

ACHIEVEMENT GAP BETWEEN MEN AND WOMEN IN HIGHER EDUCATION



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ABSTRACT

Policies and programmes for development that do not address gender inequality miss out on crucial chances for growth. The education of females is critical not only for reasons relating to social fairness but also due to the fact that it hastens the process of social transformation. It is imperative for the growth of human resources that gender equality be promoted within the educational system. When you educate a woman, you are really teaching her entire family. An educated woman is more capable of taking care of the health, nutrition, and education of her children, and more so of being an active actor in the social and economic growth of the country. This is because a woman bears the duty of the entire family on her own. It should come as no surprise that educational achievement is a critical factor in economic success everywhere. Literacy is the foundational skill that every student must possess. It is an essential element in the formation of both social cohesiveness and a sense of national identity. It leads to an improvement in the breadth and quality of public opinion, as well as to a more active engagement of the marginalised in the democratic process. No culture has ever achieved economic, political, or

social liberation without first establishing a solid basis of educated women, and no society ever will. Education has a direct bearing on the empowerment of women because it enables women to become more knowledgeable about their rights, their skills, and the options and possibilities that are open to them. Studies have shown that there is a strong correlation between female education and a variety of developmental indicators, including increased economic productivity, improvement in health, delayed age at marriage, lower fertility, increased political participation, and effective investments in the next generation. Some of these indicators include.

KEYWORDS: Achievement, Education, Programmes, Development

INTRODUCTION

A constitutional mandate requires the Indian government to ensure that all of its citizens have access to adequate educational opportunities. In the Indian constitution, the principle of gender equality may be found enshrined in the Preamble, as well as in the Fundamental Rights, Fundamental Duties, and Directive Principles sections. Not only does the Constitution protect women's right to equality, but it also gives the state the authority to pass laws that practise a kind of discrimination that is favourable to women. Literacy rates were extremely low in the years immediately after the country's independence in 1951 (25% for males and 9% for women). In the next 10 years, there was not much progress made in the literacy rates. It wasn't until after the recommendations of the Indian education commission (1964) and the National policy of education (1968) that it was realised that educating females may speed up the process of social transformation. The strategy placed a strong focus on the establishment of programmes that would provide educational opportunities on an equal footing to people of all demographics and of both sexes. In addition, the constitution assigned main responsibility for basic education to the respective state governments, while assigning responsibility for secondary, vocational, and tertiary education to the federal government. This circumstance shifted in 1976 when the 42nd Amendment to the Constitution was ratified. As a result of this amendment, the duty for all educational matters was split between the federal government and the individual states. This had a number of repercussions, one of which was that foreign support, which had hitherto been limited to education at the secondary and postsecondary levels, began to pour into education at the elementary level. The percentage of available resources that were allocated to primary education exhibited a consistent upward trend from the middle of the 1960s until the early 1980s.

PROFILING GENDER GAP IN EDUCATION

Over the course of the last half-century, a massive amount of data on forward-thinking procedures and experimental programmes has been generated. There are also a multitude of recommendations and policy declarations that explain why gender discrepancies still exist in education as well as ways that these gaps might be narrowed. Negative cultural and societal attitudes, different standards-roles for boys and girls, competing demands on the girls' time, economic reasons such as a lack of resources, distance from school, lack of facilities in schools for girls, lack of female teachers, lack of security both in and outside the school, curriculum that is not relevant and flexible, gender stereotyping in curriculum, gender unfriendly classroom environment, early marriage and child bearing, absence of women in leadership roles are some of the factors that contribute to this issue. In response to this, the strategies that are most often recommended for overcoming these obstacles are developing flexible school calendars, encouraging community participation, promoting parental awareness, creating gender neutral textbooks, training teachers for promoting gender equality, promoting girls' access to education in science and mathematics, relying on multiple delivery systems, and increasing resources for primary education. (Haq and Haq,1998). In point of fact, there is a significant degree of consensus regarding the limitations placed on education as well as regarding tactics that "work." But even with all of these factors coming together, the problems still exist. The discussion on strategies really has to be situated within a dynamic point of view. Review and introspection are necessary if one is to examine the shifting scenario, determine how it will affect one's life, and formulate plans to adapt to the new reality. (Wazir, 2000).

RURAL-URBAN DIFFERENTIAL

It has been demonstrated through the experiences of the past sixty years that placing a high priority on education in policy statements has, to some degree, ensured the availability of adequate resources; however, this does not guarantee that underserved communities will benefit from national programmes. Inconsistent and insufficient efforts have been made to expand the educational system. There is a significant gender disparity in terms of the educational standing of boys and girls, and this imbalance is even more pronounced among the marginalised castes and tribes. Literacy rates are lower among wage labourers than they are among workers in other

occupations. There is also a discernible gap between rural and urban areas. It is reasonable to anticipate the lowest levels of educational performance among rural women who belong to scheduled castes or tribes.

HIGHER EDUCATION FOR GIRLS IN INDIA

There is no causal link between the availability of various academic tracks and the capacity of women to access those tracks, nor is there any connection between the two and the level of academic success that women have. The majority of the justifications for this claim revolve around issues of social ethics. When it comes to ladies, parents often make the decision about the academic path that should be taken. As a result, a large majority of women may be prevented from exercising their free alternatives and picking the topics of their choice when they enrol in school. This decision is influenced by the fact that females are not expected to work or earn money before they are married, and that education is viewed as an investment that should only be made in the event that the daughter is left behind by her husband or becomes a widow (Chanana 1998). Another challenge for low-income parents: even while they understand the value of an education, they frequently lack the resources necessary to afford one for their children. In addition, there are not enough positive role models or opportunities for interaction at home. The stratification of fields, programmes, and institutions has the greatest impact on the lives of women who belong to the aforementioned social groups. In addition, the social and economic discrepancies are not only evident vis-à-vis caste and tribe, but also at the geographical level, namely in the many provinces of the country. Not only do the constraints of the discipline limit choices, but those choices are further constrained by the potential "life chances" of women in the future. Those who are already at a disadvantage, particularly women coming from impoverished rural backgrounds, are given fewer opportunities to pursue higher education. Parents may be averse to spend money on their daughters' education as well as their dowries for a variety of reasons, including those that are social and economic in nature.

PUBLIC VERSUS PRIVATE EDUCATION

Higher education was supported by public funds provided by the federal, central, provincial, and state governments up until the early 1990s, when economic liberalism began to take hold. On the other hand, since 1991, there has been a significant shift in the policy of the government with regard to the ostensibly favoured status of higher education. The government has started cutting

off public funding for higher education in an effort to make it more financially independent and prepare it for privatisation. Additionally, receiving a higher degree has turned into a meritless good. On the other hand, beginning in the early nineties, private autonomous institutions have been allowed to be established on a liberal scale. This has occurred in the absence of a policy that is clearly defined to control private institutions (Anandkrishnan 2004).

THE ROLE OF THE NATIONAL HIGHER EDUCATION SYSTEM AND LABOUR MARKET.

It is possible that the value of an academic degree as a signal is contingent on the quality of the university system, in addition to certain characteristics of the labour market. In this part, we discuss the situations in Greece and the United Kingdom.

The education system: the reliability of the signal

When used as a signal, the dependability of an academic degree is directly proportional to the calibre of the university or other institution that granted the degree. If the quality of the educational institution is poor, then the costs and the amount of work necessary to earn the degree will also be low. The decision to pursue one of these "low cost" degrees is sometimes made by women who have a lacklustre commitment to their chosen profession. When this happens, there will be heterogeneity among female graduates, and employers may be less likely to regard academic degrees as an indicator of dedication. Therefore, the value that "average" academic degrees have as a signalling tool may decline, and employers may turn to additional information, such as the university that conferred the degree or the topic of study, to make their signals more accurate.

THE REVERSAL OF GENDER INEQUALITIES IN HIGHER EDUCATION: AN ON-GOING TREND

For a considerable amount of time, men have had access to superior educational opportunities than women. Within the OECD's member nations, a greater proportion of males than women pursued higher education and earned a greater number of degrees. However, since the middle of the 1990s, the gender gap has primarily been working against the interests of males. It is possible to think that a greater degree of egalitarianism between the sexes would have led to educational

equality of the sexes rather than inequalities to the detriment of men if girls and boys shared the same homes and the same social environments. This is because girls and boys share the same homes and the same social environments. Is this reversal of gender inequities a phenomena that will just last for a short time or will it be here to stay? Will the repercussions it has on society be just as significant as the effect that gender inequality has had on women? These are the two questions that the author intends to investigate further in this chapter. The first half of this study examines gender disparities in OECD member nations with regard to participation in higher education and degree awarding, and then extrapolates these disparities to the year 2025. It also highlights the significant gender discrepancies in the possibilities available for academic pursuits. In the second portion, the primary reasons for the reversal of gender inequality are explained, and in the third and last piece, we examine whether or not these changes will be permanent, as well as the probable societal repercussions of those changes.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Ilias Livanos 2012. In this study, we analyse how having a higher education contributes to the salary disparity between men and women in Greece and the United Kingdom. Using the micro-data from the Labour Force Survey (LFS), we first compare the returns to higher education for males and females, then we decompose the gender wage gap between graduates and individuals with secondary education, and finally, we analyse the effect of higher education on the (un)explained part of the wage gap. All of this is done in order to determine whether or not higher education helps explain the wage gap. An adaptation of the Oaxaca-Blinder decomposition approach is employed in order to accomplish this particular goal. We find that the percentage of the population that cannot be explained, which is frequently associated with prejudice, is lower for graduates in both nations.

Lucía Dorado Martel 2018. Using information from the Structure of Earnings Survey (SES) for the years 2010 and 2014, this study examines the effect that schooling has on the salary gap that exists between men and women in Spain. It makes use of cross-sectional data on over 100,000 workers and includes information on the businesses to which the workers belong. We observe the influence of education on girls' hourly salaries compared to men' through interaction factors and sample selection for four levels of education using a linear regression model. This model allows us to see the effect of education on females' hourly wages. This demonstrates that there is

an immediate and detrimental effect on the wages of women when compared to those of males who have achieved the same degree of education. In addition, our core results consist of two pieces of information: first, that employees' wages go up in tandem with their level of education, and second, that the salary gap between men and women is narrower for persons with a college degree than it is for those with a basic school. Last but not least, it appears that these disparities are beginning to close over time, but only in a limited degree. We believe that increasing access to educational opportunities is an effective method for closing the wage gap between men and women.

Stéphan Vincent-Lancrin 2008. This chapter investigates gender disparities in OECD member nations with regard to access to higher education and the distribution of degrees. After documenting these disparities, in terms of both quantity and quality, and giving the major plausible causes for their reversal, we show that this new trend is quite likely to continue into the following decades. Both quantitatively and qualitatively, these inequalities were documented. In spite of the fact that it should certainly continue to assist minimise the salary disparities that put women at a disadvantage, its other potential societal repercussions have not yet been investigated. Nonetheless, in terms of educational disparities, it would appear that the focus in promoting equal opportunities for men and women can no longer be entirely on women. This is because the gender gap in educational attainment is so wide.

Sahab Deen 2014. The study is based on quantitative research using secondary data taken from sources such as the census of India and the Directory of Colleges maintained by the University Grant Commission. This is an attempt to investigate the regional and chronological analysis of the availability of higher education for females throughout all of India's states, as well as the enrolment rates for those programmes. The results of the analysis show that there is a significant gender gap in the gross enrollment ratio among the Indian states. Most behind in terms of higher education opportunities for women are the northern states, particularly the BIMARU states. Despite the numerous efforts made by the government to empower women, there is a growing pattern of inequality between males and females in higher education. This is particularly true of pay disparity.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The framework for the creation of evidence that is appropriate to a certain set of criteria and to the research question is what is referred to as the "research design." Experimental research, cross-sectional research, longitudinal research, comparative research, and case study research are the many types of research designs. Because the interviews for this study are carried out at a single moment in time to collect responses to the research question and because the individual persons themselves serve as the unit of analysis, the study may be classified as having a cross-sectional design.

QUALITATIVE METHODS

Both quantitative and qualitative research methods are utilised in the investigation of the ways in which individuals behave in workplace and organisational settings. In qualitative research, numbers and statistics are replaced with linguistic symbols and narratives, as in quantitative research, numbers and statistics are used. These symbols and stories are used in qualitative research to construct descriptions and interpretations of actual behaviour in specific circumstances. (Cortina & Landis, 2013)

The purpose of qualitative research in sociology is to get deeper self-recognition by gaining an understanding of the unknown information that may be gleaned from what is said and what is not expressed (Flick, Kardorff & Steinke, 2004,). The failure of grand narratives and ideas, sometimes known as a universal truth, is one fundamental reason why qualitative research is necessary. On the other hand, the majority of theories are evaluated based on place, time, and specific circumstances. This necessitates the necessity for qualitative research in order to capture the nuanced aspects of the actual world (Flick, 2018,).

DEPARTMENT OF SOCIAL WORK AND CRIMINOLOGY

The following table provides information on the number of men and women who are currently employed at the Department of Social Work and Criminology. There are not significant variances in gender roles among the occupations. The greatest disparities, however, may be seen among the ranks of professors and doctorate students, where there are a total of 3 males and 5 women in the former category and 5 men and 3 women in the latter.

Department of Social work and Criminology

	Male	Female
Professors	5	3
Assistant professors	5	7
Lecturer	7	7
Doctoral students	3	5
Assistant	1	0
Co ordinator	0	1

DEPARTMENT OF HUMANITIES

The gender gap statistics for the Department of Humanities are presented in Table 4.2 below. As can be observed, the majority of the people working in this division are females, and this holds true for practically every job. The greatest disparity between the sexes occurs inside the realm of lecturers, where there are just five males and thirteen women. There are 11 women and 8 males working as assistants, making this the second largest gender discrepancy overall. On the other hand, there is just one female professor among the department's five male professors.

Department of Humanities,

	Male	Female
Management teams	0	1
Researchers	1	0
Educational leaders	2	1

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Subject coordinator	3	2
Examiner	10	11
Course coordinator	14	16
Professors	5	1
Docents	0	1
Lecturer	5	13
Assistant	8	11
Doctoral students	2	4
Teaching Assistant	0	0

DEPARTMENT OF BUSINESS AND ECONOMICS STUDIES

The gender discrepancy between male and female students in the Department of Business and Economics studies is broken down in table 4.3. It is quite obvious that the majority of the people working in this area are male. Only among the assistants, there are a greater number of women (14) than males (13). (12). Additionally,

In this department, as well as in many others, a greater number of males than women hold the position of professor. There is just one female professor compared to the other nine men.

Department of Business and Economics Studies, 2018

	Male	Female
Management teams	1	0
Researchers	1	0

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Educational leaders	3	0
Subject coordinator	3	0
Examiner	9	3
Course coordinator	18	15
Professors	9	1
Docents	2	2
Lecturer	12	7
Assistant	12	14
Doctoral students	3	3
Teaching assistant	1	2

General information about Higher education in India

In India, students can pursue their higher education at a variety of institutions, including both publicly funded universities and colleges that are privately owned and run. The various types of higher education institutions that can be found in India include the Central universities, the State universities, the deemed universities, the institutes of national importance, as well as the Government aided and unaided (Private) colleges that are affiliated with the state universities. In addition, there are institutes of national importance (World Academic Rankings).

bank). Approximately 64% of India's overall college population is comprised of students attending unaided institutions (Private). As can be seen in Figure 4.3, just 10% of the teachers at India's higher education institutions possess the title of Professor or an equivalent position, while 12% are Associate Professors and the remaining 69% are Assistant Professors or Lecturers. The University Grants Commission, which is in charge of higher education in India, has just lately began to place a stronger focus on gender studies by creating 161 women's studies centres in a

range of universities and colleges all around the nation. (UGC, 2018)

General information about Patrician College

In the year 2001, the city of Chennai in India became home to the establishment of the Patrician College of Arts and Science. The University of Madras is the sponsoring organisation for Patrician College of Arts and Science, which is a Christian minority college that provides its own funding. The congregation known as the "Brothers of St. Patrick" is in charge of running the institution. The youngsters of the church are the focus of the congregation's efforts in the field of vocational education. The congregation's goal is to provide a high-quality education that also instils a feeling of social responsibility.

The percentage of males to females working in the Department of English is detailed in Table 4.4. As can be observed, the majority of workers in virtually every occupation under this section are female. There are just six men and ten women holding the position of associate professor, making this the category with the largest gender difference. There are no men serving in leadership roles on the academic staff.

Table 4. 1. Department of English, 2018

	Male	Female
Management team	0	1
Educational leader	0	1
Subject coordinator	0	1
Assistant Professors	6	10

DEPARTMENT OF SOCIAL WORK

The percentage of males to females working in the Department of Social Work is detailed in Table 4.5. As can be observed, the majority of workers in virtually every occupation under this section are female. The number of male assistant professors is significantly lower than the number of female assistant professors; there are just 2 male and 5 female assistant professors.

There are no men serving in leadership roles on the academic staff.

Department of Social Work, 2018

	Male	Female
Management team	0	1
Educational leader	0	1
Subject coordinator	0	1
Assistant Professors	2	5

As a result of the findings of our research, we have revised our theoretical model, which can be seen in Figure 4.3. Figure 4.4 illustrates the most recent iteration of the theoretical model for gender equality. We identify the relationship between the many levels of the construct of gender as a social structure by connecting the empirical data of the various manifestations of gender inequality (Risman, 2018). This makes it possible, on several levels, to connect the dots between the various manifestations and the underlying reasons for them. In the downstream, the many expressions of gender inequality are gathered under the word of gender inequality, which provides a clear picture of how gender inequality is reflected in society.

CONCLUSION

The work that has already been done may be expanded upon by subsequent researchers using qualitative and quantitative research methods, as well as adding other institutions in Sweden and India. In a similar vein, the scope of the research might be broadened to include more fields in order to determine whether or not colleges are typical of the working population as a whole in terms of gender equality. According to the findings of a study conducted at both colleges, there was a discernible relationship between gender and occupational position. The majority of teaching positions are held by men, whereas the majority of administrative staff members are women. The results of this study have produced data that focuses on gender disparities; nevertheless, further research is necessary to understand the reasons why there is an apparent disparity between the sexes. The use of quantitative research methods in subsequent studies is something that may be done in order to make the findings of this study more trustworthy. In

order to determine the factors that contribute to the lack of gender parity, quantitative data and statistical analysis might be combined. This would enable suitable solutions to be created.

The construct of gender as a social structure was used to carry out the research for the study, and in subsequent research, the intersectionality of gender, class, and race/ethnicity may be utilised due to the fact that countries and academic settings are becoming more multiethnic in comparison to the past. In addition, the findings of this study indicate that on a macro level, there are substantially larger difficulties, such as parental leave, which, as a result, exacerbate gender disparity in India.

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