

Available online at https://ijmras.com/

Page no.-15/15

INTERNATIONAL JOURNAL OF MULTIDISCIPLINARY RESEARCH AND STUDIES ISSN: 2640 7272

Volume:04; Issue:03 (2021)

IMPACT OF CASTE ON GENDER INEQUALITY IN EDUCATION



Mithilesh Kumar

M.Phil., Roll No.: 141917 Session-2014-15

Department of Sociology, B.R.A. Bihar University, Muzaffarpur, India.

E-mail: mithu153944@gmail.com

ABSTRACT

The term "gender inequality in India" refers to the disparities that exist between men and women in India in terms of their health, education, economic standing, and political power. There are a number of different worldwide indices that measure gender inequality, and each of these indices produces a distinct ranking for India based not just on each of these aspects but also on a composite basis. The gender gap and the societal factors that contribute to it have an effect on the sex ratio in India, as well as women's health, educational achievement, and economic situations throughout their lives. Inequality between the sexes in India is a complex problem that affects both men and women in equal measure. Some people believe that some gender equality initiatives are unfair to males and put them in a worse position. However, when the population of India as a whole is considered, it becomes clear that women are at a significant disadvantage in a number of critical aspects.

Keywords: Caste, Gender, Inequality, Education

INTRODUCTION

The continued existence of disparities in terms of access to higher education is most likely the most significant challenge that the higher education system in India must contend with. Inequities in access to higher education led to socio-economic inequalities in the society, which in turn exacerbate existing inequalities in education. [Case in point:] Inequalities in access to higher education led to inequities in access to labour market information, which lead to inequalities in employment and participation in the labour market, which lead to inequalities in earnings, which contribute in turn to socio-economic and political inequalities.

In other words, inequality in access to higher education leads to inequality in access to labour market information, which leads to inequality in employment and participation in the labour market, which leads to inequality in earnings, which contributes to inequality in socio-economic and Inequities in education are the outcome of socioeconomic and political inequalities being transferred into the education sector, which in turn results in educational inequality. When there are disparities in access to education, there is a corresponding loss in both individual and societal wellbeing.

INEQUALITIES BY SOCIAL GROUPS

Reservations are offered to them in education and employment in an effort to address some of these historical disadvantages. There are further castes that fall under the category of "other backward castes." After the Government of India accepted the Mandal Commission Report (Government of India, 1980), which recommended expanding the reservation policy to include "other" backward castes, the policy was given its name. Some of the religious groups that are considered to be in the minority, such as Muslims, have lagged far behind others in terms of educational progress. In recent times, this topic has been brought to light in the report that was compiled by the Sachar Committee (Government of India, 2006). This has also become a significant problem in the realm of research, as well as a significant concern in the realm of policy (Hasan, 2012). It is a fact that SCs only make up 12% of the overall enrollments in higher education while STs make up just 4.5 % (2011–12). It is also a common misconception that Muslims only make up a tiny percentage of the entire population. On the other hand, one may do a more insightful study by looking at enrollment ratios in conjunction with rates of graduation from higher education institutions.

INEQUALITIES BY CASTE

sThe enrollment ratios of SCs and STs have, on average and on a constant basis, been much lower than those of the non-scheduled population or the entire population. However, both SCs and STs have achieved tremendous progress by raising their enrollment ratios of their respective demographic groups by four to five times in about twenty and a half decades between 1983-84 and 2009-10. This increase occurred between the years 1983-84 and 2009-10. As a consequence of this, the disparities between SC and ST have shrunk, and the disparities between the scheduled population and the nonscheduled population have also shrunk. The growth in the ST population was relatively faster than that of the SC population, despite the fact that their enrolment ratio is lower in absolute terms than that of the SC population. Nevertheless, it is necessary to note that (a) enrollment rates are low not just among SC and ST, but also among non-scheduled population groups, and (b) large discrepancies still exist between scheduled and non-scheduled population groups. In 2009–10, the enrollment ratio was close to 12 percent among the ST and 15 percent among the SC, compared to 23 percent for everyone (Table 4). It is rather interesting to note that there is not a significant difference in the eligible enrolment ratio across a number of caste groups. In the case of STs, the ratio is substantially greater than in the cases of OBCs and others (non-backward sections), coming in at 62%.

INEQUALITIES BETWEEN RELIGIOUS GROUPS

There is a significant widening of the gap between the different religious groups with regard to the gross enrollment ratio. There are accessible estimates on the gross enrollment ratio for those who identify as Hindu, Muslim, Christian, or "others." In the school year 2009–2010, the enrollment percentage for Muslims was just 14%, but it was 24.2% among Hindus and 37.2% among Christians. In 2009–10, 28 percent of students identified themselves as belonging to the religious category known as "Others," which includes Jains, Sikhs, and other similar groups. The percentage of Christians who enrol in school is much higher than that of Muslims, who have the lowest rate (Table 6). The circumstances have remained the same over the whole span of time between the academic years 1983–1984 and 2009–2010. In spite of the fact that all four groups have shown signs of progress between 1983–1984 and 2009–2010, the disparities that exist between groups on the basis of religion have not shrunk by a significant amount. In point of fact, it seemed like the gap had become larger (Figure 5). The transition ratio between Hindus and Muslims was around 70 percent in 2004–2005, which, according to the estimations provided by Azam and Blom (2009), demonstrates that there is not a significant amount of disparity between the two groups.

It should come as no surprise that Christians are well in the lead with a ratio of about 80 percent. Seventy-one percent of those who have completed their secondary education and who identify as either Hindu or Muslim go on to pursue further education. Among Christian people, the proportion was eighty percent. However, overall updated estimates of transition rates in 2009–10 are rather modest; around 20% of those who identify as Hindus and Christians, 16% of those who identify as Muslims, and 11% of those who identify as other religions.

RURAL-URBAN DISPARITIES

Inequalities in space shall be our topic of discussion now. There are significant disparities in terms of higher education between the several states in India. These disparities include the number of universities and colleges, the quality of the facilities at those institutions, the number of students enrolled, and even the amount of money spent by the government. The gross enrollment ratio in higher education varies among the major states, with Jharkhand and Chhattisgarh having one end of the spectrum with less than or around 10% of the population enrolled in higher education and Chandigarh and Tamil Nadu having the other end of the spectrum with above or around 40% of the population enrolled in higher education (MHRD, 2014).

INEQUALITIES BY ECONOMIC CLASSES

By household spending quintiles and deciles, estimates of several indicators of higher education progress (and other variables) are given. These estimates are based on the data from the NSS. However, the monthly per capita spending, on which the NSS offers abundant data, is the indicator that is utilised widely throughout. There have been a few academics who have used other indicators such as assets (or asset index) to examine the economic levels of the families.

EDUCATIONAL REFORM IN INDIA

In India, there is now an ongoing push to improve the educational attainment of female students, which is taking place against the background of an expansive educational growth movement. During the latter half of the 20th century, India made significant headway in enhancing the educational facilities that were available to its citizens. This accomplishment was emblematic of the post-war educational expansion that was undertaken by newly independent states as well as the significance of education within the framework of the emerging nation-state model (Meyer, Ramirez, and Soysal 1992). India's educational expansion is also reflective of the Education for All programme run by the United Nations Economic, Social, and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) and the push to achieve universal primary education by the year 2015 as part of the Millennium Development Goals programme. Both of these programmes are aimed at bringing about global change (Govinda 2002; United Nations 2010). In addition, the expansion efforts are guided by India's Constitution, which mandates universal education for those under the age of fourteen, a 1986 National Policy on Education, which increased educational investments for girls and lower-caste children, and a 1993 Supreme Court decision that upheld education as a fundamental right of citizens.

SOCIAL BACKGROUND FACTORS

Research on education has traditionally focused on determining the relative importance of factors such as social background and the nature of the learning environment in relation to academic performance. The Coleman report, which was published in the United States in 1966, was one of the first studies that demonstrated the significance of the students' familial environments to the academic achievement of children (Coleman et al. 1966). Recent scholarly research has also shown that, in the United States, the achievement gap between students from families with different socioeconomic backgrounds, as measured by things like income level, continued to widen throughout the latter decades of the 20th century (Duncan and Murnane 2011; Reardon 2011). In India, it has been discovered that social background is still related with one's level of learning, despite the fact that access to education has increased over the course of the last several decades.

ACCESS TO HIGH-QUALITY EDUCATION RESOURCES

Educational research highlights the importance of school-level resources in student learning (Greenwald, Hedges, and Laine 1996; Hedges, Laine, and Greenwald), although some question whether additional resources are associated with improvements in school quality and educational outcomes once family background factors are taken into account. (Greenwald, Hedges, and Laine 1996; Hedges, Laine, and Greenwald). In addition, studies have shown that the availability of educational resources and the impacts of one's socioeconomic background are often intertwined (Duncan and Murnane 2011). In addition, studies conducted in underdeveloped nations such as India suggest that attending a reputable educational institution may be particularly important to a student's ability to do well in academic settings (Gamoran and Long; Heyneman and Loxley 1983). Given that research reveals that Indian girls may be

subjected to lesser quality educational settings than boys, it is necessary to take into consideration the quality of the schools that they attend.

ACCESS TO WHICH TYPE OF SCHOOLING

According to the findings of several studies, a disproportionate number of children from lower castes and children of women attend government schools (both formal and non-formal), while children from higher castes and boys are more likely to enrol in private schools (PROBE 1999; Aggarwal, 2000a; Mehta, 2005; Kumar et al, 2005). According to research conducted by Kumar et al. (2005), government schools in West Bengal, similar to those in many other states, primarily serve disadvantaged students, such as females and members of SC and ST minority groups. According to the findings of the survey, the proportion of males to females attending public schools ranged from 54:46 to 59:41, but in private schools, the ratio was 59:41. In recent years, there has been a shift, among socioeconomic sectors who are able to pay it, toward both private and unregistered educational institutions.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Sanjay Karak (2019) This research takes into account the gender disparity that occurs across all regions and socioeconomic classes in India, as well as how it impedes the development of the country's educational institutions. The reality of gender disparity in higher education in India is very complicated and diverse. This is due to the fact that gender inequality occurs in every sector, including education, work possibilities, income, health, cultural concerns, social issues, and economic difficulties, etc. An investigation of the components of the Indian educational systems that may have contributed to the development of this issue has been carried out. Therefore, the purpose of this study is to shed light on the multifaceted backdrop of gender inequality that is present in the educational institutions of India. In general, the research points to inequalities in economic, social, cultural, and legal biases, all of which provide a significant obstacle for policymakers and social scientists working to promote appropriate equality across the board in the social sphere.

Asad Islam (2021) we show that the differences in patients' physician choices are consistent with gender-based statistical discrimination by utilising a field experiment in India where patients are randomly assigned to rank among a set of physicians of the same gender but with different castes and years of experience. It is difficult for female physicians to overcome the prejudice they face due to their work experience in the labour market. In addition, we find that lower caste physicians, who are often victims of caste prejudice, are more likely to be subjected to gender discrimination. Our findings imply that the 'intersectionality' between gender and caste leads to greater gender inequality among professionals in India. This is the case despite the fact that a growing proportion of professionals come from backgrounds with lower castes.

Gail M. Hicke, Esq (2017) In spite of the fact that India has a goal to provide free and mandatory education for all children up to the age of 14, a sizeable number of children living in rural areas do not finish their education. The vast majority of these youngsters who are not attending school are female. Through the narratives of immigrants, educational reports, and

first-hand observation in an Indian rural primary school, this article explores possible political, social, and economic explanations for the non-participation of Asian Indian girl-children in formal schooling. These explanations are considered from a political, social, and economic perspective. The examination of the data reveals that socialisation based on gender, caste, and class are all contributors to the problem under investigation.

Prachi Paliwal (2016) The condition of education among India's traditionally oppressed castes in the modern era sheds light on deeply ingrained disparities that are expressed in a variety of different ways. Accessing educational institutions can be difficult for members of backward castes for a variety of different reasons, including a lack of accessibility to educational facilities, discrimination during the admissions process, unequal treatment in the classroom, undue peer pressure based on caste identities, societal pressures, and so on. Because of the way marginalised people are treated, the community as a whole has made very little development in terms of its social standing over the years.

Amman Madan (2020) The findings of the 66th National Social Survey indicate that class, caste, and gender roles in higher education must be viewed in an integrated way. This conclusion was reached as a result of an examination of the survey's findings. We take a look at the many ways in which they have been conceptualised as structures of inequality in order to identify some connecting threads. Moving away from a unilinear point of view, a multidimensional and intersectional theory of inequality is turned towards by highlighting three tropes that are central simultaneously across class, caste, and gender.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Research is an inquiry that is carried out with diligence and care, with the goal of acquiring new information by an approach that is methodical, scientific, and analytical in any field of study. It is a methodical approach that seeks to acquire information, the truth, or general principles in a manner that is verifiable and objective. The purpose of this investigation is to provide an explanation of the research methodology that was used in the course of the research activity. Research in the social sciences is the kind of investigation that adheres to a methodical framework and is carried out by social scientists. Methods for doing social research may typically be divided into two categories: quantitative and qualitative. Even though different approaches may sometimes be categorised as either qualitative or quantitative, the vast majority of procedures combine components of both. For instance, qualitative data analysis often entails using a very organised method for coding the raw data into systematic information and assessing the inter coder reliability of the coding. As a result, a clear separation between "qualitative" and "quantitative" should truly be understood as a connection that is considerably more complicated, in the sense that many methodologies may be both qualitative and quantitative.

METHODS OF DATA COLLECTION

In any empirical study, for that matter, methods matter the most because the very validity and reliability do solely depend on the soundness and sophistication of methods, tools, and

techniques employed in the realisation of stated objectives. This is true regardless of the type of empirical study being conducted. The degree to which the methodology used is refined and sophisticated is directly proportional to the tenability of the generalisations, the causal links, as well as the precision and validity with which the phenomena might be anticipated.

INDEPENDENT VARIABLE:

The age of the respondents, marital status, and characteristics was thought to be relevant to assess the qualitative features of the course. The key demographic characteristics of the respondents that were included in the current research were the age of the respondents.

Economic characteristics: The significant economic characteristics of the respondent were taken for the purpose of the study. These economic characteristics include the occupation of the respondent, the income of the respondents per month, the income of the head of the family, and other information related to the topic.

Social characteristics: the sociological standing of the respondent, religion, caste, type of family, education level of the respondent, and any other pertinent information was collected in addition to studying the respondent's primary social features.

TOOLS FOR ANALYSIS:

The researchers that worked on this study made use of many types of statistical methods, such as average, percentage, and growth rates, where appropriate. Additional data have been categorised and presented in a straightforward and understandable manner by making use of tables, graphs, and other similar elements.

ANALYSIS PLAN:

In the current investigation, the qualitative data was collected via the use of a pre-coded questionnaire administered during the interviews. The data on the quantities that were received through the structured interview schedule went through a thorough editing process. A package was used to do the processing on the data. The production of straightforward frequencies and simplified forms of percentages constituted the analysis of quantitative data.

STATISTICAL TOOLS USED:

In the current investigation, statistical methods such as the mean, percentages, and annual growth rates are used wherever they were deemed appropriate. Additional data are organised, and their presentation, which may include tables, graphs, and simple charts, is kept as straightforward and understandable as possible.

DATA ANALYSIS

The socioeconomic status of a person or family may be thought of as a combined overall measure of that family's or individual's economic and social place in society. The factors of caste, religion, money, education level, and employment all have a role. High socioeconomic aspects, middle socioeconomic aspects, and low socioeconomic aspects are typically used to describe the three areas a family or an individual may fall into when attempting to assess their social position in relation to their socioeconomic status. These three categories are combined to assess social position in relation to socioeconomic status. When classifying a person or family into one of these groups, it is possible to take into account any one of these three factors—income, education level, and line of work—or all of them. Additionally, low income and a lack of education have been shown to be strong predictors of a variety of physical and mental health problems. These may be caused by environmental conditions in their social condition, or in the case of mental illnesses, may be the entire cause of that person's social predicament to begin with. Regardless of the reason, these factors have been shown to be strong predictors of a range of health problems.

The marital status of the people who participate in social science research is always an extremely crucial factor. It gives an insight into the socioeconomic and demographic characteristics of the region under consideration. As a result, the marital status of the respondents was also taken into account, as is seen in the table that follows.

Marital status of the respondents

SI. No.	Response	Frequency	Percentage
1	Unmarried	418	83.6
2	Married	79	15.8
3	Widow	02	0.4
4	Separated/Divorced	1	0.2
	Total	500	100.00

The marital status of the respondents from the scheduled caste is shown in Table 4.4. This table includes those who are single, widowed, separated, or divorced out of a total of 500 respondents. According to the data shown in the table above, 83.6% of the respondents have never been married, 15.8% of the respondents are married, 0.4% of the respondents have lost a spouse to death, and just 0.24% of the respondents have been legally separated or divorced. The data also illustrates that a greater majority of the respondents are single and have never been married. The conclusion that can be drawn from the data supplied in the preceding table

is that the majority of the people who participated in this investigation do not have spouses. This information is shown in the graph that comes next (Graph-4.4).

TYPE OF RESPONDENTS FAMILY

The following table presents the distribution of respondents according to the kind of family that may be found in the research region. This information can be found in Table 4.5.

Type of Respondents Family

S. No.	Particulars	Total	Percentage
1	Joint Family	40	8
2	Nuclear Family	455	91
3	Joint Extended family	05	1
	Total	500	100.00

The preceding table reveals that, out of the 500 respondents who were taken into account for the study, 8% of respondents families have been staying joint; whereas 91 % of the respondents families are nuclear families and the remaining 1% of respondents have joint extended families; and it is observed that more respondents families are nuclear families, and the following Graph 5.5 presents the fact clearly about the type of families that respondents come from.

SEMESTER WISE BREAKUP OF RESPONDENTS

Research that focuses on the privatisation of medical education and its consequences for medical practise may be considered to be both of interest to sociologists and of value to practitioners of the medical profession. In this thesis, an effort is made to determine experimentally the consequences of medical education and its privatisation for many facets of medical practise. These facets include professional orientation, competence, commitment, and ethics. Students from scheduled castes are encouraged to participate in programmes that promote lifelong learning and local quality assurance in order to keep their knowledge and skills current. This has been acknowledged by doctors for a long time as a responsibility that is an essential component of the medical professionalism that serves as the foundation for the relationship that exists between themselves and the general public. Table 5.8 demonstrates the current academic year that the respondents are enrolled in.

Semester Wise Breakup of Respondents

Sl.No	Particulars	Total	Percentage
1	I.sem	00	00

2	II.sem	152	30.4
3	III.sem	00	00
4	IV.sem	141	28.2
5	V.sem	00	00
6	VI.sem	118	23.6
7	VII.sem	00	00
8	VIII.sem	89	17.8
	Total	500	100

The land-wise distribution of respondents is shown in Table 4.16, organised according to the size of their agri-land holdings. 63.6 percent of the total respondents, or 318 people, own up to 5 acres of agricultural land. This is followed by 32.2 percent of the respondents, who own land property ranging from 6 to 15 acres. Only 3.2 percent of the respondents, or 16 people, own agricultural land ranging from 16 to 25 acres. Only 1 percent of the total respondents own land that is more than 26 acres and above. The following table provides an overview of the respondents' economic circumstances. Graph 4.16 provides a visual representation of this information for your perusal.

INCOME SUFFICIENCY OF EXPENDITURE:

A greater level of financial investment is often required for professional education in two different ways. First, there are the costs associated with purchasing study materials and participating in other academic activities, and second, there are the costs associated with meeting the recommended minimum standards for one's own personal hygiene. Which includes getting dressed, it is crucial to determine whether the household income of the respondents is adequate to pay such expenditures since they count getting dressed as one of those expenses. The responses to this question are presented in the form of straightforward "yes" or "no" answers in Table 5.17.

Income of the Respondents to cover all expenditures

S. No.	Particulars	No. of Respondents	Percentage
a)	Yes	425	85
b)	No	75	15
	Total	500	100

5 | Mithilesh Kumar*, Department of Sociology, B.R.A. Bihar University, Muzaffarpur, India.

E-mail: mithu153944@gmail.com.

The vast majority of scheduled caste female students, or 85 percent (425 of them), are of the opinion that the family income is more than sufficient to cover all of the family's expenditures. On the other hand, 15 percent of respondents are of the opinion that the family income does not cover all of the family's expenditures. Everything can be seen in Graph-4.17.

SCHEDULECASTEFEMALESINPROFESSIONALEDUCATION

The construction of a solid basis for the overall socioeconomic growth of any group of people is made possible, in large part, by the contribution that education makes. Education is often regarded as one of the most effective tools for promoting a richer and more harmonious type of human development and, by extension, for lowering rates of poverty, social isolation, ignorance, and oppression. A number of different measures have been done in order to expand education both in terms of its quality and its scope. It gives female children from schedule castes the right to free and compulsory primary education, as well as the obligation to attend and graduate from that education. The reservation quota system is an essential policy implemented by the Indian government to facilitate the pursuit of professional education by students from scheduled castes. The results are detailed in Table 6.1, which may be seen below.

Process of Admission

S.No.	Particulars	Respondents	Percentage
a	Meritrating	34	6.8
b	Reservation quota	455	91
С	Self-support	11	2.2
d	Anyother	00	
	Total	500	100

MOTIVATION BEHIND PURSUING PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION

Students from scheduled castes in India have less flexibility than other female students in the country to pursue higher education and attend college as a result of the country's social structure. Girls are almost often the ones that are on the receiving end of situations. They shouldn't put up any resistance when they're told to do anything by the elders (the men). This is particularly true in regard to the girls who are enrolled in the school. The social environment often requires females to behave in a meek, subordinate, and dependent manner. It is expected that female students would receive directions not just from males but also from more senior women in the household. However, improvements in these views are brought about by improved understanding, educational exposure, earning capability, and the ability to participate in group activities. This makes women more aggressive. The purpose of this research is to

Mithilesh Kumar*, Department of Sociology, B.R.A. Bihar University, Muzaffarpur, India.

11/15

investigate the factors that may have influenced the decision of female students to major in a professional field. The many reasons outlined in Table 4.2 explain why these individuals decided to pursue higher education.

Motivation behind Pursuing Higher Education

Sl.	Particulars	Respondents	Percentage
No.			
a	For Job	469	93.8
b	Need for self-employment	31	6.2
	Total	500	100

The data shown in the table above make it quite evident that 93.8% of respondents choose professional course for occupational reasons. On the other hand, 31 people (representing 6.2 percent of the total) answered that they were self-employed because they wanted to better their family's financial situation. These considerations are shown in Graph 4.2.

Percentage of Respondents Claiming Scholarship

Sl.	Particulars	Respondents	Percentage
No.			
a	Yes	475	95
b	No	25	5
	Total	500	100

SOURCES: FIELD SURVEY

According to what is shown in Table 4.3, the responders are awarded the merit scholarship each year. The figure shows that 95 percent of those who responded are awarded a scholarship each year, but just 5 percent of those who responded are awarded a scholarship. It has been found that this scholarship is helpful to them in not only covering college expenditures, but also in reducing the strain on their family. Similarly, the information shown in Graph 4.3 has demonstrated the same thing.

TYPE OF SCHOLARSHIP:

The Table 4.4, shows types of scholarship is the respondents were getting. It can be seen.

If yes mention the name of scholarship

S.No.	Particulars	Respondents	Percentage
a	Merit scholarship	16	3.36
b	SC scholarship	459	96.63
С	Any other	00	00
	scholarship		
	Total	500	100

The fact that 96.63 percent of respondents are receiving caste-based scholarships hints to the fact that the requirement that respondents need to satisfy is acquiring and maintaining a mission in a professional degree. After that, they immediately qualify for a scholarship due of the caste that they were born into. Merit scholarships have been applied for by just 3.36 percent of those who responded to the survey. Graph 4.4 paints the same image as the previous one.

They have the ability to recognise when a certain form of activity constitutes exploitation and when it should be stopped. The responses of the female students are shown in Table 4.5, which is concerned with exploitation.

Responses to the question of exploitation

Sl.No.	Particulars	Respondents	Percentage
a	Yes	44	8.8
b	No	456	91.2
	Total	500	100

As shown in Table 4.5, SC female students who are enrolled in higher education are not subject to any form of exploitation, with the exception of a small percentage of these students (8.8%, or 44). This represents the contemporary way of thinking that exists throughout the student community. In addition to this, female students in South Carolina are protected by (1) laws against ragging on campuses and (2) rows against discrimination in South Carolina.

SOURCE OF EXPLOITATION:

This word refers to the settings or scenarios in which female students who responded to the survey saw themselves to be participating. Students are moulded by both their own culture and the culture of the organisation they are a part of, despite the fact that numerous factors contribute to the conduct of an individual on a college campus. For female students at one college, the opposite gender, the semors, and faculty members are immediate means and sources of social interaction. As a result, it is with these people that they have perceptions of security or exploitation or determination. Personal and corporate culture affect one college campus. A response was bought on the nature and source of exploitation, which has been shown. This answer was bought among the respondents who reacted yes to the question of exploitation in Table.

Source of exploitation

S. No.	Particulars	Respondents	Percentage
a	By the male	08	18.18
	students		
b	By seniors	20	45.45
С	By the faculty	16	36.36
	Total	44	100

SOURCES: FIELD SURVEY

The revelations that encounter any kind of difficulty from students, seniors, and faculty members either on or off the college campus. 18.18% of respondents claimed that they had issues from other students, 45.45% of respondents stated that seniors exploited them, and 36.37% of respondents stated that the teachers exploited them. The same information can be found depicted in Graph 4.6.

TECHNICALEDUCATIONANDWOMEN:

The primary goal of attending college is to increase one's level of knowledge and to better prepare them for the job market after they have completed their studies and graduated. The pursuit of a professional education requires a significant quantity of study time. This means devoting a greater amount of time outside of class to college-related tasks. Making essential adjustments to one's lifestyle while also coping with the demands of the course may be a source of stress. These adjustments consist of spending more time on college-related activities and juggling many obligations at the same time. It seems that many students struggle with managing their time effectively. This is due to the fact that students often cram their courses,

Mithilesh Kumar*, Department of Sociology, B.R.A. Bihar University, Muzaffarpur, India.

E-mail: mithu153944@gmail.com.

extracurricular activities, and jobs into a single day, which may produce a great deal of stress and anxiety. Within the scope of this investigation, a concerted effort was made to investigate the ways in which women might benefit from receiving a technical education. The replies are detailed in Table 4.7, which may be seen below.

REFERENCES

- 1. Arellano, M. and S. Bond (1991); "Some Tests of Specification for Panel Data: Monte Carlo Evidence and an Application to Employment Equations," Review of Economic Studies, 58(2), 277-297.
- 2. Arellano, M. and O. Bover (1995); "Another Look at the Instrumental Variable Estimation of Error- Components Models," Journal of Econometrics, 68(1), 29-51.
- 3. Barro R. and J. Lee (2013) "A new data set of educational attainment in the world, 1950–2010", Journal of Development Economics, Volume 104, Pages 184-198
- 4. Coulombe S and J Tremblay (2006) "Literacy and Growth," The B.E. Journal of Macroeconomics, vol.
- 5. D'Addio, 2007 "Intergenerational Transmission of Disadvantage: Mobility or Immobility Across Generations?," OECD Social, Employment and Migration Working.
- 6. OECD (2010) "Going for growth. Responding to the Crisis while Protecting Long-term Growth" OECD, Paris.
- 7. OECD (2012), Education at a Glance 2012: OECD Indicators, OECD Publishing
- 8. Ostry J., A. Berg and C. Tsangarides (2014) "Redistribution, Inequality, and Growth" IMF Staff discussion note, February
- 9. Barro R. and J. Lee (2013) "A new data set of educational attainment in the world, 1950–2010", Journal of Development Economics, Volume 104, Pages 184-198
- 10. Clarke, G.R.G. (1995) More evidence on income distribution and growth. Journal of Development Economics 47(2): 403-427.
- 11. Forbes, K.J. (2000) A reassessment of the relationship between inequality and growth. American Economic Review 90(4): 869-887.
- 12. Hassler, John, José Rodríguez Mora and Joseph Zeira, 2007, "Inequality and Mobility," Journal of Economic Growth, 12(3), 235-259.
- 13. Hanushek, E. and L. Woessmann (2012) "Do Better Schools Lead to More Growth? Cognitive Skills, Economic Outcomes, and Causation" Journal of Economic Growth, 17(4), December 2012, 267-321.