

## Chapter 2

### Review of Literature

Several relevant literatures of international level, national level, state level and district level have been reviewed. Some of them are presented below.

Cagatay (1998) in his study mentioned that women's lack of control over fertility decisions, gender gaps in wages, gender biases against girl's education, norms about child marriage of girls and women's limited mobility stood as obstacles in escaping from poverty intergenerationally through vicious cycles between gender inequalities and poverty. Based on the *Human Development Report*, 1997, he observed that across countries there were relationships between general level of human poverty as measured by the Human Poverty Index (HPI) and gender inequality as measured by the Gender Development Index (GDI). He also found correlation between HPI and GEM, an index that measures the extent of gender inequality in political and economic participation and decision making.

In 1999, Klasen used cross country and panel regressions to investigate to what extent gender inequality in education and employment may reduce growth and development. The study found a considerable impact of gender inequality on economic growth. In the study, it was also observed that gender inequality in education prevented progress in reducing fertility and child mortality rates, thereby compromising progress in well being in developing countries.

Sen (1999) in his *Development as Freedom* mentioned that reduction in existing gender inequalities is a matter of concern for social scientists and economists not only due to its well-being related dimensions, but also because it has certain economic implications. Apart from intrinsic problems of gender inequality, it may undermine a number of development goals.

Using cross country and panel regressions, Klasen in 2002 investigated how gender inequality in education affected long term economic growth. The results of the study suggested that gender inequality in education directly affected economic growth by lowering the average level of human capital. In addition, he observed that growth was indirectly affected through the impact of gender inequality on investment and

population growth. The study found that some 0.4-0.9 percentage points of differences in annual per capita growth rates between East Asia and Sub-Saharan Africa, South Asia and the Middle East could be accounted for by differences in gender gaps in education between these regions.

Knowles, Lorgelly and Owen (2002) estimated the average long run effects of female and male education on output per worker for a cross section of countries using long time averages of the data. The results supported the World Bank's emphasis on the importance of female education in raising labour productivity.

Gumbel (2004) in his study on "The Influence of Gender Inequality on Economic growth" focused on democratic industrialised countries in the 1970s and tried to measure the influence of gender inequality in health, education and the labour market using cross country regression. In his study, he found results supporting the hypothesis taken in the study that a high per capita income was associated with less gender inequality. His study also revealed that inequality in education was strongly and negatively associated with high GNP per capita.

In 2008, Quentin Brummet in the study entitled "The Effect of Gender Inequality on Growth: A Cross Country Empirical Study" reformulated the variables in the regression and clearly showed that after controlling for multicollinearity, an underinvestment in women's education had a negative effect on growth. Further, it showed that differentials in primary education mattered more than differentials in secondary education and that gender inequality mattered more in developing nations.

To examine to what extent gender gaps in education and employment reduced economic growth, Klasen and Lamanna, in 2009, made a study using cross country and panel regressions. Using data for the period 1960-2000 and investigating for the Middle East, North Africa and South Asia, they observed that gender gaps in education and employment considerably reduced economic growth.

Baliamoune-Lutz, *et al* (2007) used panel data from African and Arab countries and Arellano-Bond estimations to empirically assess the impact on growth of the ratio of girls to boys in primary and secondary enrolment and the ratio of 15-24 year old literate females to males. The findings indicated that gender inequalities in literacy had a statistically significant negative effect that was robust to changes in specification and the results associated with the effects of gender inequality in

primary and secondary enrolment were less robust. Further, the results showed that higher gender inequality had an even stronger effect on income growth in Arab countries and in more open economies, gender inequality in literacy seemed to have an additional effect, but this effect was positive suggesting that trade-induced growth may be accompanied by gender inequalities.

Balatchandirane (2007) in his study “Gender Discrimination in Education and Economic Development: A study of Asia” looked at the denial of access to education that girls and women faced and how this affected on the modernization processes of a number of Asian countries. He studied the gender discrimination in education in each country and correlated its trend with the economic development. To study the discrimination, he built Becker’s co-efficient of discrimination using time series data for literacy rate, gross enrolment ratio, dropout rates and mean years of schooling. He analyzed in his study the economic and non-economic benefits of education. He examined the relation between discrimination and various social indicators like female life expectancy, infant mortality rate and maternal mortality rate. He also analyzed the relation between educational attainment of women and their labour force participation. He found that every country that positively attempted to reduce gender discrimination in education enormously benefited by such attempts, economically and otherwise. He concluded that, without exception, no country in the world had been able to show substantial progress in modernization, economic and otherwise, without substantially reducing the gender discrimination in education or eliminating it.

In 2015, Licumba, Dzator and Zhang analysed the impact of gender equality in education on economic growth on a panel data of five Southern African countries between 1970 and 2010. They used Instrumental Variable Technique to examine the impact of gender equality in education as measured by a ratio of girls to boys in primary enrolment and economic growth as measured by real gross domestic product per capita at 2005 constant prices. The analysis found that there was a positive, robust and significant effect of gender equality in education on economic growth in the region.

Relation of gender inequality and economic growth was analysed by Kim, Lee and Shin (2016) by focusing on the determination of women's time allocation among market production, home production, child rearing and child education in Asian

economies. The results they found indicated that improving gender equality could contribute significantly to economic growth by changing females' time allocation and promoting accumulation of human capital. They also observed that if gender inequality was completely removed, aggregate income would be about 6.6% and 14.15% higher than the benchmark economy after one and two generations respectively, while corresponding per capita income would be higher by 30.6% and 71.1% in the hypothetical gender equality economy as because fertility and population decrease as women participate more in the labour market.

Ackah, Ahiadeke and Fenny (2009) investigated the determinants of female labour force participation in Ghana. The study analysed the data from 1991/1992 and 2005/2006 Ghana Living Standards Survey and observed that women's educational attainment determine women's labour force participation in Ghana. Women with primary school education or above were found more economically active than those with no education.

Pervaiz, *et al* (2011) in their study "Gender Inequality and Economic Growth for Pakistan" examined the impacts of gender inequality on economic growth of Pakistan. They used the data for the period 1972-2009 and they regressed growth rate of real gross domestic product per capita on labour force growth, investment, trade openness and a composite index of gender inequality. They found that labour force growth, investment and trade openness had significantly positive impact whereas gender inequality had a significantly negative effect on economic growth.

Gender discriminations of dropout in the basic education in Pakistan were investigated by Khan, Thahir and Shah in 2011. The gender discriminations in his study were analyzed in the complex socio-economic scenario hovering around three important environments i.e., home, social and societal influencing the occurrence of the dropout in the education system. Based on the primary data collected from dropout children, parents and teachers from the two districts i.e., Vehari and Chakwal districts of Punjab Province they found that all the three environments collectively affected the dropout incidence in the basic education. Illiterate mothers, emotionally disturbed children and addiction in family were found to have significantly negative impact on the dropout incidence and especially for girls. In their study they also observed that the reallocation in monthly expenditure was the

probability of incidence of dropout of girl child. Their results also showed that school fee was insignificant but affected the girl child more than the boy child and the unlawful activities and different types of discrimination also had the incidence of dropping out from school.

In 2012, Aysit Tansel and Nil Demat Gungor in their study on “Gender Effects of Education on Economic Development in Turkey” examined the gender effects of education on economic growth or in steady state level of output. By using province level data they observed that female education positively and significantly affected the steady state level of labour productivity while the effect of male education was in general either positive or insignificant.

Qureshi (2012) in his study “The Gender Differences in School Enrolment and Returns to Education in Pakistan” attempted to link the gender differences in parental resource allocation in demand for education at primary, secondary and tertiary level of education to gender differences in returns to education in these respective categories in Pakistan. They found that there was under investment in female education at all levels even though returns to education were much higher for females than males. According to them, one possible reason was that though private rate of return to time spent in school than in labour market was higher for female compared to male but the part of return that goes to parents was much lower for daughters than sons in Pakistan due to dependence of parents on their sons for old age support. They also observed that the returns to education increased with increase in educational levels both for males and females and the investment increase was much more for females than for males. The study also revealed that both father’s and mother’s education were found to have significantly positive impact on education of both sons and daughters. However, mother’s education compared to father had much more impact in terms of magnitude at all levels of education and especially the role was more pronounced for daughters. They suggested that to reduce such discriminatory attitude towards female enrolment in a household was found to be education of parents especially mother’s education.

To examine the impact of gender inequality in education on economic growth for Turkey, Yumusak (2013) analysed in detail the relationship between primary schooling, high schooling, vocational high schooling and university education with

economic growth and found a long run negative relationship between gender inequality in education and economic growth.

In 2014, Samia Satti Osman Mohamad Nour examined the gender gap in education and investigated the related implications on the labour market and return to education in Sudan. She used both primary and secondary data in her study. She collected primary data at the micro level in 2009 and used ordinary Least Square Method to estimate the Mincerian earning function and the rate of return to education defined by gender in Sudan. The results that she found indicated the incidence of significant gender gap in education in Sudan. She also observed the incidence of gender gap in skill level, share of women in economic activities, labour force participation rate, employment and return to education in Sudan. She felt that these were important for enhancing educational attainment of women to reduce the gender gap in education and empowerment of women and to facilitate improvement in the return to education for women in Sudan.

To find out the determinants of fertility, child mortality and gender bias in child mortality in India, Murthi, Guio and Dreze (1995) carried out a study. Using district level data from the 1981 Census of India in their analysis, they found that, female literacy in particular significantly reduced child mortality, fertility levels and the female disadvantage in child survival.

Kapoor (2010) in his study on “Infant Mortality in India: District Level Variations and Correlations” used a secondary panel dataset of 666 districts to determine which of socio and or economic factors played an important role in reducing infant mortality rates. The analysis brought out the negative relationship of women's literacy and child mortality at the district level.

Basumatary (2017) examined the relationship between women's literacy and economic growth for India using correlation analysis based on secondary data. Her analysis indicated that literacy rate of women have a highly positive and significant correlation with economic growth in India.

Arora (2012) in her study on “Gender Inequality, Economic Development and Globalisation: A State level Analysis of India” used access to education and health as the indicators of gender inequality and examined gender inequality and state level openness in the different states of India. The study showed that at the sub-national

level in India higher per capita income was accompanied with lower gender inequality.

Padma and Mao (1982) conducted a study upon educational problem of Naga girl students and found that 35.75 per cent had problem with regard to non-availability of sufficient time for studies at home due to heavy domestic work, 27.50 per cent had the problem of lack of domestic tutors and 75.00 per cent had disturbance caused by visitors.

To study women's education in Assam for the period 1971 to 1991, Bora (1995) conducted a study. In her study she found a very low percentage of enrolment of girls in the field of higher education. Many factors like dearth in hostel facilities, unwillingness of parents to send girls to far off places and to co-educational institutions were found to be contributing to the low enrolment.

Dkhar (1996) examined the growth and development of women's education in Meghalaya and found that after independence there was a remarkable progress in the expansion of higher education of women and in all spheres of educational facilities, increase in the percentage of female literacy, increase in the number of girls' facilities and increase in the better examination performance.

In her study on education of women student in Manipur in 2003, Chinneilhing pointed out that prior to independence there was no schools and college exclusively meant for girls. The enrolment was lower than that of the boys at every stage of education. The need of girls was looked after less than boys whether it is for education or for health care. The major difficulties mentioned by girls were absence of space for study due to heavy pressure of domestic work.

Basumatary (2013) carried out a study on impact of female literacy on infant mortality with special reference to Assam. Using secondary data and regression analysis she found a significant relationship between infant mortality and female literacy rate.

In 2015, Basumatary and Das investigated how and to what extent gender bias in education affected Total Fertility Rate (TFR), Infant Mortality Rate (IMR), Birth Rate (BR), Death Rate (DR), Overall Sex Ratio (SR), Life Expectancy at Birth (LEB), Net State Domestic Product (NSDP), Per Capita Net State Domestic Product (PCNSDP) and development of education in Assam. They used literacy rate gap as a

proxy for gender bias in education and found that gender bias in education has significantly positive impact on TFR, IMR, BR, DR and negative impact on SR, LE, NSDP, PCNSDP and development of education.

The impact of education on economic growth in Assam was studied by Basumatary (2017). Using literacy rate as a proxy for education and time series data upon literacy rate and gross state domestic product in her study, she found from the regression analysis that literacy rate has a significantly positive impact on economic growth in Assam.

In 2017 Mahanta examined the inter-relationship between Women Empowerment Index (WEI), Human Development Index (HDI) and Gender Differential Index (GDI) for Assam and found that WEI, HDI and GDI all were positively related revealing that, Women Empowerment, Human Development and Gender Equality were inter-related. Her study also showed that in Assam, ratio of female to male literacy rate, female to male work participation rate and female to male share in community and household level decision making significantly contributed positively towards women empowerment; per capita income, female literacy rate and infant survivality rate contributed positively to HDI and female literacy, female work participation rate and female to male sex ratio contributed positively to GDI. She concluded from her study that women empowerment indicators like infant survivality rate and female literacy and standard of living indicator measured by income have a significant impact on human development. She also found that women empowerment could be increased by reduction of gender gap and gender equality could be increased through enhanced level of women empowerment indicators like their work participation rate, sex ratio and female literacy.

Ahmed and Hafeej (2007) in their study on “Labor Supply and Earning Functions of Educated Married Women: A Case Study of Northern Punjab” analysed labour supply of educated married women in Mandi Bahauddin district of Northern Punjab. Collecting primary data from the district in 2002 from the married women aged at 15-60 years with at least secondary school education and using Logit and Probit model with the Linear Probability model, they found that the education level and economic compulsion were important factors affecting women labour force

participation decision. They also observed that human capital variables like education, experience and training, besides the nature of occupation and the distance from the central city, were the important factors affecting women earning rates, while the hours of work were mainly determined institutionally.

In 1995 Borgohain did a critical study of women's higher education in Sibsagar district of Assam. The study showed that 1.33 per cent of girls opted for Commerce, 10.6 per cent opted for Science and 88.1 per cent opted for Arts. The study also revealed that after choosing their interested courses women students were suffering from problems related to the courses in the colleges.

Saikia (2008) carried out a study on the problems of education of rural women. He collected primary data from 300 respondents from two villages of Sibsagar district of Assam. He found that women education in rural Assam was lagging because of a number of reasons. According to him, due to the poor economic condition of the village people, negative attitude of male folk towards women education imposed by caste since time immemorial and the communication problem to and from the school, lack of aspiration of parents, absence of strong women organization and also due to illiteracy of parents, rural women were not getting scope to pursue education.

Reddy and Manas observed parental attitude towards women education in 2012. They collected primary data from Gurbanga district of Karnataka in India. Using simple statistical tools i.e., mean, Standard Deviation and t-test, they found that Hindus of high income group favoured women education and those of low income group showed neutral attitude towards women education. They also found that Muslims of higher income group showed neutral attitude towards women education and Christians of both high income group and low income group showed favourable attitude towards women education.

Baglari (2012) studied higher education of women in BTAD of Assam. In her study, from the primary survey, it was revealed that majority of the professional colleges' women students, general colleges' women students and university women students felt their fees too high. The results of the survey indicated that the women students, from the general colleges, professional colleges and university, were aware of the significance and value of higher education. Her study also showed that

majority of the women students' parents in the college level and all the women students' parents in the university level were interested in their studies, which showed a positive attitude towards women's education.

From the above review of relevant literature of gender disparity in education, it is evident that there are scarce studies on gender disparity in education and economic development in Assam. Although there are quite a good number of studies upon gender disparity, female education and gender disparity in education and economic development, studies related to gender disparity in education and economic development for India in particular were not found. Moreover, for the State of Assam also, although there are some studies upon women education, studies that discussed gender disparity in education in detail and studies that related gender disparity in education and economic development were not found. Therefore, the present study will make an attempt to study in detail the gender disparity in education and will relate the gender disparity in education and economic development in Assam with special reference to Baksa and Kokrajhar districts.

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