still worse.

Another important point to be noted was that education of women was mostly concentrated in urban areas. In rural areas, there was practically no education worth the name.

The pace of women's education was mainly left to private efforts; and as private effort was more or less limited to urban areas, rural areas naturally remained backward. Lack of funds and lack of adequate machinery to deal with this tremendous problem were mainly responsible for this deplorable state of affairs.

## CHAPTER III

### TRENDS OF EXPANSION IN WOMEN'S EDUCATION IN THE POST-INDEPENDENCE PERIOD

The post-independence period has been one of rapid expansion as far as the quantitative aspect of women's education is concerned. However, the apparent progress cannot be described as satisfactory in relation to the over-all expansion of education in the country; and the education of girls and women in the first two decades after independence leaves much to be desired. The following tables give a revealing picture of the lag between the education of boys and girls and that of men and women at different levels :

#### EDUCATION OF GIRLS AND WOMEN IN INDIA 1949-50 AND 1965-66

	Institutions for the Education of Girls		Institutions for the Education of Boys	
	1949-50	1965-66†	1949-50	1965-66†
Universities and Research Institutions	1	1	42	118*
Colleges of General Educa- tion	66	230	401	1,440
Colleges of Professional and Technical Education	17	389	169	2,301
Colleges of Special/Other Education.	6	16	60	1,216
Secondary Schools	997	3,879	5,685	23,050
Middle Schools	1,588	6,813	11,332	69,013
Primary Schools	13,972	24,876	190,854	363,742
Pre-Primary Schools	65	356	210	2,921
Schools of Vocational & Technical Education	438	582	1,590	2,282
Schools for Special/Other Education	6,917	142,935	44,893	77,247
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>24,067</b>	<b>180,477</b>	<b>255,236</b>	<b>543,330</b>

† Figures are provisional.

\* Excludes 2 institutions which have been shown against colleges.

**EDUCATION OF GIRLS AND WOMEN IN INDIA  
1949-50 AND 1965-66**

	Number of Girls Attending Different Types of Educational Institutions		Number of Boys Attending Different Types of Educational Institutions	
	1949-50	1965-66*	1949-50	1965-66*
Universities and Research Institutions	2,063	20,208	24,431	104,285
Colleges of General Education	36,313	278,718	253,565	849,227
Colleges of Professional and Technical Education	3,606	96,465	42,914	529,186
Colleges of Special Education	811	8,280	4,501	87,427
Secondary Schools	498,227	3,264,509	2,289,069	8,739,603
Middle Schools	394,952	5,767,930	1,544,271	10,895,923
Primary Schools	4,851,559	12,593,496	12,566,985	23,646,673
Pre-Primary Schools	8,570	106,799	9,485	123,965
Schools of Vocational and Technical Education	35,714	91,429	125,769	189,358
Schools of Special Education	179,505	645,059	1,116,299	1,130,165
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>6,011,320</b>	<b>22,866,893</b>	<b>17,977,289</b>	<b>46,295,812</b>

\* Figures are provisional.

**EDUCATION OF GIRLS AND WOMEN IN INDIA  
1949-50 AND 1965-66**

	Number of Women Teachers		Number of Men Teachers	
	1949-50	1965-66*	1949-50	1965-66*
Universities and Colleges	1,813	17,444	17,290	112,174
Secondary Schools	18,656	97,071	97,501	325,980
Middle Schools	12,078	122,933	66,787	386,751
Primary Schools	79,339	201,286	38,559	782,518
Pre-Primary Schools	538	5,850	190	698
Vocational and Technical Schools	2,928	3,690	8,313	14,832
Special Education Schools	1,314	4,676	16,534	23,252
<b>TOTAL</b>	116,666	452,950	654,174	1,646,205

\*Figures are provisional.

### **The Widening Disparity**

As will be observed from the above tables, in 1949-50 the number of girls under instruction for every hundred boys enrolled was 33, and it went up to only 49 by 1965-66. It shows that to reach parity between the education of boys and that of girls at this rate of progress, a very long time would be required.

Even the targets fixed for the First and Second Plans for women's education tended to widen this disparity. These unsatisfactory results are mainly due to :

- (i) The lead given by the Sargeant Report that a stage had already been reached when it was not necessary to treat the problem of women's education as a special one ;



- (ii) No adequate machinery was created to meet the problem ; and
- (iii) No special funds were allocated for the development of women's education in the Central and State budgets and the Plans.

### **The National Committee and After**

In order to find out ways and means to meet this very vital problem, the Government of India in 1958, appointed a committee known as the National Committee on Women's Education. It was asked to recommend special measures to bridge the gap between girls' education and boys' education at the primary and secondary levels.

After considering this important question from various angles, the Committee made important recommendations, the more pertinent of which are described below.

The Committee recommended that the education of women must be given special attention for at least some years to come and a special machinery should be created to solve it. It strongly recommended that if any substantial progress in the direction of women's education was to be made effective, special funds must be allotted in the various Plan periods for furthering and developing this programme. As far as this was concerned, it recommended that a sum of not less than Rs. 10 crore, in addition to provision already made, should be earmarked for the education of girls and women during the remaining period of the Second Five Year Plan and an adequate special provision made for such education in the Third Plan.

It recommended that this amount should be utilised for the development of middle and secondary schools for girls, towards training institutions for women, for the construction of hostels and staff quarters and for organising special educational facilities for adult women. As the education of women in rural areas in particular was at a very low ebb, it recommended that liberal grants should be given for meeting this special need.

The University Grants Commission was also urged to set apart a special fund for the higher education of women.

At the Centre, the Committee suggested the creation of a National Council for Women's Education, for guidance, leadership and advice, with a special unit in the Ministry of Education to look after this aspect of the question. At the State level, it recommended the setting up of State Councils for Girls' and Women's Education and the appointment of women deputy joint directors in the directorate specifically to look after the educational needs of girls.

The Committee also considered major problems relating to the education of women like increased enrolment at different levels of age-groups, wastage and stagnation, co-education and differentiation of curricula, employment of women, training facilities for women teachers, vocational courses for women, the role of voluntary organisations in promoting girls' education and similar other questions emerging out of the above.

The Government of India generally accepted the recommendations made by the National Committee and decided to accord a very high priority to this question in the Third Five Year Plan (1961-66).

The Union Ministry of Education set up the National Council for Women's Education in 1959. A special unit was created subsequently in the Ministry to deal with issues arising out of programmes formulated to further the cause. Most of the State Governments have also established State Councils for Women's Education. The main functions of the National Council are :<sup>1</sup>

- (a) To advise the Government on issues relating to the education of girls at the school level and also of adult women ;
- (b) To suggest policies, programmes, targets and priorities for the expansion and improvement of the education of girls and women in the fields stated in (a);

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<sup>1</sup>The National Council for Women's Education-First Annual Report (1959-60); Ministry of Education, Government of India; 1960; p.1

- (c) To suggest measures for utilising to the furthest extent, voluntary efforts made in the field ;
- (d) To suggest suitable measures for educating public opinion in this behalf ;
- (e) To assess the progress achieved from time to time and suggest evaluation of work done or being done, carefully watching the pace of such progress ; and
- (f) To recommend collection of special data on the relevant problems and to recommend sample surveys and research projects and to hold seminars as may be deemed necessary from time to time.

It was also decided that a woman not connected with the Government should be appointed chairman of this Council and accordingly, the first Chairman appointed by the Ministry of Education was Smt. Durgabai Deshmukh.

The targets laid down by the Council for the Third Plan were.<sup>1</sup>

- (i) The education of girls should be as fully developed as that of boys in the age-group 6-11 ;
- (ii) The number of girls enrolled in the age-group 11-14 should be at least half that of boys in the same age-group ;
- (iii) The number of girls enrolled in the age-group 14-17 in the secondary stage should be at least one third that of boys in the same age-group ;
- (iv) Education of girls at the university stage should be expanded as much as possible ; and
- (v) Special educational facilities in the form of condensed courses to prepare adult women for passing the middle or matriculation examination should be so organised as to ensure two such courses in every block of hundred villages.

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<sup>1</sup> Ibid ; pp. 4 and 5.

The National Council has so far held ten meetings and has made a number of recommendations. It has also set up special committees to consider major problems affecting the education of women.

### **The Present Position and the Trends**

By the end of the Third Plan (1965-66), it is estimated that the percentage of girls at school in the age-groups at the primary, middle and secondary stages were 54.6, 15.6 and 7.7 respectively.

Although the disparity between the enrolment of boys and girls is gradually narrowing, it is still very appreciable. The progress in terms of enrolment dealt with individually is satisfactory, but the targets set earlier as a whole were not reached. The estimated achievement by the end of the Third Plan in the age-group 6-11 shows a shortfall of 26.4% on the revised targets. Against the original target of additional enrolment of 9.4 million (revised 8.55 million) the estimated achievement was 6.29 million. In 11-14 age-group the original Third Plan target for additional enrolment of girls was 1.48 million and the revised target, 1.31 million, the estimated achievement was 1.19 million, a shortfall of 9.2% on the revised target. At the secondary stage the target of additional enrolment was, however, exceeded; the estimated achievement was .62 million as against the target of .43 million. The percentage of women to the total population, according to the 1961 census, is about 49 (240 million out of 490 million). In 1951, the percentage of literates among females was 8 which increased to 13 by 1961, as against the literacy percentage of 25 (1951) to 35 (1961) for males. These figures indicate the magnitude of the task that lies ahead.

The above would reveal that the country has not been able to achieve the very modest objectives that the National Council for Women's Education set for the Third Plan in so far as education for girls at the school stage is concerned. This has further retarded progress towards providing universal elementary education for all children till they complete 14 years of age, enshrined in the Directive in Article 45 of our Constitution. At the primary stage, boys' enrolment at present is 94.9 per cent of the corresponding age-group population, whereas the enrolment of girls is much lower, only

54.6%, the number of enrolled girls for every 100 such boys being about 50. At the middle stage the disparity widens further, the number of enrolled girls for every 100 such boys being only 40. Thus the fulfilment of the Constitutional Directive rests mostly on providing universal education for girls in the near future.

The Education Commission (1964-66), with regard to the fulfilment of the Constitutional Directive, has recommended that good and effective education of five years' duration for 6-11 age-group children should be provided for every child by 1975-76 and seven years of such education by 1985-86. To help achieve the immediate objective, the National Council for Women's Education has, in its tenth meeting held in February, 1968, recommended that at least 90 per cent of girls of the age-group 6-11 should be enrolled in classes I-V during the Fourth Plan period—1969-70 to 1973-74.

With regard to expansion in secondary education for girls, the Education Commission has recommended that "efforts should be made to accelerate the expansion of girls' education so that the proportion of girls to boys reaches 1:2 at the lower secondary stage and 1:3 at the higher secondary stage in 20 years", the present proportions respectively being 1:3 and 1:5.

Contrary to what is generally believed, special attention is equally necessary at the higher level in regard to women's education. India woefully lacks educated womanpower in a large variety of professions and occupations. Although the proportion of women students in the total enrolment in university stage has increased from 13 per cent in 1955-56 to 21 per cent in 1965-66, the rate of expansion is not in keeping with the changing needs of Indian society particularly with regard to the country's economic and social development. The Education Commission (1964-66) feels that the percentage of women students at this stage should be increased to 33 during the next 10 years.

Unfortunately, the age-old traditions of the Indian society still pose a great hindrance to the progress of higher education for women. For a more thorough treatment of these retarding factors, we refer our readers to the next chapter.

## CHAPTER IV

### WOMEN'S ACCESS TO HIGHER EDUCATION

The entry of woman into the field of higher education has been made possible after crossing many a hurdle. The famous instance of Cornelia Sorabji who had to face tremendous resistance from the Universities of Bombay and Calcutta even as late as in 1875 reveals how access to higher education was secured by women after facing innumerable social difficulties.

The very emergence of the Women's University is itself a concrete illustration of how higher education for women had to be ushered in against great social and cultural odds.

A casual glance at the figures about education will clearly indicate that though women's education has been progressing and more particularly after independence, still it is limited, not merely at the higher level; it is highly restricted even at the elementary and secondary levels. There is another characteristic revealed by these figures. They indicate that the gap between boys' education and girls' education at all levels is extremely wide.

#### PERCENTAGES OF LITERATES AMONG PERSONS AGED 10 AND OVER, BY SEX, 1891-1961<sup>1</sup>

Year	Both Sexes Combined	Men	Women
1891	6.1	11.4	0.5
1901	6.2	11.5	0.7
1911	7.0	12.6	1.1
1921	8.3	14.2	1.9
1931	9.2	15.4	2.4
1941	15.1	27.4	6.9
1951	16.6	24.9	7.9
1961	23.7	33.9	12.8

<sup>1</sup>Source : *The Development of Modern Indian Education*, Srivastava B.D.; 1963; p. 418

The gap between men's and women's education widens at every stage of higher education. In 1946-1947 for every 100 boys at universities and colleges of general education there were only 12 girls, and at colleges of professional and special education for every 100 boys there were only 7 girls.<sup>1</sup>

The state of affairs revealed in the above figures is the result of some of the social as well as educational deficiencies which exist in the present situation.

### **The Social Deficiencies**

The deadweight of traditional prejudice against woman taking to education is still operating as a powerful brake upon her entering into the portals of higher education. Though it is true that at the primary and secondary levels, social resistance for education of girls is slowly diminishing, yet at the higher levels the prejudice in favour of boys' education still persists. Higher education for boys is still viewed as more vital, as they are considered as the main bread-winners of the family. Women's higher education is mostly a casualty when a choice has to be made in the family between educating a girl and a boy. Further, whenever stresses and strains affect the family, it is the girl who has to be discriminated against with regard to education. Even the view that the daughter ultimately belongs to the husband's family, discourages parents from allowing daughters to pursue higher education.

The access to higher education for women is denied also because of another reason. The relative high cost of instruction for higher education, and particularly for the professional courses, at times, prevents continuation of women's studies at these levels.

Further the social discrimination arising out of a faulty approach with regard to woman is revealed in another situation. As all of us are aware, in the Indian family, girls, though they may be taking the same type of education as boys, are expected to participate more actively in domestic

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<sup>1</sup>Ministry of Education : Report of the National Committee on Women's Education; 1959; pp. 28,31

work. These responsibilities and duties at home leave very little time to girls to devote enough time to studies. This approach plays also a very prominent part in hindering the girl from taking up some suitable technical or professional course.

The prevalence, even today, of the custom of early marriage in our society is yet another social obstacle against women taking to higher education. In the context of the Indian setting, where marriage is still considered to be the central object of a woman's life, her early marriage, wherever it prevails, almost completely blocks her way to higher education.

Marriage acts as a deterrent against her taking to higher education in another way also. Marriage is still predominantly limited to the caste or the sub-caste of the girl. The level of education of boys amongst all castes is not uniformly high. The general expectation is for the boy to be superior in educational qualifications to his future wife. In such an environment, the education of girls which may possibly be higher than or even equal to that of boys whom they are likely to marry, is viewed with disfavour and positively discouraged.

Another cultural prejudice that a highly educated girl would be less amenable to family discipline, also operates as an obstacle to the higher education of women. It is still taken, as an unconscious assumption, that a highly educated wife would find it difficult to adjust herself to family life, and may even perhaps play a disruptive role in day-to-day existence.

Another faulty idea prevalent in society is that even the fundamental role of woman as a wife and as a mother in the family can be performed without acquiring necessary skills and knowledge. This assumption is revealed in the fact that our educational system considers imparting of such skills and knowledge as of very minor significance. As Dr. D. P. Mukherjee pertinently pointed out, "girl's education avoids wife-craft, mother-craft and mother-in-law-craft." In this

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<sup>1</sup>Status of Women in South Asia, Dr. Appadorai, A. (ed); 1954 and Indian Women and the Modern Family, Mukerji D.P.; p. 71



connection it will not be irrelevant to mention that the history of the SNDT Women's University is, to some extent, a history of a fight against this wrong approach.

### **The Educational Defects**

Along with the social and cultural handicaps which prevent women from taking to higher education, mention may also be made of the fact that some of the defects prevailing in our higher educational system are responsible for retarding the growth of higher education among our women.

As the Radhakrishnan Commission has pointed out, "Little thought has been given to the education of women as women. Women must share the same programme as men or go without it. There are ways in which many women's interests or appropriate fields of work diverge from those of men, and educational programmes should take that fact into account."<sup>1</sup>

Though after independence the Government of India are consciously endeavouring to provide larger and larger amounts for education in general and for women's education in particular, it must regretfully be pointed out that the funds allotted are still inadequate. The allocation of funds at times suffers from inappropriateness with regard to the objects for which they are granted. This deficiency is more vividly felt in the context of women's education at the higher level. The requirements for funds for encouraging higher education need a different type of allocations. In this connection, it may be stated that so far as higher education is concerned we are almost at the same stage of development at which the early pioneers of the 19th century were, with regard to encouraging education of girls at the elementary level. The workers in the field of higher education for women will have to make special efforts to evolve devices which will provide inducements to girls as well as parents to take to higher education. Special financial allocations attempting to overcome the pecuniary obstacles will have to be very carefully worked out.

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<sup>1</sup>The Report of the University Education Commission; Ministry of Education, Government of India; 1963; Vol. I; p. 393

The Education Commission (1964-66) has rightly stressed the urgent need of adopting on a liberal scale two programmes, viz., (i) a programme of scholarships and financial assistance to women students in colleges and universities, and (ii) a programme of a large-scale provision of suitable and economical hostel accommodation with all the necessary amenities, particularly for girls from rural areas taking to higher education.

In the context of the special setting within which Indian womanhood lives, it must be pointed out that our present educational structure is highly rigid and operates on the basis of certain assumptions which are basically man-oriented. Our present educational set-up often ignores a vital reality. It consists in the fact that womanhood in India has to perform diverse functions. Girls coming for education have different settings, different problems and different goals. Expectations by the society from different sections of girls are also different. In this situation, to frame the educational set-up on the basis of a uniform programme of education for women in general would be highly injurious to the educational interests of women. For this reason, the problems of curricula, of timings, of external and internal degrees, of diversity of courses as well as provision of short specialized courses at the higher levels and the mode and medium of imparting education acquire special significance. All these problems which vitally affect the higher education of women, demand a highly flexible and experimental approach towards creating an adequate educational framework for giving a push to the higher education of women.

Another difficulty confronting the higher education of women lies in the fact that an efficient organisation for counselling students has not developed to a very great extent in our country. This deficiency is more acutely felt by women students because, as indicated above, they suffer more from acute personal, social and emotional problems requiring very special and personal attention.

Our experiments in higher education are still being conducted in the face of difficulties common to all pioneers. They are still vague and remind one of the apt observations

made by Kate Mueller in connection with the education of women in the United States of America. As pointed out by her, "In current higher education therefore the ills and deficiencies have accumulated and been aggravated—especially so, it seems, for women. Parents and educators disagree on objectives; students claim the right to choose their own goals, which includes the right to choose unwisely and to repent later; liberal arts curriculums refuse to be compromised; tradition outweighs current needs; improvements are twisted out of shape by economics; and good intentions get lost in red-tape."

To sum up, the tasks confronting those striving for the education of women are very complex and demand a very carefully worked out approach, plan and patient labour.

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<sup>1</sup>Educating Women for A Changing World, Mueller, Kate; 1954; p.7

## CHAPTER V

### THE PROBLEMS AND THE FUTURE

The scope and sphere of women's education and the education of boys and girls studying together differ on material points. With the new Fourth Plan already embarked upon, it is very necessary to lay down definite aims, objectives and targets for women's education. There is still a long way to go in this direction and hence, women's education should be one of the priority programmes in any plan of educational reconstruction and national development.

#### Aims and Objectives Defined

It is but natural that on this all-important problem, definite aims and objectives should be drawn up by every committee and commission that has met to consider it.

The traditional aims in the different reports have emphasised sharing of "the life and thought and interests of the times" by men and women and finding increasing expression in practice for "equality of opportunity" for men and women which should not be confused with "identity of opportunity". It is also agreed that "the general purpose and objective of women's education cannot, of course, be different from the purpose and objective of men's education. However, there are vital differences in which this purpose has to be realised". The National Committee on Women's Education has rightly stated : "Both as an individual and as a member of society woman should be considered as an equal of man and a full partner in life, and all facilities and opportunities should be offered to her to develop her individuality and become a real partner".

In view of the above statements, the following objectives would help in deciding the future educational policy on women's education in the country.

- (a) To prepare an enlightened unit of society by treating woman as an individual. This new basis would

give scope to our women for developing their special gifts, aptitudes and interests, enabling them to live not only a happy and healthy life but also a socially creative life.

- (b) To give her the right training: keeping in view the fact that she is the future wife and mother of the family.
- (c) To prepare her for making her individual contribution to the economic progress of the country.

Some of the difficulties relating to women's education have been dealt with earlier. An all-out effort on the part of the Government and the various non-official voluntary organisations is necessary to meet this challenge, bearing in mind the fact that no expenditure incurred on women's education can be considered too high.

Higher education of women was not one of the terms of reference for the National Committee of Women's Education. Nevertheless, it has made some special recommendations on this subject although it was not dealt with by them in detail. In these days of great economic stress, higher education for women has become a necessity to enable them to discharge their economic responsibility to the family. Such training is no longer meant to be a source of mere intellectual pleasure, as might have been the case in the more prosperous days of yore.

The rapid and healthy growth of women's education calls for five-fold measures. The social system, the educational system in its internal aspects, inducement to women for taking to higher education, agencies for education and research facilities, are all in need of improvement. It has been rightly pointed out that the future of Indian women's education could be rightly envisaged only when the complex interplay of factors could be understood and appreciated.

Before we suggest what lines should be taken up in various fields, a brief recounting of the gap in the education of girls and boys will not perhaps be superfluous here to bring problems into proper focus.

### Gap between the Education of Boys and Girls

Neglect of women's education is the main cause leading to the wide gap found between the education of boys and girls and of men and women.

This is revealed by a study of the position prevailing when India achieved independence.

In 1947, the total enrolment of girls in primary schools in India was 3,475,165, in secondary schools it was 602,280 and at the collegiate level it was 23,207. In addition, there were 56,090 girls reading in special schools and 141,043 in unrecognised institutions.

While comparing these figures of girls going in for education at different levels with those of boys, it is found that in 1946-47 for every 100 boys in primary schools the number of girls was 36. The corresponding figure at the middle school stage was 22, at the secondary school stage it was 14 and at the university stage it was only 12.

This position has not altered strikingly during the successive Plan periods, although there has been a rapid all-round expansion of educational facilities. During the first two Plans, the additional enrolment at all stages of education was 21.7 million and out of these 7.6 million were girls. The estimate of additional enrolment during the Third Plan period is 15.74 millions of pupils out of whom 8.25 million are girls. This expansion is more in the primary and middle school stages as will be seen from the following tables :

#### (i) PRIMARY EDUCATION\*

Year	Enrolment in Classes I-V (In Millions)			Percentage of Population in Age-Group 6-11		
	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1950-51	13.77	5.38	19.15	59.8	24.6	42.6
1955-56	17.53	7.64	25.17	70.3	32.4	55.9
1960-61	23.59	11.40	34.99	81.4	41.9	62.3

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1961—62 . . .	25.90	13.08	38.98	86.9	46.6	67.4
1962—63 . . .	27.68	14.41	42.09	90.3	49.8	70.6
1963—64 . . .	29.12	15.43	44.55	92.6	50.8	72.0
1964—65 . . .	31.05	17.17	48.22	95.7	54.2	74.9
1965—66 . . . (Provisional)	31.72	17.69	49.41	94.9	54.6	75.1

## (ii) MIDDLE SCHOOL EDUCATION\*

Year	Enrolment in Classes VI-VIII (In Millions)			Percentage of Population in Age-Group 11-14		
	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1950—51 . . .	2.59	0.53	3.12	20.7	4.5	12.7
1955—56 . . .	3.42	0.87	4.29	25.5	6.9	16.5
1960—61 . . .	5.08	1.63	6.71	35.9	12.1	24.3
1961—62 . . .	5.61	1.84	7.45	37.8	13.1	25.8
1962—63 . . .	6.17	2.16	8.33	39.9	14.6	27.5
1963—64 . . .	6.68	2.36	9.04	40.4	14.9	27.9
1964—65 . . .	7.18	2.61	9.79	42.3	16.1	29.4
1965—66 . . . (Provisional)	7.62	2.82	10.44	43.8	15.6	30.6

## (iii) SECONDARY EDUCATION\*

Year	Enrolment in Classes IX-XI (In Millions)			Percentage of Population in Age-Group 14-17		
	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1950-51 . . .	1.02	0.20	1.22	8.7	1.8	5.3
1955-56 . . .	1.58	0.30	1.88	12.8	2.6	7.8
1960-61 . . .	2.41	0.55	2.96	18.5	4.4	11.7
1961-62 . . .	2.71	0.64	3.35	20.6	5.0	12.4
1962-63 . . .	3.11	0.75	3.86	22.5	5.7	14.1
1963-64 . . .	3.14	0.86	4.00	20.7	6.7	13.5
1964-65 . . .	3.53	1.03	4.56	22.7	7.0	15.0
1965-66 . . . (Provisional)	3.85	1.17	5.02	24.2	7.7	16.1

## (iv) UNIVERSITY EDUCATION\*

Year	Enrolment in University Stage,—Arts, Science and Commerce (In Millions)			Percentage of Population in Age-Group 17-23		
	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1950-51 . . .	0.322	0.040	0.362	1.5	0.2	0.8
1955-56 . . .	0.550	0.084	0.634	2.4	0.4	1.4
1960-61 . . .	0.729	0.148	0.877	2.9	0.6	1.8
1961-62 . . .	0.789	0.173	0.962	3.0	0.7	1.9
1962-63 . . .	0.860	0.200	1.060	3.2	0.8	2.0
1963-64 . . .	0.910	0.230	1.140	3.4	0.9	2.2
1964-65 . . .	1.030	0.280	1.310	3.8	1.1	2.5
1965-66 . . . (Provisional)	1.100	0.300	1.400	3.9	1.1	2.6



## (v) PROPORTION OF BOYS AND GIRLS AT VARIOUS STAGES\*

Year	Classes I-V		Classes VI-VIII		Classes IX-XI		University Stage	
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1950—51	71.9	28.1	83.0	17.0	83.6	16.4	88.9	11.1
1955—56	69.6	30.4	79.7	20.3	84.0	16.0	86.8	13.2
1960—61	67.4	32.6	75.3	24.3	81.2	18.5	83.1	16.9
1961—62	66.5	33.5	75.3	24.7	81.2	18.8	82.0	18.0
1962—63	65.8	34.2	74.1	25.9	80.9	19.1	81.1	18.9
1963—64	65.4	34.6	73.9	26.1	78.5	21.5	79.8	20.2
1964—65	64.4	35.6	73.3	26.7	77.4	22.6	78.6	21.4
1965—66 (Provisional)	64.2	35.8	73.0	27.0	76.7	23.3	78.6	21.4

Some of the main difficulties in the progress of girls' education are :

- (1) Poor economic condition of parents and the consequent need for children to contribute their quota of work at home ;
- (2) Conservatism and illiteracy of parents and their apathy to education ;
- (3) Age-old customs like early and expensive marriages and the purdah ;
- (4) Lack of proper physical facilities like school accommodation, hostel facilities, transport arrangements, creches and pre-primary schools ;

\*Report of the Committee to Look into the Causes for Lack of Public Support particularly in Rural Areas for Girls Education and to Enlist Public Co-operation; Ministry of Education, Government of India, 1956; pp. 9-11

- (5) Lack of proper security measures for girl students and women teachers ;
- (6) Lack of qualified women teachers ;
- (7) Lack of awareness of the necessity of education of girls in rural areas ;
- (8) Inadequacy of funds ;
- (9) Parents' preference for boys' education to girls' education ;
- (10) Inadequate means of communication in rural areas.

Some of the measures suggested to combat the problem are :

- (a) Free education for girls up to the secondary stage;
- (b) Establishing girls' hostels and opening more separate schools in backward areas ;
- (c) Awarding scholarships to girl students and increased free studentships ; supply of free textbooks, stationery and midday meals ;
- (d) Arranging transport for girls ;
- (e) Ensuring the safety of girl students and women teachers ;
- (f) Providing better service conditions and residential facilities for women teachers ;
- (g) Enlightening parents through programmes of social education and publicity ;
- (h) Posting husband-and-wife teachers in the same station as far as possible ;
- (i) Opening schools nearer girls' homes or alternatively providing proper transport facilities ;
- (j) Opening hostels for working women and women students.

### **Far-Reaching Changes Required**

In order to bridge the gap between the and women and also to realise that women

merely an item of consumption but a solid investment, certain far-reaching changes are necessary. We will briefly refer to them.

#### A. REFORM IN SOCIAL ORGANISATION

One of the major improvements necessary in this field is a strict vigilance on the part of the State for the enforcement of the already existing legislation on the age of marriage, the dowry system and compulsory education. Secondly, in order to break through the wall of prejudice against women's education, perennial drives for emphasising the necessity of educating girls should be undertaken by social workers, community development officials, active women workers and even political leaders.

Further, a new prestige value around educated girls should be built up which will slowly lead to the desired goal. The precept, "educate a woman and you educate the whole generation", has to be put into practice. A climate in favour of girls' education has to be generated not only at the primary level but also at the secondary and collegiate levels. The common slander of the educated wife being a bane to the family requires to be repudiated.

In this context, problems of our rural areas acquire tremendous significance.

It has been generally observed that the spread of women's education is more restricted to urban areas—rural areas which occupy a much larger area of the country being neglected. Some of the factors responsible for the very low percentage of literacy in rural India are parents' apathy and indifference to the education of girls. They feel that money spent on the education of womenfolk is an expensive luxury. Social customs like early marriages, the purdah and the customs of dowry act as further deterrents to the progress of education of women and specially so of rural women. Lack of suitable and adequate schooling facilities and paucity of women teachers are other factors affecting their education. Unless public support is paid to this very important aspect, it will list Public Co-operatway worth the name, and will always keep

1956; pp. 9-11

down the comparative percentage of women's education. In order to do better justice to women in rural areas it is necessary to lay down different aims and measures for training women in urban and in rural areas and make plans accordingly.

Bold steps and a bolder view should be taken in this respect to make this programme effective. Some of the suggestions which may be considered are : prescribing different courses, giving due emphasis to a craft suitable to the area (this may differ from place to place), introducing special certificate courses of a terminal nature and a shorter duration of studies with scope for continuing them through correspondence courses and fixing school hours to suit the requirements of the rural areas. Compact courses of an integrated nature will prove beneficial. Strong incentives for teachers to work in rural areas by offering rural allowances and comfortable living conditions, opening more schools, endowing a large number of scholarships and giving preference to village women teachers would help solve this urgent problem to some extent.

The suggestion for separate courses made above is with a view to providing a different type of education for girls in rural areas which would help them in furthering their education and not with a view to providing differentiated curricula.

This programme would give scope for part-time employment and thus the wastage of qualified and educated women can be somewhat reduced.

In rural areas, the programme of social education and girls' education should go hand in hand. Moreover, co-operation of elderly women to work as school mothers should be sought, as this will help in counteracting traditional prejudices against girls' education.

Social and voluntary organisations can evolve an effective plan for building up public opinion in rural areas and mitigating the evils of some of the age-old social customs. Audio-visual aids should be used freely to mobilise public opinion for the promotion of girls' education. Some of the measures which would help in creating this climate would be :

organising women's education weeks, carrying on social education work among adult women and associating village women and women's clubs with the work of increasing enrolment of girls. An "army of women" will be required to go round and impress upon the rural community the urgent need of educating its womenfolk.

#### B. REFORMS IN THE INTERNAL STRUCTURE OF OUR EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

Along with improvement in the socio-economic framework of Indian society, it is also necessary to introduce modifications in the internal structure of our educational system. Recognising its importance, the National Council of Women's Education undertook to examine in a comprehensive manner this problem at different levels and appointed in 1962 what has come to be called as the Committee on Differentiation of Curricula between Boys and Girls under the chairmanship of Smt. Hansa Mehta. The committee met a number of times during 1962-63 and made far-reaching recommendations.

The problems of differentiation of curricula and co-education go hand in hand and hence they will be considered in that light.

During the last 150 years, public attitude towards education has changed considerably. At the primary stage it is now the general policy to provide common schools and a mixed staff for both boys and girls, although at several institutions the staff mainly consists of women teachers. In spite of this policy, there is still a demand for separate schools, although the percentage of girls studying in separate primary schools has declined from 66.7 in 1881-82 to 18.8 in 1959-60 and continued to decline progressively. At present at this stage 85 per cent of girls enrolled are in mixed schools.

The same trend is noticed at the middle stage although the rate of progress there is a little slower. The percentage of girls enrolled in separate schools has declined from 80 in 1901-02 to 33.2 in 1959-60. At the middle stage at present 78 per cent of girls enrolled are in mixed schools. The curriculum for boys and girls is the same except that electives like home science and fine arts more suited to girls are introduced at this stage.

Even at the secondary stage, the percentage of co-education is increasing although the popular preference is in favour of separate schools and there is considerable resistance to co-education. In 1901-02, 93.7 per cent of girls enrolled were reading in separate high schools for girls, whereas this came down in 1959-60 to 64.4 per cent and presently stands at about 60 per cent. As far as the curriculum is concerned, special courses suited to the needs of girls are provided as a part of the total programme. It is, however, not possible to provide separate courses here, as the school-leaving examination is conducted by statutory boards and not by individual institutions.

At the collegiate level, except for one university, all universities are co-educational, although there is a good number of separate institutions for women, attached to universities. Even here, the proportion of girls reading in common institutions is increasing. In 1959-60 the percentage of women reading in common institutions was 48.9 as against 27.5 per cent in 1921-22. Having common universities for both boys and girls is now the accepted principle of higher education and courses of home science, fine arts, commerce and other streams are provided.

The Committee hopes that ultimately education would be related to the student's individual capacity, aptitude and interests. But during the interim period, certain differences between men and women, whether they are psychological or based on social factors, will have to be accepted. Keeping in view the above points, it has made its recommendations for differentiation of curricula at different stages of education.

At the primary stage there is no need for differentiation in the curricula for boys and girls. At the middle stage, the curriculum should provide a minimum course of general education common to boys and girls, as the ultimate objective before the country is to provide free and compulsory education to all till the age of 14. This common course should, however, include a core curriculum of home science for girls.

All middle schools should teach a craft or crafts suited to local conditions. Steps should be taken to increase the facilities for middle school education, as many of the girls complete this unit and give up education for ever, thereafter.

The entire programme of secondary education needs careful examination before a programme of differentiated curricula is decided upon. The accepted policy at the secondary stage is to provide diversified curricula to meet the aptitudes, needs and capacities of girls. The Committee, therefore, strongly recommends the introduction of diversified courses through electives of home science, fine arts and other related subjects.

It was also strongly felt by the Committee that special efforts should be made to counteract the prejudice that girls, as a rule, have no aptitude for mathematics and science. These are important and necessary subjects for going in for higher education and should not be neglected by girls.

Here one is reminded of the most pertinent observation made by Dr. D. S. Kothari, Chairman of the University Grants Commission, while delivering his inaugural address at a seminar on 'Access of Women to Education'. He rightly pointed out: "Science and industry have liberated women from domestic chores", hence no programme of women's education can afford to neglect the teaching of science in a good measure.

At the university stage, although a large variety of courses is provided to meet the needs of girls, there is still scope for reviewing and improving them.

As far as vocational education is concerned, there is much left to be achieved both for boys and girls. The expansion programme in this direction should be related to the requirements of society for adequate manpower and womanpower. As far as womanpower requirements are concerned, opportunities open to women for different vocations, the type of training required for these vocations and the social, administrative and economic difficulties coming in the way of employment of women should be investigated.

The Committee has made some useful recommendations for the development of vocational courses at all the three levels. It has recommended that at the end of the middle school course, there should be junior technical schools and trade schools; at the end of the secondary stage, vocational

schools; and at the university stage a third level of diversified courses of vocational competence to prepare women to hold responsible and executive positions in different fields.

The various types of courses suggested above, short-term as well as long-term, would help greatly in expanding the scope of gainful employment for women.

Along with varieties in courses prescribed, it is also necessary to exploit, to the fullest extent, all the three channels open to education, viz., full-time education, part-time education and 'own-time' education, i.e., education through correspondence courses.

The problem of wastage and stagnation has been plaguing the first level of education and holding back tangible progress since long. This has assumed serious proportions and added urgency when the country is on the point of crossing the last leg of its journey towards universalising primary education. It has been rightly pointed out by the National Council for Women's Education that the phenomenon of wastage is to be found both in the case of girls as well as boys; only in the case of the former, it is slightly higher.

A number of factors such as the school system and socio-economic environment, poor equipment of most of the schools, lack of assistance to poor students for continuing their studies and the absence of part-time instruction, are responsible for this.

The wastage in the case of girls at the primary stage is higher due to the social condition under which girls are expected to assist in household tasks, while at the secondary stage it is due to early marriages and economic factors.

In a country like ours, where economic considerations count a lot, it is the primary task of society to see that funds are not wasted, but utilised fully for the purpose for which they are deployed. Comprehensive thinking and concerted action in this matter would help solve this problem of wastage and stagnation.



On the one hand, legislation such as Child Marriage Prevention Act or Compulsory Education Act requires to be rigorously enforced. On the other hand, the school system requires to be improved and deficiencies such as lack of facilities, incomplete primary schools and untrained teachers should be removed. Further, whenever necessary, assistance in the form of supply of uniforms, books, writing material, etc. free of cost would help. Part-time instruction should also be provided to reduce the economic hardships. Lastly, education at every stage requires to be linked up with skills or jobs, so that after finishing a particular stage of education, job opportunities could be availed of.

### C. INDUCEMENT TO WOMEN TO TAKE TO EDUCATION

The future of women's education will also be determined by a number of inducements offered to them. These may be in the form of academic and physical facilities, financial assistance and employment opportunities.

Greater physical and academic facilities to girl students than hitherto available should be provided through mobile schools, suitable timings, shorter courses, financial assistance and similar other incentives. Girls and women are usually expected to participate more actively in domestic work, although they may be receiving the same education as boys. This responsibility and the attitude of parents leave very little time for young women to devote themselves to studies and then to go in for professional courses. In rural areas, school timings should be so adjusted as to make them convenient to village women. From the point of view of village girls, the period of 11 years of primary and secondary education is too long. The minimum objective of educating rural girls should be to teach them to read and write and to gain proficiency in some pecuniarily productive vocation. With this end in view, the period of schooling for them may with advantage be shortened.

Besides, more hostels with better living conditions, good canteens and cafeterias with subsidised food schemes should also be liberally provided. By way of incentive to this programme, the Government should make conditions easier for

acquiring plots of land for institutions of women's education. Private studies should be encouraged and recognised. After-noon colleges, instead of morning and evening colleges, wherever there is such a need, should be given the same consideration and recognition as morning and evening colleges.

Conditions of affiliation for women's institutions should be more liberal and less exacting than those for men's institutions, specially with regard to finance. This should not be considered as a lowering of the standard of the institution. Opening more day nurseries should be encouraged for the care of infants while their mothers are at work. This programme should be taken up jointly by schools and community centres. School mothers should be appointed in all schools where there are no women teachers on the staff.

In order to make education purposeful, effective guidance service should be provided in all schools.

Facilities should be made available, specially to women students, to resume their interrupted studies after a gap of several years, if they had earlier to discontinue their education halfway consequent on their marriage or such other social or economic factors.

Special departments for giving guidance to women to continue their studies should be set up at some of the universities. These departments of continuing education can help them to select suitable courses or to go in for a higher course if they have completed a terminal course, or pick up the threads where they had left them and thus complete their studies.

Access to higher education, particularly to professional education, is sometimes denied to women because of their relatively high cost of instruction.

More scholarships, loans and financial assistance should be made available to women students, specially in teacher training institutions. At least 75% of women students should be given substantial stipends to enable them to go in for teacher training.

The Centre should assume greater responsibility for the development of women's education and the highest priority should be given to these schemes. In fact, the special programmes for girls' education should be the entire responsibility of the Centre. Women's education, as a whole, should be given more grants than hitherto. Today, except for hostels and a few such items, all other items are considered on a par with men's institutions for purposes of grants in the field of higher education. For women's education all capital grants should be on a 100% basis. It is very necessary to create special funds or make special allocations in the country's budget for the education of girls and women to bridge the wide disparity that exists. Interest-free loans should also be given for such purposes.

There are several women's organisations doing social and educational work, and they play a vital part in teaching girls and women of society who cannot take advantage of the regular institutions for one reason or another. Giving suitable and liberal grants to such organisations would be an encouragement for spreading education amongst women more widely.

The trend and character of employment of women are now gradually changing with the change that has come over the social scene both in rural and urban areas. Besides the social factor, a change is apparent in the mentality of women too. In these days of economic stress, the burden of bread-winning falls on men as well as women. The age of marriage is slowly going up. Thus in many a case the girl desires to utilise the time between the completion of her education and her marriage to earn for herself, develop her personality and be economically independent. The family income supplemented by the earnings of its woman helps in raising its general living standard by providing something more than the mere necessities of life. There are some women who work for the sake of keeping themselves occupied and thus to be relieved of the humdrum, daily routine of life.

In this country the chronic problem of unemployment still remains unsolved and women going in for employment in different walks of life complicates the problem still further. This results in a general feeling that women are encroaching

upon men's territory although this is not quite true. Women's earnings in many a home have helped to maintain the family in the absence of its male bread-winner.

This problem has another side too—conflict between the educated women of the lower and middle class brackets who need to work to supplement the family's income and the educated women from higher class families who enter the professions for psychological and social reasons, rather than economic needs.

Conditions of women in rural and urban areas, too, differ materially. The urban woman is more or less on the same footing as the urban man as far as work is concerned. But in rural areas social restrictions delimit the fields of outdoor work for women. In rural areas non-literate women are occupied mostly in agricultural work. As Professor D. R. Gadgil pointed out: "In quantitative terms the problems of women at work are overwhelmingly rural...In the country as a whole there are less women proportionately to men in urban areas than in rural areas. In 1961, 17.7 crore women and 18.3 crore men lived in rural areas. Further, a much larger proportion of women in the countryside was at work, than in towns and cities. The percentage was 31 in one case and 11 in the other. Women workers in rural areas recorded in the 1961 census numbered somewhat more than 5.5 crore as against a little less than 40 lakh women workers in urban areas...Nearly 78 per cent of women at work in India were thus engaged in agriculture."

In urban areas uneducated women are occupied as factory workers, vegetable-sellers, domestic servants, hospital orderlies, peons and sweepers; some work in the police and customs departments and some work as hawkers and vendors of different types of goods. Those skilled in cottage crafts are engaged in small industries.

The openings for educated girls are quite different. Besides the traditional professions like teaching, nursing and midwifery with which women are associated, they work as

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<sup>1</sup> Women in the Working Force in India, Professor D. R. Gadgil; p. 4-5.

radio artistes, announcers, programme executives, assistants in government and commercial offices, receptionists, clerks, typists, stenographers, telephone and telegraph operators, sales girls, hostesses and journalists. More highly qualified women work as doctors or lawyers, serve in the Indian Administrative Service or the Indian Foreign Service, or work as engineers, research workers and welfare workers.

As far as vocational training is concerned, it is imparted at various levels. At the higher level, polytechnics for women are proving to be useful and popular. These provide training in electronics, pharmacy, stenography, secretarial practice, architectural draughtsmanship, civil engineering draughtsmanship, costume-designing and dress-making, commercial art, medical laboratory technology, institutional management, interior decoration and library science. These diploma courses are of two to three years' duration.

In order to make professional and technical education worthwhile, a liaison should be established between educational institutions and the numerous industries and professions which need trained women.

Another interesting programme in this field is that of community development. It is a programme of self-help to be implemented by the villagers with the help of the Government. The basic institutions of this programme are the panchayat, the co-operative and the school. At the governmental level, this programme is the charge of the Department of Community Development, Co-operation and Panchayati Raj at the Centre, zilla parishads at the district level and block panchayats at the block level. Women workers specially appointed to carry out this work are *mukhya sevikas*, *gram sevikas*, health visitors and midwives.

This programme in community development blocks includes training in spinning, knitting, tailoring, vegetable gardening, poultry-keeping, bee-keeping, etc.

Coming to the question of part-time employment of women, it may be stated that there is a definite need for this category of workers, although this question too is not quite

simple. In order to ascertain the attitude of women towards such employment and the need for introducing facilities for part-time employment, two surveys were undertaken and their important findings are as under:

- (1) Women work due to the economic condition of the family.
- (2) More than 50% of the women employed were in the teaching profession.
- (3) Parents and other relations of the employed women, indicated their preference for working women as they were able to supplement the family income.
- (4) There would not be any harmful repercussions in the home if women with children went to work. It is therefore not correct to think that if women went to work, it would adversely affect their responsibilities towards their children.
- (5) The popular belief that the interest of women in their work is temporary, and would disappear the moment they are married is not correct, as even after marriage, women retain their jobs and continue to take interest in their work.
- (6) Married women have shown their preference for part-time work in the bulk of the replies received.
- (7) 75% of unmarried women quite understandably wanted to retain their full-time occupation.
- (8) 73% of married women who were unemployed wanted to have part-time employment.
- (9) A third of the women workers who were married wanted full-time work to earn more.

From the above, it will be noted that there is a definite need and ample scope for part-time employment and therefore educational institutions in the country should be geared to meet this demand.

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<sup>1</sup>Note prepared by the Education Commission, Government of India, for the Working Group on Women's Education, 1965.

It is gratifying to note that democracy in India is a real one and no woman is debarred from going in for any profession at any level. We find Indian women connected with all kinds of work which they have done successfully. Besides the normal professions with which women are associated generally, we find them working in high positions in the public sector as governors, ambassadors, ministers and legislators. No one can be more proud than the Indian woman of the fact that the reins of the country are at present in the hands of a woman. This is the highest achievement of democracy. Mrs. Indira Gandhi's election as the first woman Prime Minister of the largest democracy of the world is a striking example of the democratic freedom enjoyed in this country. It is hoped that, with the expansion of education, increase in urbanisation and breaking down of the age-old prejudices, more and more avenues will be opened up for women and a greater number than hitherto will come forward to enter new fields of employment. Hence, job-orientation in the educational framework is highly essential.

#### D. AGENCIES FOR SPREADING EDUCATION OF WOMEN

The spread and advancement of women's education is very much dependent on the agencies which are responsible for disseminating learning.

In a democratic welfare State, education is the prime concern of the State, and therefore, the Indian Union is trying to shoulder this burden by starting its own institutions and agencies for the purpose.

In spite of this effort it has to be recognised that in a country like India, which is still in a developmental stage and which has the legacy of educating the people through voluntary organisations, the place of such agencies deserves careful consideration.

It is a well-known fact that women's education in the initial stages was essentially the result of voluntary efforts of missionaries, enlightened Britishers and social reformers. In the twenties of the 19th century, missionaries did extremely

valuable work by opening day schools, establishing orphan homes and starting *zanana* education for women observing purdah.

The British non-officials also played an active role in furthering the cause. Professor Patton of the Elphinstone College, not only established girls' schools in the city of Bombay but also encouraged his students to devote their spare time in teaching the girls of these schools. Bethune in Calcutta, with the help of the famous reformer, Ishwarchandra Vidyasagar, started numerous girls' schools, and laid the germs of the famous Bethune College, of which Chandramukhi Basu was the first woman graduate.

The third significant stream of voluntary effort was that of social reformers and revivalists. It has been the tradition of reformers as well as the revivalists, not only to plead forcibly for encouraging education of women but also to emphasise the point that without educating women no problem of Indian society could be solved. Further, the galaxy of pioneers such as Raja Ram Mohan Roy, Iswarchandra Vidyasagar, Phulle, Maharshi Karve, M. G. Ranade, Dayanand Saraswati, Vivekanand, Annie Besant, Dadabhai Nauroji, and a host of others, not only assisted in propagating the idea of female education but also took a pledge to practise what they preached. Vidyasagar vowed to educate his daughters; Ranade taught his wife; Maharshi Karve saved one pice every day for the cause of women's education and Mahatma Gandhi included female education as one of the items in his 14-point constructive programme.

These leaders also established voluntary organisations for the spread of education. It was the Gujarat Vernacular Society of Ahmedabad that started the first girls' school in Gujarat in 1849. It was D. K. Karve who established the first women's university in India. Institutions such as Vanita Vishram at Ahmedabad, Surat and Bombay not only provided schools for unmarried girls but became centres for educating widows. Even women themselves contributed to this cause and the name of Smt. Nanibai Gajjar who gave up her entire fortune for the establishment of the Vanita Vishram is remembered with gratitude by all.



Thus it is seen that prior to independence, voluntary agencies had played a vital role in the starting as well as spreading of the education of women.

Even today, it should be noted that most of the women's organisations, have education as one of their major activities. Under these circumstances, the State Councils of Women's Education, the women's organisations like the Kasturba Seva Mandal and the Mahila Mandals of the rural areas should be entrusted with the responsibility of providing the necessary organisation and leadership. Through their constant efforts and propoganda, they not only help in bringing dignity and value to educated women, but also help in generating a feeling of involvement. They may offer their services in the meagrely staffed schools and fill the place of the "big sister" to the younger women teachers who might be in a village or town away from their homes. The Government should actively help welfare organisations and private associations engaged in the field of education of girls and women by providing necessary facilities to them to go to villages, to undertake studies and to propagate their programmes. Further, in this respect it is very essential to recognise these agencies as full and equal partners in matters of status, privileges and financial assistance.

#### E. RESEARCH FACILITIES

A bold and forthright policy of women's education should be based on reliable statistics and a thorough study of a variety of problems connected with it.

It is therefore necessary to set up a special institute of higher education for women in order to ensure proper planning of women's education. This institute can act as a co-ordinating organisation for collecting and disseminating information on the higher education of women and can help in setting up norms for this purpose at the national level.

The nature and depth of socio-economic obstacles, the areas of voluntary participation, the causes and extent of wastage and stagnation, the types of employment opportunities and potentialities, the possibilities of experimentation in

curricula and timings are some of the aspects which are still steeped in darkness. A proper scientific investigation in these fields would be necessary before formulating a long-term plan.

The far-reaching changes that have been outlined in the preceding paragraphs have also been the burden of the Education Commission Report relating to this field of education. The Commission, on the basis of cumulative thinking and studies made so far on the various aspects of girls' and women's education, more particularly by the National Committee on Women's Education (May 1958 to January 1959) and other bodies following it, and in the context of the over-all educational reconstruction for national development, has made well-graded, comprehensive time-honoured and down-to-earth recommendations. As they are to be the sheet-anchor of future programmes and policies in the field, we are including them all, but briefly, in this brochure, as an appendix (*Appendix-II*).

### **Summing Up**

The ultimate uplift of any nation, and specially so of an actively democratic nation like ours, depends on its citizens, both men and women; and education plays a very important role in improving the quality of its citizens. Mahatma Gandhi's very apt words on the importance of women's education would not be out of place here :

“As far as women's education is concerned, I am not sure whether it should be different from men's and when it should begin. But I am strongly of opinion that women should have the same facilities as men and even special facilities, where necessary.”

Important developments are taking place today in the world around us. Almost all countries of the world are now pulling their resources together in order to give a meaning and content to the concept of Human Rights. Women have a significant role in this development. Some of the major issues which are attracting the attention of the entire modern world are the status of women and the contribution they can

make to the cause of world peace. In order to reap the fullest advantage of this social change around us, Indian women should be fully equipped through adequate education, to make their contribution to the furtherance of this cause.

## **APPENDICES**

## APPENDIX I

### Women's Education—A Comparative Picture

Neither comprehensive, nor sufficiently up-to-date, the picture presented here signifies mainly an attempt to delineate broadly the features of the educational systems of a few representative yet leading countries of the world including ours and against such a backdrop indicate generally the progress of women's education in those countries.

The countries included in this study are : UK, USA, USSR, West Germany, Japan and UAR, and, of course, India. In a study of this kind, UK should invariably find a place, for the modern educational system in India has been built largely upon the pattern prevailing in that country. The USA and the USSR have been included for their leading positions in the present-day world. The origin of the educational patterns of the modern world can be traced to those of the continental countries particularly Germany and, therefore, West Germany has been taken to represent the continent. Japan, on the other hand, represents Asian education at its peak where hundred per cent literacy has already been achieved and thus that country would help to give a better appreciation of the problem. Among the developing countries, besides India, the UAR has a great leeway to make up in the field of women's education and the inclusion of this country would thus be more appropriate in making a correct appreciation of ours.

India has been dealt with elaborately in the main body of the brochure and hence its inclusion here would appear to be redundant. This has, however, been done in a skeletal form against the general educational structure, only to round off and complete the comparative scene.

#### The United Kingdom

The aims of the public system of education in Great Britain are : "to secure for children a happier childhood and better start in life; to ensure a fuller measure of educational opportunity for young people and to provide means for all of developing the various talents with which they are endowed and so enriching the inheritance of the country whose citizens they are".\*\*

Education for all between the ages of 5 and 15 is compulsory; this includes the primary stage corresponding to the age-group 5-11. Co-education is the pattern accepted at the primary level after which separate schools for boys and girls are provided. Secondary education for

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\*\*Education in Britain; British Information Service, India; revised, January, 1964.

a child starts at the age of 11 after one undergoes a number of testing processes. Co-education comes back again at the collegiate level. At present there are a few colleges in Britain exclusively for women but the predominant trend is towards converting them gradually into co-educational institutions to meet the public demand.

Broadly, there are three types of publicly maintained secondary schools, viz., grammar schools, secondary modern schools and secondary technical schools. Grammar schools meet the needs of those who are likely to profit from an academic type of education and who generally aspire to seek admission into universities. Secondary modern schools which form the largest group of secondary institutions, provide general education with a practical bias. Secondary technical schools form a small group and offer a type of education which is related largely to industry, commerce and agriculture but essentially general, and not vocational, in content.

There are independent schools catering to the needs of all groups of students and include nursery or kindergarten, primary and secondary schools. The most important type of the independent schools is known as public schools.

There are at present 27 universities in the United Kingdom. The Universities of Oxford and Cambridge that came into being as early as 12th century A.D., consist of a number of residential colleges.

In the earlier period of 19th century there was a general acceptance among people, both men and women, that a woman was the keeper of the "home and hearth". It was not until the latter part of the 19th century that the first few of a chain of girls' public schools, as effective as boys' schools, were started in England as a challenge to the traditional approach. At the same time higher education was also made available to women by starting separate colleges for women. The year 1849 saw the establishment of the Bedford College, the first women's college in Britain. Today, political, social, economic and educational equality of opportunity between men and women is universally recognised and modern women are being trained to fulfil the manifold purposes of home-making, earning a living, being educated for citizenship and getting equipped to utilise leisure hours more fruitfully.

The chart on the next page gives a general idea of the trend of further education in the United Kingdom and the advantage taken of it by men and women in the various types of courses and establishments.

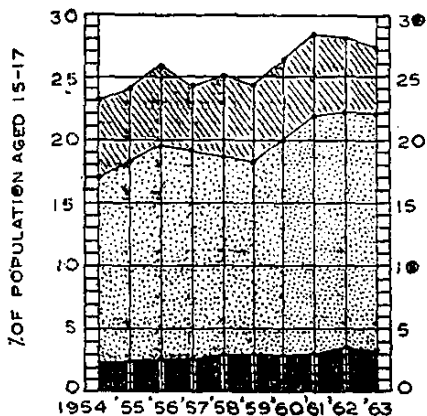
### The United States

In the USA today it is well-recognised that the education of a woman, whether she ever takes up employment or not, is of such great importance to the country and to the humanity as a whole, as it is to determine one's self-satisfaction and sense of achievement. Nevertheless the progress of women's education in America can be judged

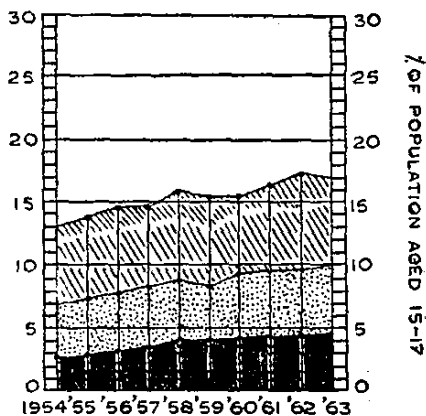
# THE UNITED KINGDOM

## FURTHER EDUCATION

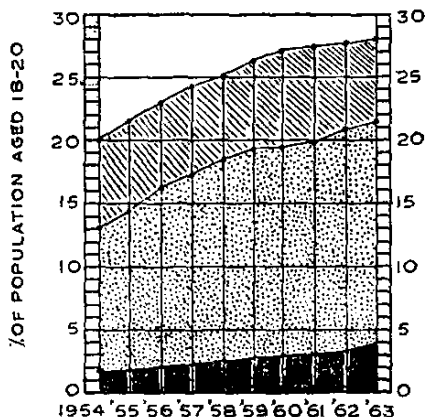
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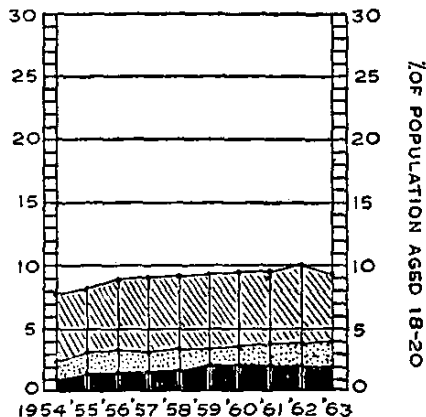
WOMEN






MEN



WOMEN



 EVENING ONLY (MAJOR ESTABLISHMENTS)  
 PART-TIME DAY  
 FULL-TIME AND SANDWICH

SOURCE: "STATISTICS OF EDUCATION PART 2:1963", DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION & SCIENCES, LONDON

from the ever-increasing proportion of women labour force. Today in the American economy women constitute about one-third of the total labour force. Still the demand for women labour force is ever on the increase; this will evidently bring more women into higher education programmes during the years to come.

At present, American high schools turn out each year some 1.5 million students and the number of girls exceeds that of the boys by nearly 0.1 million. And it is common knowledge that as a group, girls graduate with higher grades than boys.

In so far as the American structure of education is concerned it may in general be classified into three levels, viz., elementary, secondary and higher. Besides, there are schools for adults, vocational schools and schools for children with special problems. Here the system is more flexible than in many other countries.

Generally children enter the first grade at about the age of six. Elementary schools consist either of six-year grades followed by a six-year secondary school or of eight-year grades followed by a four-year secondary school. The system of higher education in America differs from that in India. An institution of higher education in America may be a university with several departments or an individual college, chartered by the State Legislature to confer degrees. Colleges are not affiliated to the universities in the United States as they are in India. There are over 2,000 colleges and universities in the United States but their pattern and standard of education are not uniform, because each State of the Union is free to chart its own educational system and maintain its own educational standards. Leaving a few State-maintained universities, most educational institutions in America are privately managed. They are mainly supported by tuition fees, endowments, etc.

The organisational structure of higher education differs from State to State. However, it generally takes the form of (i) junior colleges with two years of instruction, (ii) colleges with four years of instruction and (iii) universities with four years of instruction. A graduate school in America is what is known as a postgraduate college in India.

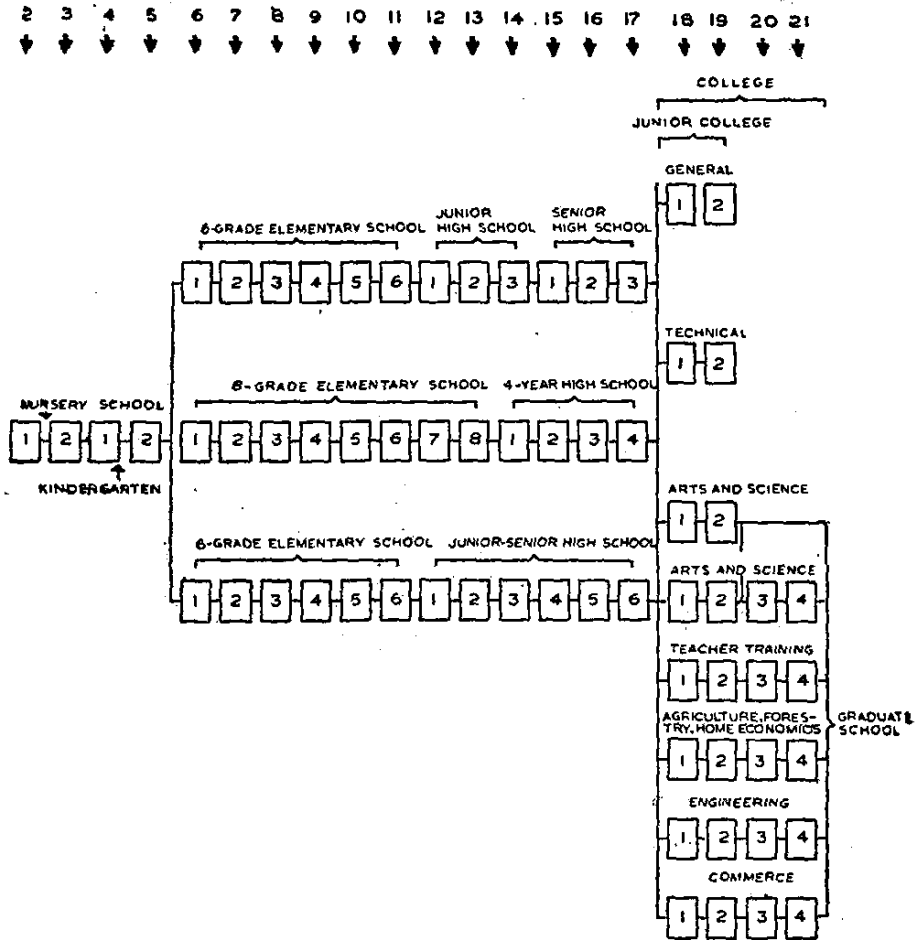
The chart on the next page will give a clear picture of what is explained above.

### The USSR

Education in the Soviet Union forms the basis of a socialistic pattern of society and provides a strong motivating force in the people. This country has achieved great progress in the field of education. For education, there has been great awakening in the masses and the country has eradicated illiteracy. Universal compulsory primary education was introduced during 1929-32 and the year 1962-63 witnessed the introduction of universal compulsory eight-year education. The country is now getting ready to introduce universal secondary education.



# GENERAL PATTERN OF EDUCATIONAL STRUCTURE IN THE USA



SOURCE: WORLD SURVEY OF EDUCATION—HANDBOOK OF EDUCATIONAL ORGANIZATION AND STATISTICS, UNESCO

Co-education is one of the most important aspects of education here and there is no difference in the people's attitude towards the education of boys and that of girls at any stage. Girls and boys prepare themselves for the development of their country on an absolute parity. Soviet educators are firmly of the opinion that physiological and psychological differences do not play any important role in the total development of one's personality, and so there is no difference in the curricula for boys and girls.

Complete equality of sexes prevails in every sphere of life. Women take their place in the national economy along with men. According to the 1959 census of the USSR, of all the persons with higher education, 41 per cent are women; of all the persons in the technician group—those who have completed specialised secondary education—57 per cent are women. The magnitude of the effort that has made this level of economic and social equality possible can be gauged easily, if one recalls that only a generation ago literacy among women was barely 13 per cent and in the Republic of Central Asia it was almost nil\*.

Before starting with formal education, children up to the age of 7 go to pre-school establishments. Nurseries, creches and daycare centres serve children up to the age of 3 and the kindergarten serves children of the age-group 3-6 years. These are organised by people's enterprises and fall under the jurisdiction of the Ministries of Health and Education respectively.

As indicated, formal education begins when the child is seven years old and is at present compulsory for the first eight classes. This system is uniformly applied throughout the country. The complete secondary school course lasts for 11 years. It is unified and integrated without a break at any stage and is referred to as "secondary general education labour polytechnical school with vocational training". The structural pattern of the school system throughout the country is the same and the curriculum is also almost identical. There are special schools for sports, music, ballet, foreign languages, etc. in addition to schools for the mentally defective and the physically handicapped children.

In between the compulsory school stage and the university stage\* there are technicians or specialised secondary schools with a four-year period of study for a course of general secondary education and technical or vocational education, and vocational-technical schools which offer courses for preparing skilled workers and farm operatives through short-term courses of ten months to two years which can be joined after completing eight years of compulsory education.

For those workers who have not been able to complete secondary education, facilities are provided to complete their education in evening (shift) schools or through correspondence courses.

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\*Education in the Soviet Union; Ministry of Education, Government of India; pp. 3-4.

Higher education is imparted through universities and institutes. While the universities are concerned mainly with the academic training of the fundamental subjects, the institutes impart professional training. An institute specialises only in one branch in accordance with the requirements of the locality in which it is located, whereas the universities have several faculties or departments. Universities in the first instance cover a period of five years, whereas at the institute the first phase tends to four to six years. After completing the first phase of university education and taking a State examination, a student is eligible to enter himself for the degree of *kandidat of science*, which takes three years. Then he can prepare himself for the doctorate of science which takes four years and is the highest academic distinction conferred on a scholar. Separate research institutes under the Academy of Sciences cater to the needs of higher research.

The chart on the next page very clearly shows the structural pattern of the Soviet educational system.

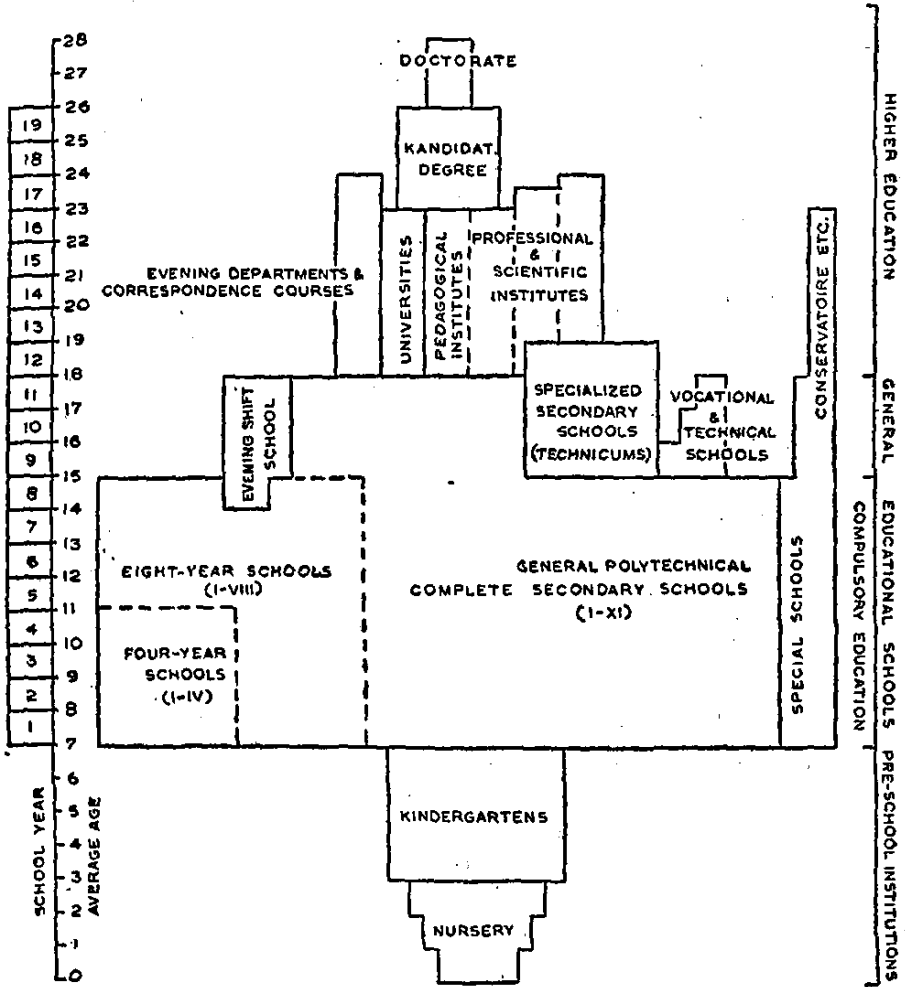
#### The Federal Republic of Germany

Beginning at the school level, there are generally three types of schools in the Federal Republic of Germany: the elementary school (Volksschule-people's school), the intermediate school (Mittelschule) and the high school (gymnasium). Compulsory education is in force for the age-group of 6 to 18. The first four grades of elementary schools are called the basic schools. After that a pupil can stay in the elementary school for another 4 or 5 years in the upper level or join an intermediate school for a further period of six years or join a gymnasium for five years more. After completing the elementary school (upper level), the pupil usually becomes an apprentice and simultaneously attends a part-time vocational school. After the tenth grade of either an intermediate school or a gymnasium, a pupil attains the level of the Indian school certificate examination. The upper level of gymnasium corresponds to the level of an Indian college leading to a bachelor's degree. The final examination of the high school is called the 'Abitur' (from Latin meaning 'he will leave'). This is a certificate saying that the student is qualified to join a university, if he has reached the age of 18.

One of the characteristic features of German university life is the 'academic freedom' enjoyed by students. This term denotes two things: the teacher is free to choose the contents of his lecture without the prescription of a rigid course and the student may attend whichever lectures he likes according to the plan of his studies. The student is also free to migrate from one university to another. The word 'university' itself is derived from the Latin word 'universitas' meaning a corporation of teachers and students. It combines self-education and general education and aims at developing the student into a responsible citizen.

The German university has no college system and no examination at the end of a semester or an academic term. All universities in Germany are of the teaching and unitary type and the entire teaching is organised

# STRUCTURE OF EDUCATION IN USSR



SOURCE: "EDUCATION IN THE SOVIET UNION"  
 MINISTRY OF EDUCATION, GOVERNMENT OF INDIA, 1962

by the university. The theoretical side of learning is very well-supplemented by the practical side through seminars, practicas and library facilities. At the conclusion of studies, there is a final examination

Besides the ordinary universities there are technical universities in Germany, both having several common features. The main difference between them lies in the fact that the technical universities produce scientific personnel to meet the needs of the present scientific age. The technical universities have several research institutes attached to them and a very close contact is maintained between technology and industry. Another category of institutes, namely, schools of engineering and mining also exists. They lay emphasis on the practical side.

In the Federal Republic, there are hardly any separate or special institutes for girls and women, as co-education is definitely favoured. All the lines of vocations are open to both girls and boys alike; any difference or divergence between their education is hardly perceptible

#### **The United Arab Republic**

The early 19th century saw poor progress in Egypt, as the country was then called, as far as women's education was concerned. Girls were confined mostly to the home, and whatever little education they received was in the form of religious and domestic instruction. During 1833-35, State and foreign schools were established in Egypt for the purpose of preparing women as midwives and teachers. These schools proved popular and encouraged the opening of primary schools.

Social progress and the feminist movement brightened the prospect of education for girls and the advent of the 20th century witnessed a change in this direction. As soon as independence was proclaimed in 1923, a number of primary and secondary schools were started to prepare girls for their due place in the public life. The principle of differentiation of curricula was not accepted and schools for boys and girls were run on similar lines. The portals of the university were also gradually thrown open to women during this period. In this period of transition, women's colleges and institutes were founded and higher technical institutes specialising in home economics, drawing and music were also started.

The different stages of education in the UAR, which are not dissimilar for boys and girls, are :

- (a) The primary level extending to six years, where free and compulsory education is imparted through co-educational institutions; the age of admission to primary schools is 6;
- (b) The preparatory school level has different categories :
  - (i) general preparatory for academic work;
  - (ii) technical preparatory preparing pupils for commercial schools and technical preparatories; and
  - (iii) practical preparatory schools, where girls can prepare for some wage-earning vocation;

(education for boys and girls at the preparatory schools spreading over a three-year period is separate and free);

- (c) Secondary schools differentiated into general or academic secondary schools and technical secondary schools ; and
- (d) The university stage where various courses are open to women.

All the universities admit women on the same footing as men, although a few separate institutions of higher learning for only women do exist.

The secondary school span extends to three years and this too is free and separate. Special types of institutes at this level like the sanitary officers' school, primary training schools for teachers and schools of nursing and midwifery exist.

At present only primary and university education is co-educational and expansion is necessary in the programmes covering technical and vocational education for girls. Disparity still exists but would in course of time disappear.

#### Japan

The modern system of education in Japan originated in 1872. After World War II, there was a shift in emphasis and the system has now a democratic base. Education is now governed by constitutional and statutory enactments and 'equal educational opportunities are provided for all in keeping with their individual abilities'.

The Fundamental Law of Education, 1947, sets forth the aims and principles to be followed. Articles (3), (4) and (5) under Law 25 describe and prescribe the status girls and women are entitled to under the liberal educational system in Japan.

Article (3) states : "The people shall be given equal opportunities of receiving education according to their ability, and they shall not be subject to educational discrimination on account of race, creed, sex, social status, economic position, or family origin"<sup>2</sup>.

Article (4) on compulsory education states : "The people shall be obligated to have boys and girls under their protection receive nine years' general education"<sup>2</sup>.

Coming to the very important question of co-education, Article (5) states : "Men and women shall esteem and co-operate with each other. Co-education, therefore, shall be recognised in education"<sup>2</sup>.

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Education in Japan— A Graphic Presentation (Revised in 1964); Ministry of Education, Japan; p. 17

<sup>1</sup>*Ibid*—page 17

<sup>2</sup>*Ibid*—page 17

The compulsory period of education of nine years covers the elementary and lower secondary school stages. In upper secondary schools there are various types of courses such as general, agricultural, industrial, business, etc.

The evening course programmes in universities take four or more years of university education except for the courses of medicine and dentistry which take a longer time to complete. Technical colleges are of recent origin, having been established only in 1962.

Curricula of two years and three years are offered at the junior colleges. Upper secondary schools have full-time, part-time and correspondence courses. The latter two naturally take longer to complete than the full-time course.

Special schools are those meant for the blind, the deaf and such other children who are handicapped in some way.

The following illustrative chart presents percentage distribution of enrolment at different levels by sex as in 1962:

### ENROLMENT BY SEX

ENROLMENT BY SEX		MALE 10%	FEMALE 10%
KINDERGARTENS	51.5%		
ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS	51.1		
LOWER SECONDARY SCHOOLS	51.0		
SPECIAL SCHOOLS	55.7		
UPPER SECONDARY SCHOOLS (FULL-TIME)	51.5		
UPPER SECONDARY SCHOOLS (PART-TIME)	66.8		
TECHNICAL COLLEGES	99.0		
JUNIOR COLLEGES	30.7		
UNIVERSITIES	85.0		
MISCELLANEOUS SCHOOLS	26.0		

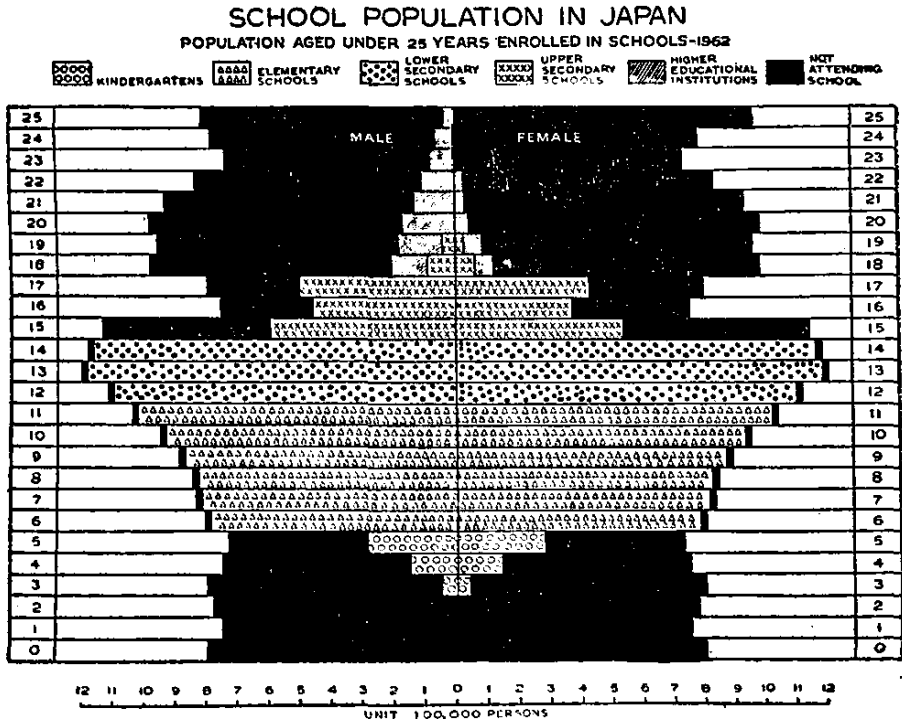
SOURCE: EDUCATION IN JAPAN-A GRAPHIC PRESENTATION (REVISED IN 1964)  
MINISTRY OF EDUCATION & GOVT. OF JAPAN

The above statistics clearly show that the democratic basis of education giving equal opportunity of education to all has considerably raised the number of girls and women going in for education; and except at technical colleges and universities, the progress can be considered satisfactory and equal to that of boys and men.

The percentage of women in junior colleges and miscellaneous schools is higher as most of the higher courses of home economics are offered at the junior level. The latter category of schools includes courses like dress-making, domestic arts and other courses for women.

It is interesting to note that the percentage of enrolment in elementary schools is 99.9 and that in lower secondary schools it is 99.8. Disparity between men and women taking advantage of education is noted only at the higher level, that is in the age-group of 18 to 25.

The following table gives a clear picture of the situation as it existed in 1962:



SOURCE: EDUCATION IN JAPAN-A GRAPHIC PRESENTATION (REVISED IN 1964)  
MINISTRY OF EDUCATION, JAPAN



## India

To quote from the Report of The Education Commission (1964-66): "The most important and urgent reform needed in education (in India) is to transform it, to endeavour to relate it to the life, needs and aspirations of the people and thereby make it a powerful instrument of social, economic and cultural transformation necessary for the realisation of the national goals. For this purpose, education should be developed so as to increase productivity, achieve social and national integration, accelerate the process of modernisation and cultivate social, moral and spiritual values".

The pattern of general education in India consists of the following stages :

- (i) Elementary;
- (ii) Secondary; and
- (iii) University and higher education.

In most of the States, elementary education is divided into two stages, namely, primary stage and middle stage. The duration of these stages differs from State to State, but in most of the States, at present, the duration of the primary stage is five years (I-V classes) and that of middle stage three years (VI-VIII classes). The duration of the secondary stage in most of the States is three years (IX-XI classes). The university stage consists of undergraduate and postgraduate education. The undergraduate course is mostly of three years' duration; it is of four years in a few cases where a student has passed out from a secondary school rather than a higher secondary school. The postgraduate course is of two years.

While the above indicate the general or the pre-dominant pattern of the educational system in the country, the structure varies from State to State or area to area. The Education Commission has recommended the following broad structure :

- (a) One to three years of pre-school education;
- (b) A ten-year period of general education which may be subdivided into a primary stage of 7 to 8 years (a lower primary stage of 4 or 5 years and a higher primary stage of 3 or 2 years) and lower secondary stage of 3 or 2 years of general education or one to three years of vocational education (the enrolment in vocational courses being raised to 20 per cent of the total);
- (c) A higher secondary stage of two years of general education or one to three years of vocational education (the enrolments in vocational education being raised to 50 per cent of the total); and
- (d) A higher education stage having a course of three years or more for the first degree and followed by courses of varying duration for the second or research degrees.

Article 45 of the Indian Constitution provides for universal, free and compulsory education for all children up to the age of 14 years but this goal has still to be reached. There has, however, been a tremendous quantitative expansion at the elementary stage and by 1965-66, 75.1 per cent of the children of the age-group 6-11 years and 30.6 per cent of the children of the age-group 11-14 years had been brought into schools. The girls' enrolments constitute 54.6 per cent and 15.6 per cent respectively, of their corresponding age-group populations.

The estimated present (1968-69) enrolment of boys and girls at the lower primary stage (6-11 age-group) being 95.5 and 59.4 per cent respectively, expansion of girls' education holds the key to universal enrolment of children at this stage. However, the present rate of expansion of education of girls is much faster than that among the boys.

Co-education is accepted at the primary stage—85 per cent of the girls enrolled in the lower primary stage and 78 per cent of those in the higher primary stage are in mixed schools. But popular trends in the secondary stage are towards separate schools for girls, which, again, soften down at the higher education stage.

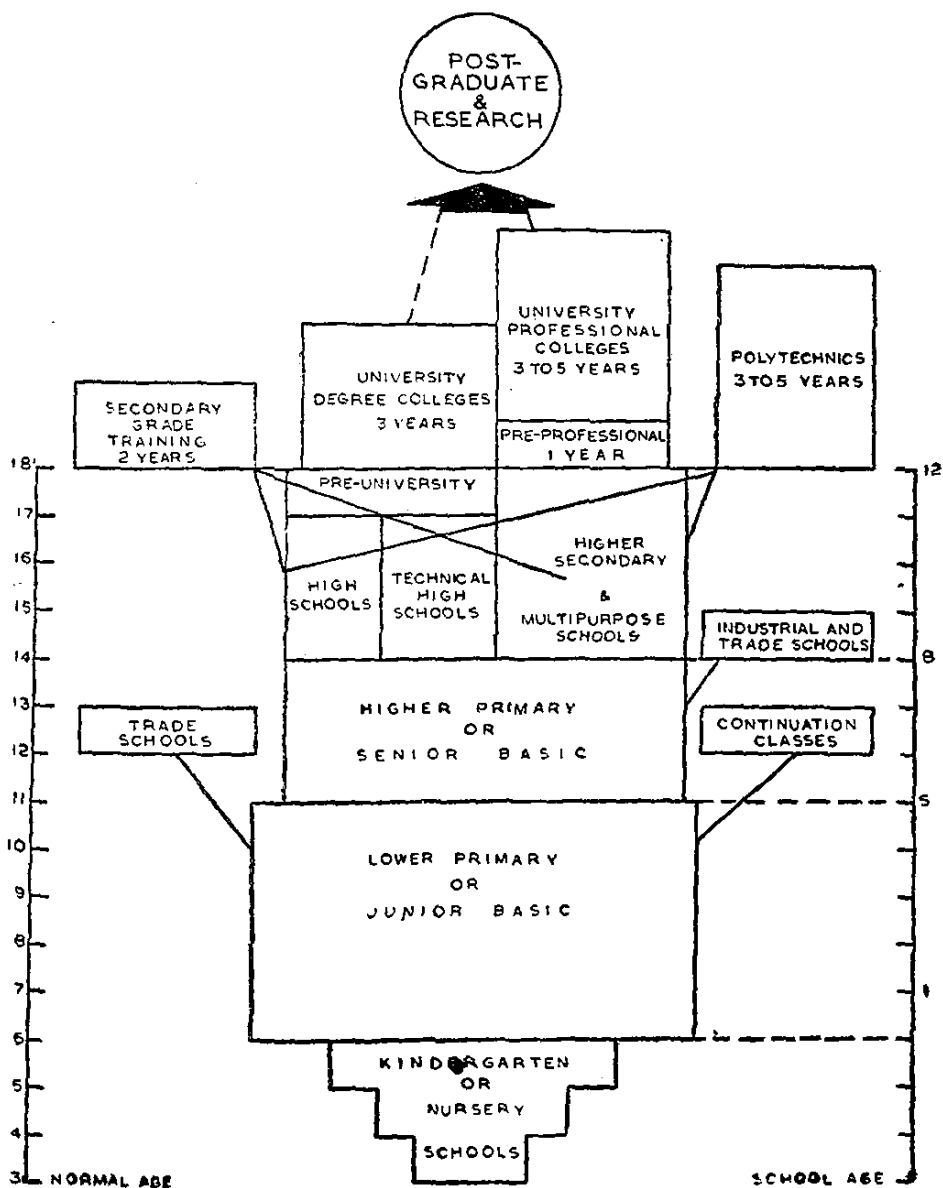
In line with the age-old traditions of the Vedic period and with the lessons of the fight for freedom under the leadership of the Father of the Nation, the Indian Constitution has accorded equal status to women. Women in India hold positions of importance in all fields of social, economic and political life of the country. But womanpower potential remains to be utilised in full for national reconstruction. Efforts are afoot to enable women to carry out successfully their dual role of homemaking and following economic and productive avocations in various aspects of the national life. The educational system is being progressively geared to meeting this important need.

The chart on the next page describes the general system of education in India.

### **A Comparison**

The most pertinent data relating to the percentage of girl/woman students at various levels of education in the foregoing paragraphs are given in the following table (page 74). Covering, as it does, a vertical structure, the analysis is all the more interesting and at the same time revealing. The data have been taken from those compiled by the Education Commission (1964-66) for its study, "Statistics on Comparative Education in Selected Countries".

# EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM IN INDIA



PROGRESS OF WOMEN'S EDUCATION—A COMPARATIVE PICTURE

Countries	<i>Percentage of Girl/Woman Students</i>									
	At Pre-Primary Stage		At First Level of Education		At Second Level of Education (General)		At Third Level of Education		In Vocational Schools	In Teachers' Training Schools
	1950	1961	1950	1962	1950	1962	1950	1962	1962	1960
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)
UK . . . . .	47	48	48	49*	50	49+	34	34+	36*	—
USA . . . . .	—	48	48	48*	51	51+	32	38	—	—
USSR . . . . .	—	—	—	48**	—	—	53	42	49	—
GERMANY (FR) . . . . .	—	—	49	49	44	44	19	23	45	—
UAR . . . . .	—	49	36	38	13	29	7	17+	18	53
JAPAN . . . . .	50	48	49	49	48	50	9	22	39	—
INDIA . . . . .	47	44	28	32	17	25+	12	18+	17+	26

\* 1960

\*\* 1955

+ 1961

## APPENDIX II

### The Education Commission (1964-66) on Women's/Girls' Education

#### RECOMMENDATIONS

70. *Education of Women* : We fully endorse the recommendations of the three committees which have examined the problem of women's education in recent years: (a) The National Committee on the Education of Women under the chairmanship of Shrimati Durgabai Deshmukh; (b) The Committee on Differentiation of Curricula between Boys and Girls under the chairmanship of Shrimati Hansa Mehta ; and (c) The Committee under the chairmanship of Shri M. Bhaktavatsalam which studied the problem in the six States where the education of girls is less developed.

71. We invite special attention to the following recommendations of the National Committee on Women's Education :

- (1) The education of women should be regarded as a major programme in education for some years to come and a bold and determined effort should be made to face the difficulties involved and to close the existing gap between the education of men and women in as short a time as possible ;
- (2) Special schemes should be prepared for this purpose and the funds required for them should be provided on a priority basis; and
- (3) Both at the Centre and in the States, there should be a special machinery to look after the education of girls and women. It should bring together officials and non-officials in the planning and implementation of programmes for women's education.

72. In addition, it will also be necessary to give adequate attention to the education of girls at all stages and in all sectors.

73. The role of women outside the home has become an important feature of the social and economic life of the country and, in the years to come, this will become still more significant. From this point of view, greater attention will have to be paid to the problems of training and employment of women. Opportunities for part-time employment which would enable women to look after their homes and to have a career outside will have to be largely expanded. As the age of marriage continues to rise, full-time employment will have to be provided for almost all young and married women. As the programme of family planning develops, older women whose children have grown up, will also

need employment opportunities. Teaching, nursing and social service are well-recognised areas where women can have a useful role to play. In addition, several new avenues will have to be opened out to them.  
6.53-58 (135-139)

83. *Education of Girls—Primary Stage* : The education of girls requires special attention in fulfilling the Constitutional directive and should be accelerated on the lines of the measures recommended by the National Committee on Women's Education. 7.38(162)

88. *Education of Girls—Secondary Stage* : (1) Efforts should be made to accelerate the expansion of girls' education so that the proportion of girls to boys reaches 1:2 at the lower secondary stage and 1:3 at the higher secondary stage in 20 years.

(2) Emphasis should be placed on establishing separate schools for girls, provision of hostels and scholarships, and part-time and vocational courses. 7.52-53(175-176)

101. *Differentiation of Curricula for Boys and Girls* : The recommendation of the Hansa Mehta Committee that there should be no differentiation of curricula on the basis of sex is endorsed. Home science should be provided as an optional subject but not made compulsory for girls. Larger provision should be made for music and fine arts; and the study of mathematics and science should be encouraged.  
8.102-104 (207-208)

143. *Education of Women* : (1) At present, the proportion of women students to men students in higher education is 1:4. This should be increased to about 1:3 to meet the requirements for educated women in different fields. For this purpose, a programme of scholarships and provision of suitable but economical hostel accommodation should be developed.

(2) At the undergraduate stage, separate colleges for women may be established if there is a local demand. At the postgraduate level, however, there is no justification for separate institutions.

(3) Women students should have free access to courses in arts, humanities, sciences and technology. Courses in home science, nursing, education and social work need to be developed as these have attraction for a large proportion of girls. Facilities for advanced training in business administration and management should also be provided.

(4) Research units should be set up in one or two universities to deal specifically with women's education.

12.32-34(313-314)

25. *Women Teachers* : (1) The employment of women teachers should be encouraged at all stages and in all sectors of education. Opportunities for part-time employment should be provided for them on a large scale.

(2) Adequate provision should be made for residential accommodation particularly in rural areas.

(3) The condensed courses for adult women operated by the Central Social Welfare Board should be expanded.

(4) Increasing facilities should be provided for education through correspondence courses.

(5) Wherever necessary, special allowances should be given to women teachers working in rural areas.

3.40(63-64)

### APPENDIX III

#### Suggested Reading

1. A History of Education in India (During the British Period); Syed Nurullah and J. P. Naik; 1951
2. Report of the National Committee on Women's Education; Ministry of Education, Government of India ; 1959
3. Annual Reports of the National Council for Women's Education; Ministry of Education, Government of India ; 1959-60 to 1967-68
4. Report of the University Education Commission : Ministry of Education, Government of India ; 1963
5. Report of the Secondary Education Commission : Ministry of Education & Scientific Research, Government of India; 1958
6. A Review of Education in India (1947-1961) ; National Council of Educational Research & Training, Ministry of Education, New Delhi ; 1961
7. Report of the Committee to Look into the Causes for Lack of Public Support particularly in Rural Areas for Girls Education and to Enlist Public Co-operation ; Ministry of Education, Government of India; 1965
8. Differentiation of Curricula for Boys and Girls; Ministry of Education, Government of India; 1964
9. Report on the Seminar on Ways and Means of Bridging the Gap that Exists between the Education of Boys and Girls in the Primary and Secondary Stages; All India Women's Conference; 1964
10. Working Women in Changing India ; International Labour Office, India Branch, New Delhi ; 1963
11. Women and Education : Unesco Publication ; 1953
12. Educating Women for a Changing World : Kate Hevner Muller; University of Minnesota Press, Minneapolis
13. Women in Modern India : Dr. Neera Desai ; 1957
14. "The Education Quarterly"—Summer Issue—1961 ; Ministry of Education, Government of India
15. Statistics of Education—Part 2, 1963 ; Her Majesty's Stationery Office, London ; 1964
16. Education in Britain, Revised January, 1964; British Information Services, India



17. **Public Education in the USSR** ; M. Deineko ; Progress Publishers, Moscow
18. **Education in the USSR** ; Y. Ivanova ; Progress Publishers, Moscow
19. **Education in the Soviet Union** ; Raja Roy Singh ; Ministry of Education, Government of India ; 1962
20. **University Education in Western Germany** ; Yamunabai Hirelkar
21. **Education in Japan—A Graphic Presentation (Revised in 1964)**; Ministry of Education, Japan
22. **Education in India—Today and Tomorrow** ; Dr. Mukerjee; 1960
23. **All India Educational Statistics (1950-55 to 56-66)**
24. **Women in the New Asia (The Changing Social Roles of Men and Women in South and South-East Asia)** ; edited by Barbara E. Ward; published in 1963 by Unesco
25. **Problems in Education—Women and Education** ; published by Unesco
26. **Access of Women to Education (Information supplied by the Ministries of Education of 47 countries)** ; published by Unesco
27. **Access of Girls and Women to Education in Rural Areas—A Comparative Study** ; published by Unesco
28. **The Position of Women in Indian Life : Her Highness the Maharani of Baroda and Mitra, S. N.** ; Longmans Green & Co., London; 1911
29. **Women's Two Roles : Home and Work** ; Myrdal, Alva and Klien, Viola ; Routledge and Kegan Paul Ltd., London
30. **The Education of the Women of India** ; Cowan, Minna G ; Gliphant, Anderson and Ferrier, London and Edinburgh ; 1912
31. **Women of India** ; Tara Ali Baig ; Ministry of Information and Broadcasting, Government of India, New Delhi; 1958
32. **Technology and Women's Work** ; Baker, Elizabeth Faulker; Columbia University Press, New York ; 1964
33. **Speeches and Writings of Gopal Krishna Gokhale : Vol. III—Educational** ; edited by D.G. Karve and D. V. Ambekar
34. **Papers on the Sociology of Education in India** ; edited by M.S. Gore, I.P. Desai and Suma Chitnis ; National Council of Educational Research and Training, New Delhi

## APPENDIX IV

### Graphic Survey

The gap between the education of boys and girls and men and women in India during the pre-independence era and the post-independence period at different levels is presented through a series of graphs in this section.

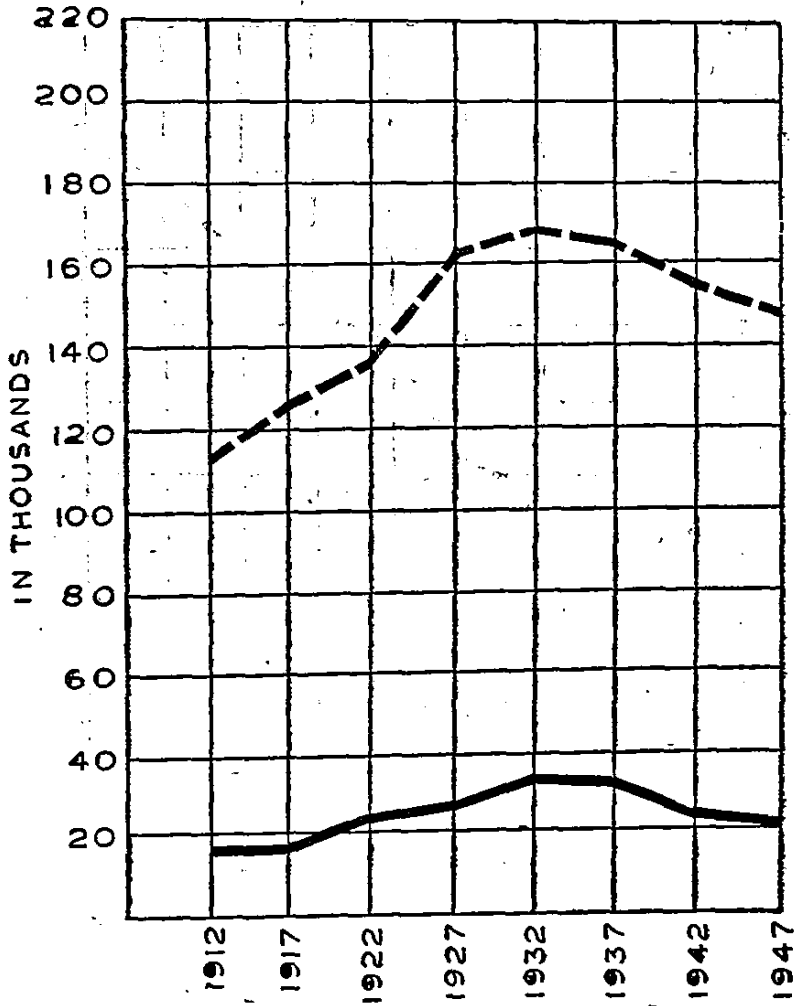
The graphs mainly pertain to (a) number of institutions at the different stages and (b) the enrolment therein.

The first four graphs are reproduced from "Women and Education" (pp. 128,129,132,135):

The rest of the charts are based on statistics compiled by the Education Commission (1964-66) in its compilations, "Expansion of Educational Facilities in India—1946-47 to 1965-66" and "Supplementary Volume No. II—All India Educational Statistics (1950-51 to 1965-66)". The portion of the graphs relating to 1966 is only approximate.

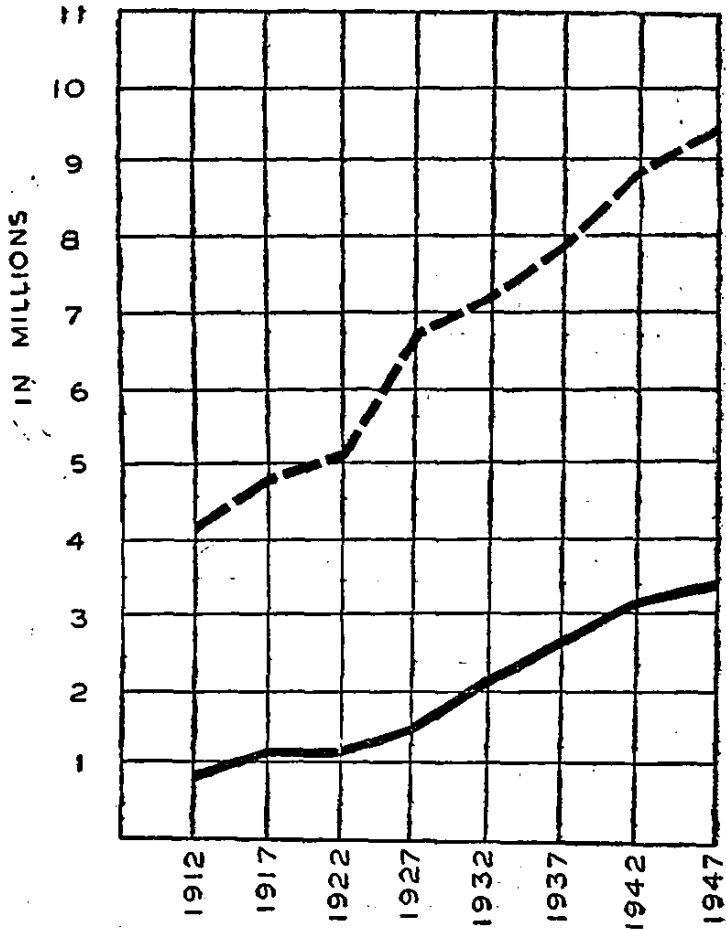
## PRIMARY SCHOOLS - PRE-1947

--- MALES  
— FEMALES



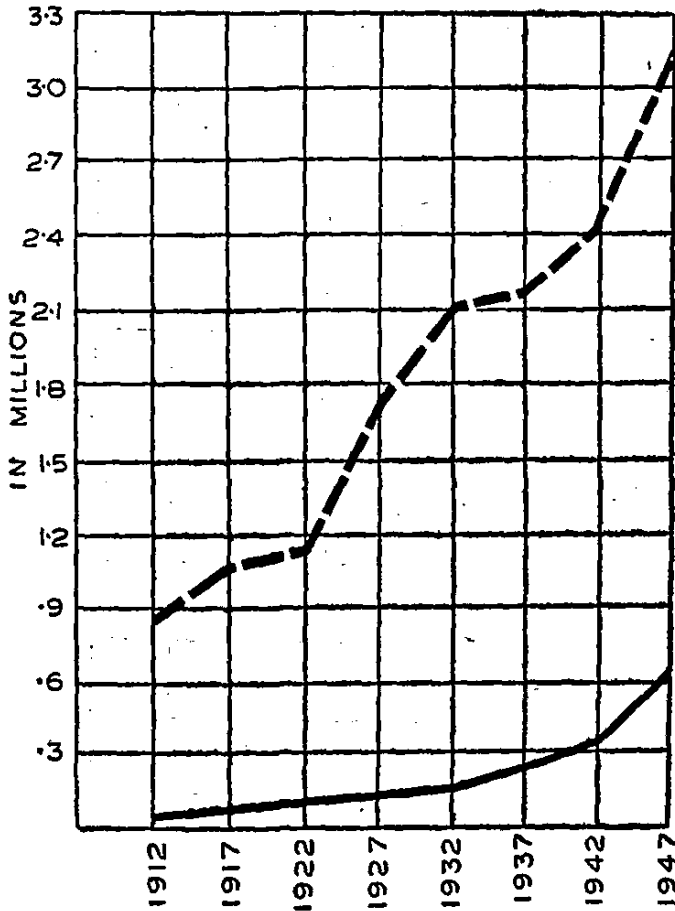
## PRIMARY SCHOOL—PRE-1947 ENROLMENT

--- MALES  
— FEMALES



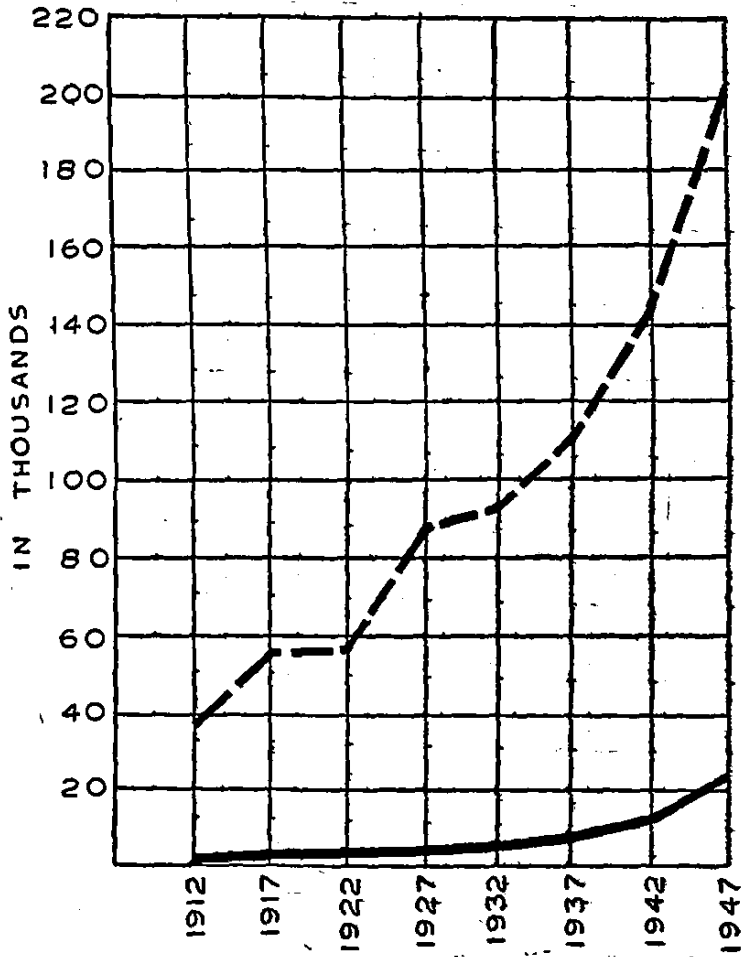
## SECONDARY EDUCATION—PRE-1947 ENROLMENT

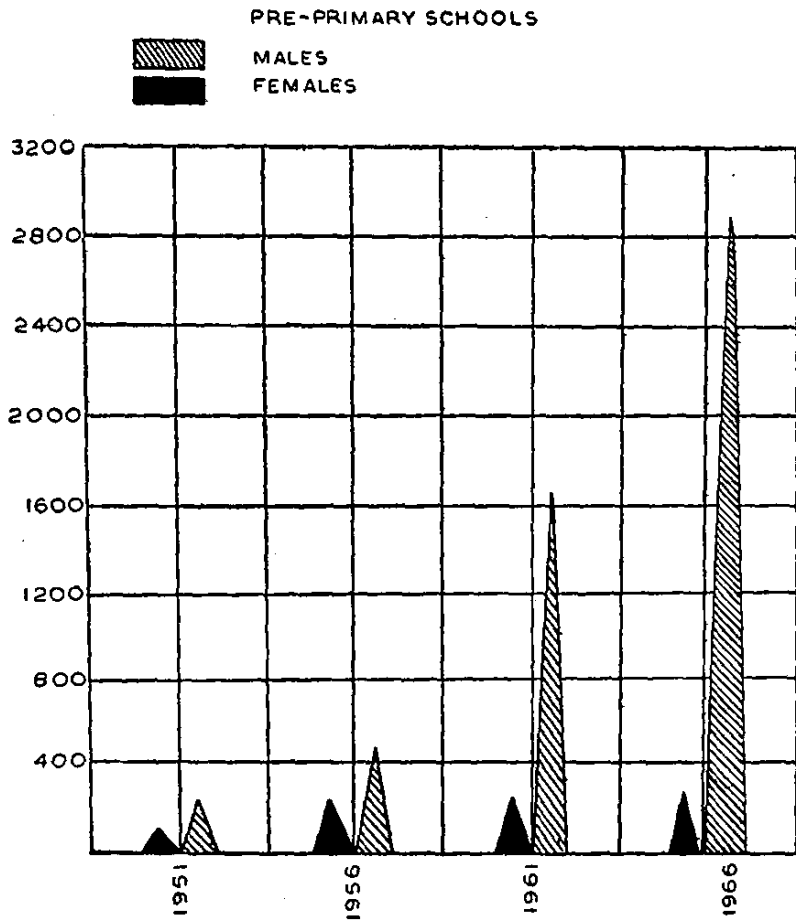
--- MALES  
— FEMALES



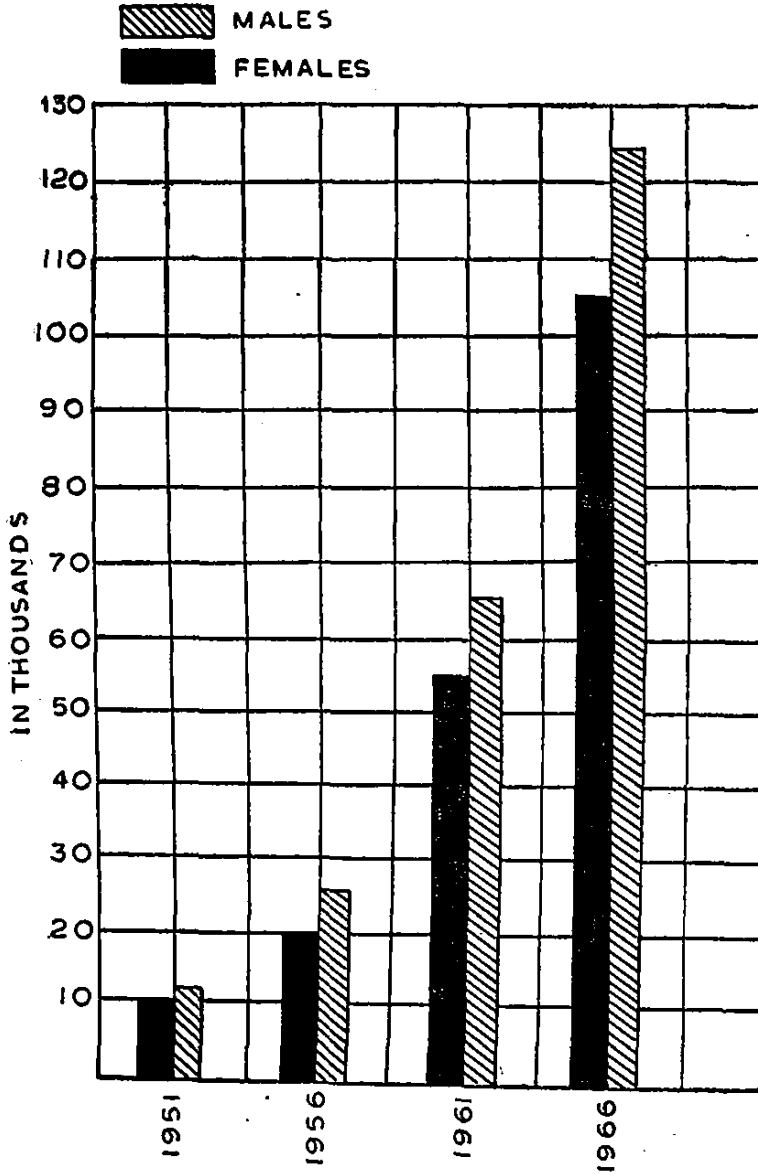
## UNIVERSITY EDUCATION—PRE-1947 ENROLMENT

--- MALES  
— FEMALES



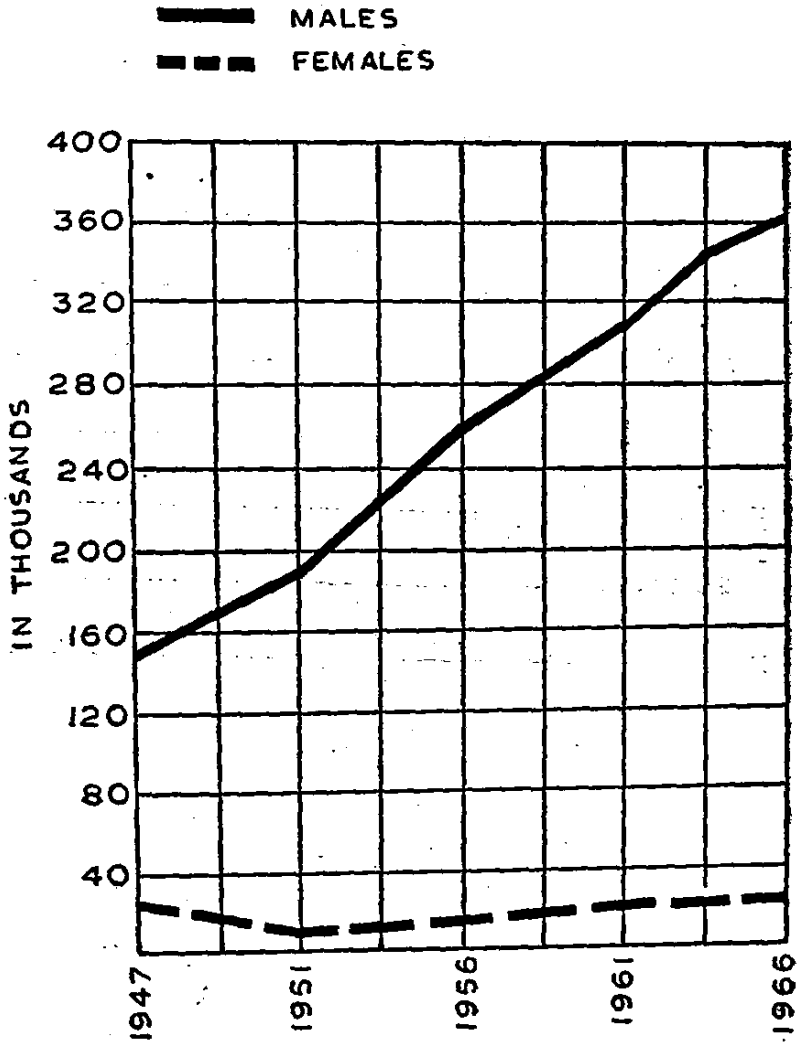


## PRE-PRIMARY SCHOOL ENROLMENT

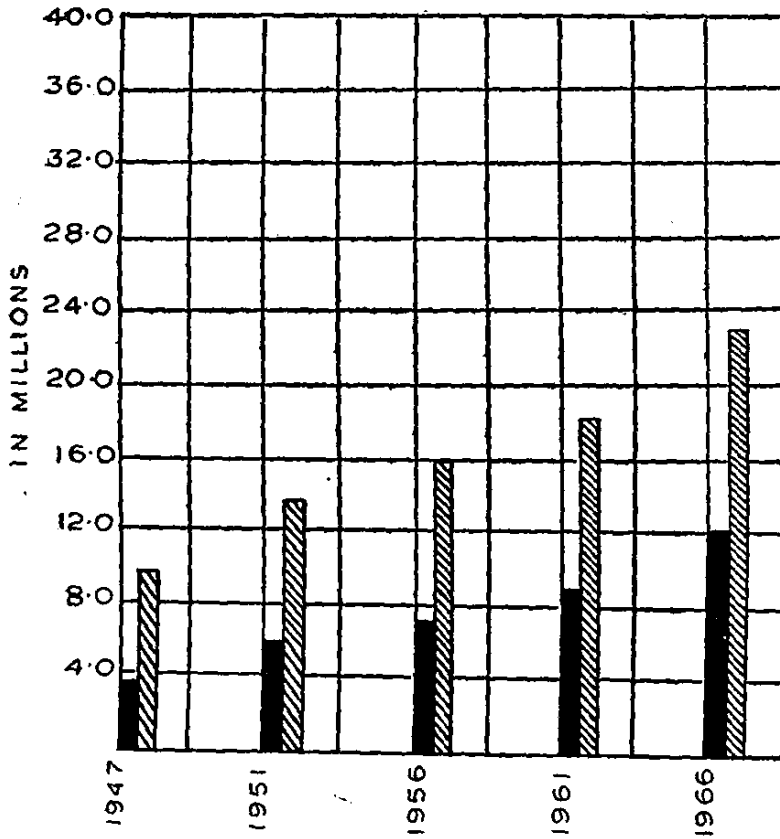




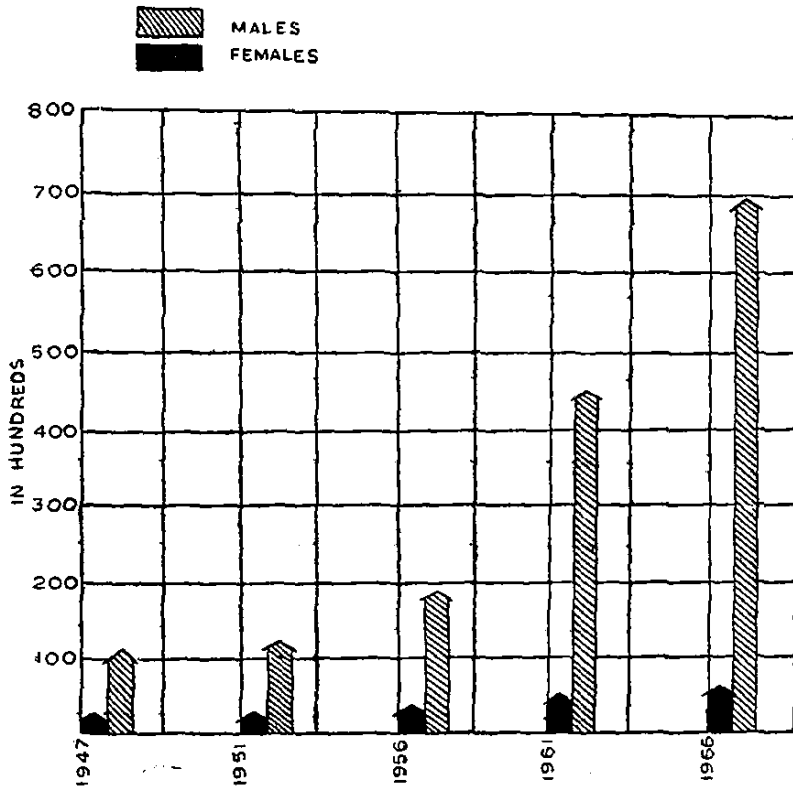
## PRIMARY SCHOOLS



## PRIMARY SCHOOL ENROLMENT

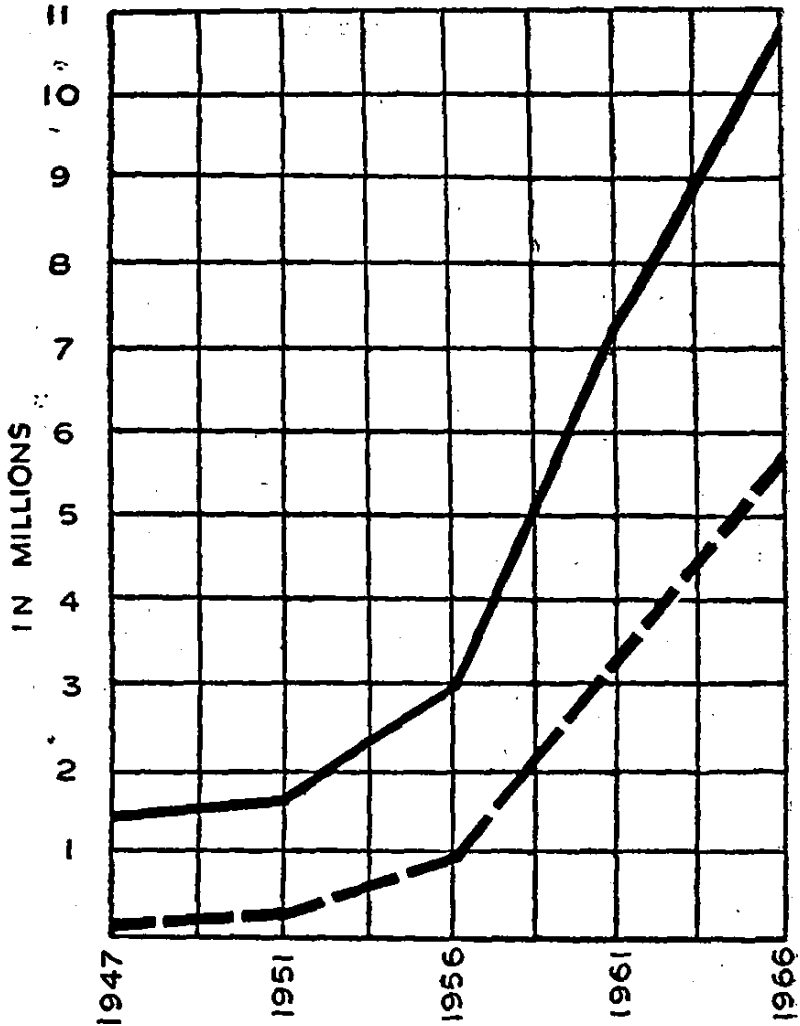


## MIDDLE SCHOOLS

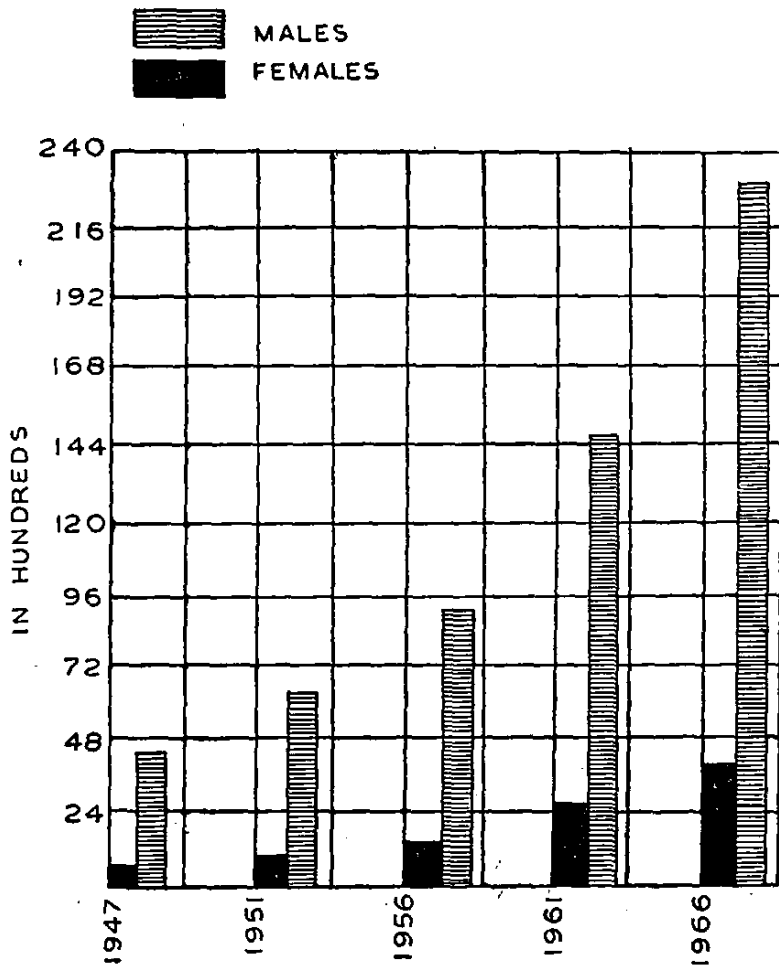


## MIDDLE SCHOOL ENROLMENT

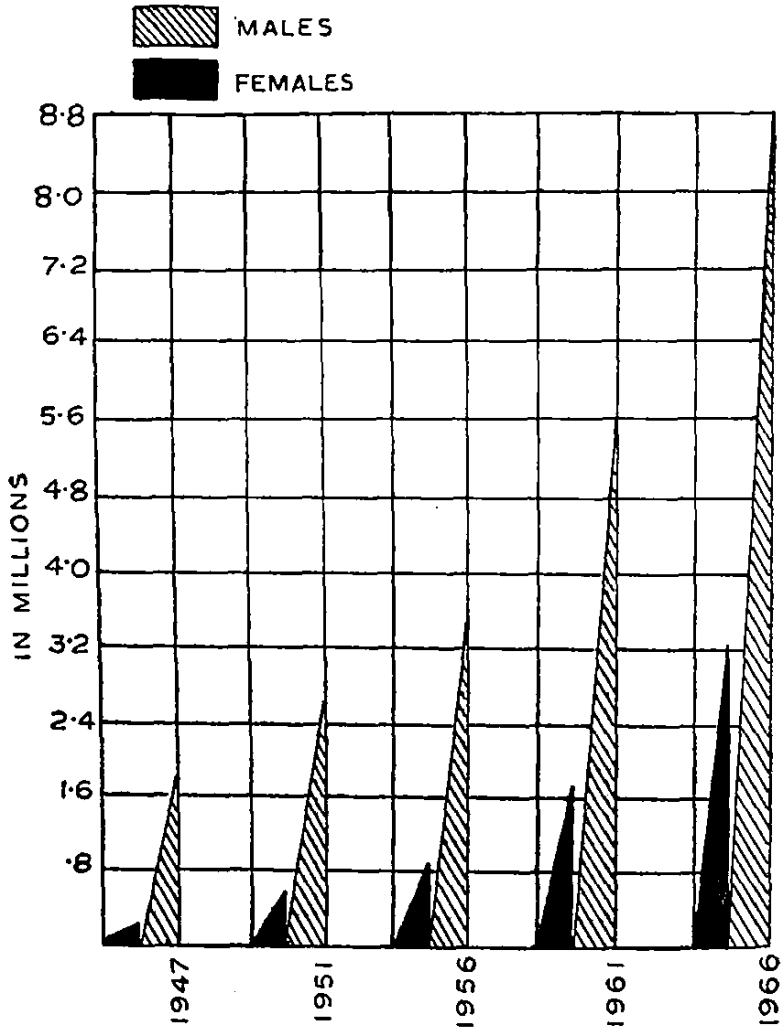
MALES  
FEMALES



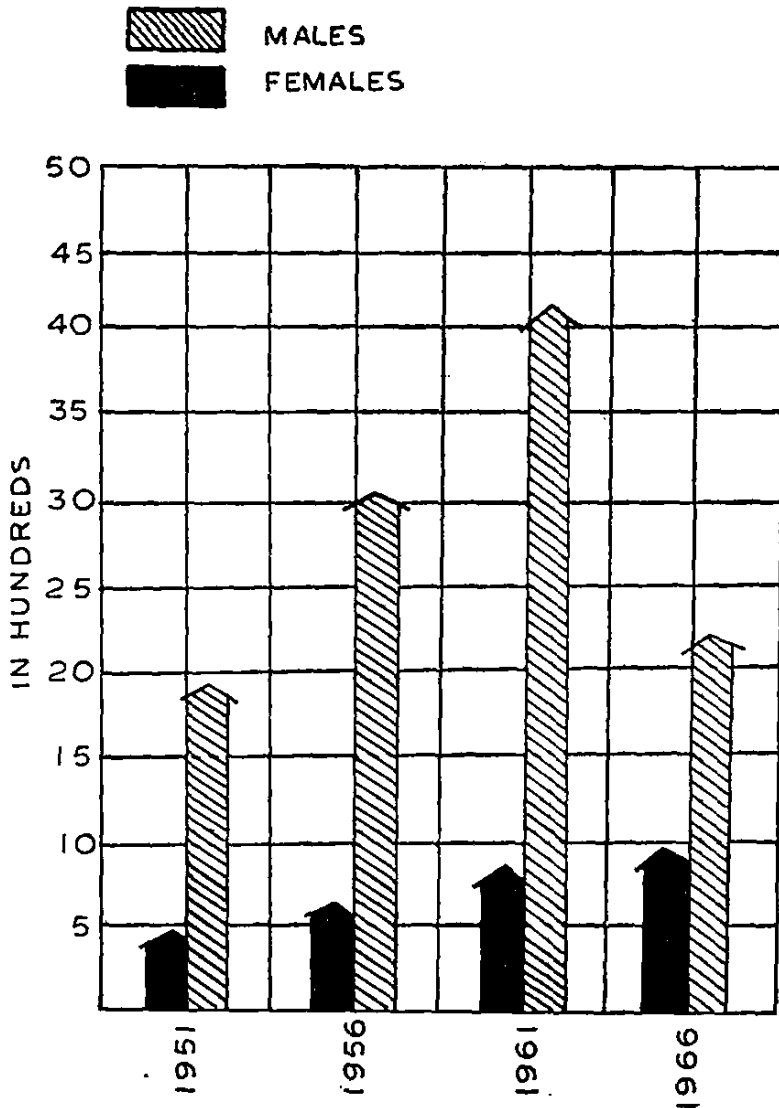
## HIGH-HIGHER SECONDARY SCHOOLS



## HIGH-HIGHER SECONDARY SCHOOL ENROLMENT

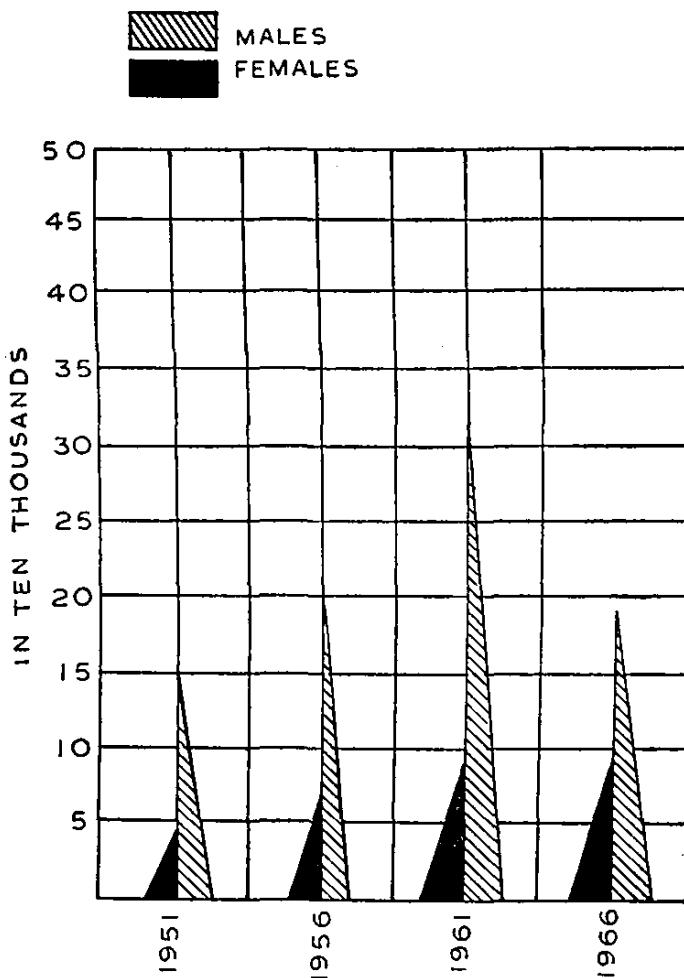


## VOCATIONAL AND TECHNICAL SCHOOLS



N.B. : From 1964-65, a new classification has been adopted for 'vocational and technical schools'; as such the figures for 1966 are not strictly comparable.

## VOCATIONAL AND TECHNICAL SCHOOL ENROLMENT

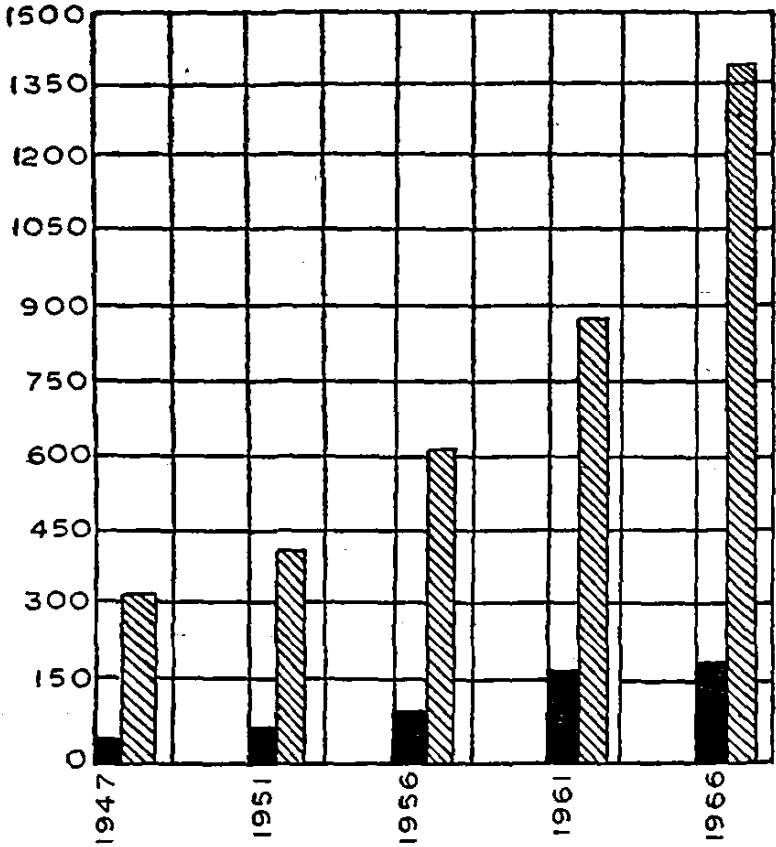


N.B. : Please see foot-note on page 93.



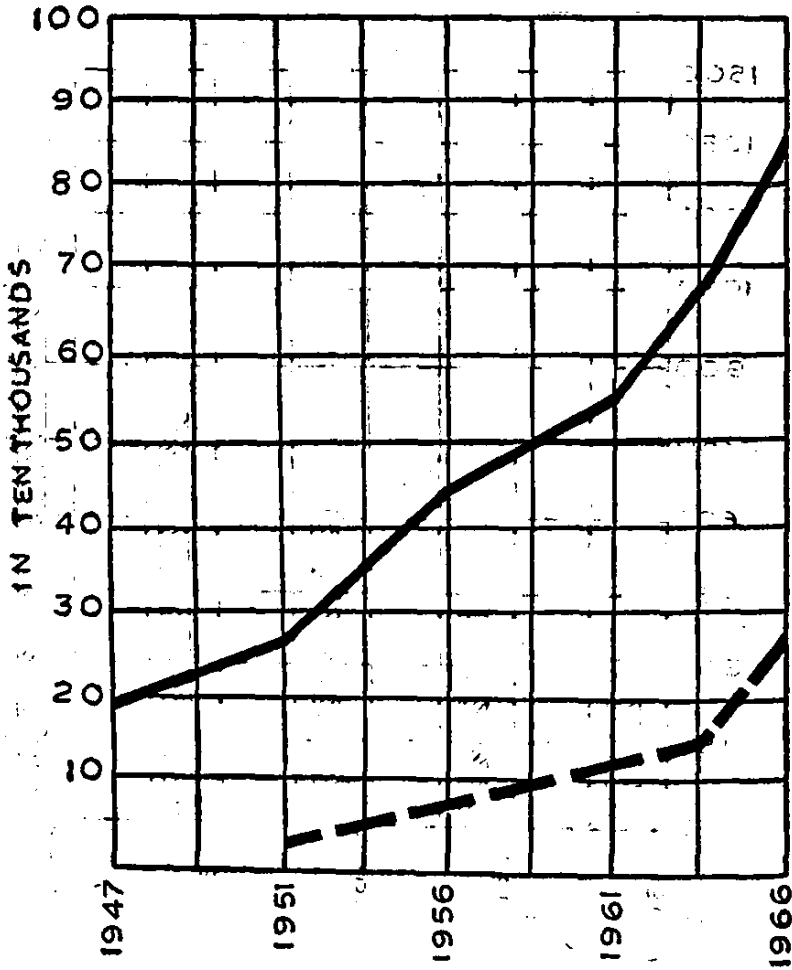
## COLLEGES-ARTS AND SCIENCE

 MALES  
 FEMALES



### COLLEGE ENROLMENT

MALES  
FEMALES

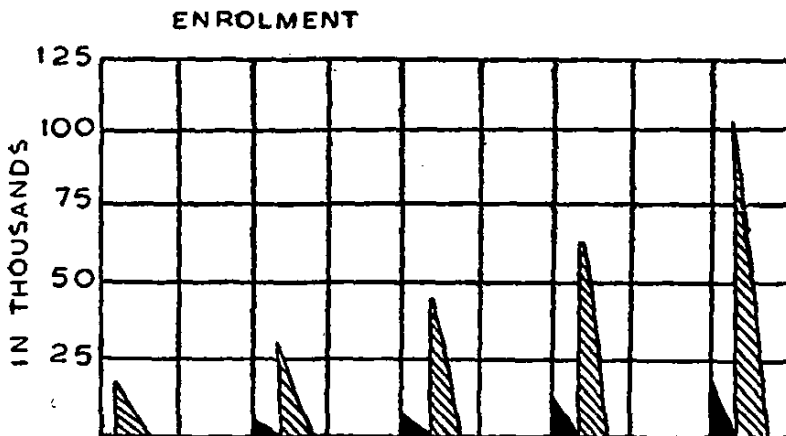
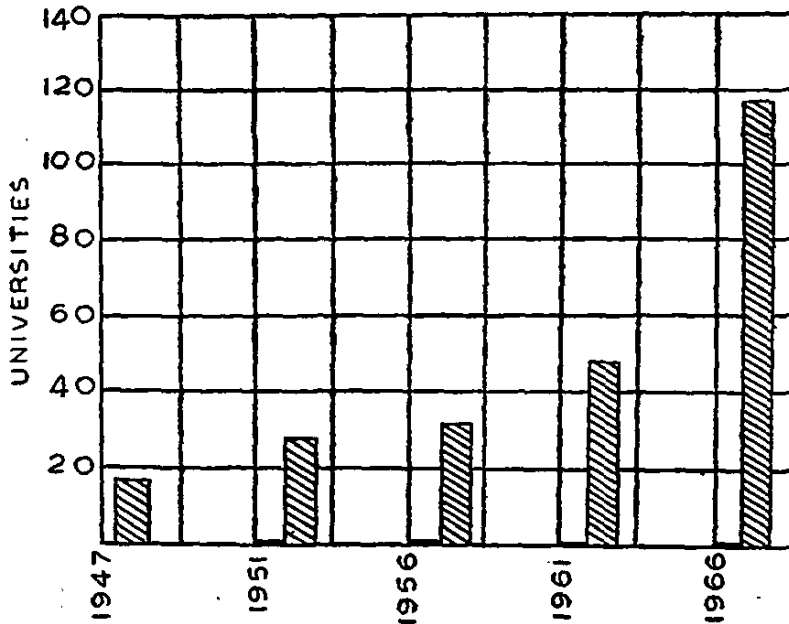


# UNIVERSITIES, BOARDS AND INSTITUTIONS OF RESEARCH

NO. OF INSTITUTIONS    ENROLMENT

MALES                      MALES

FEMALES                    FEMALES



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