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Educational Development Index of Punjab

— An Inter-District Analysis

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Abstract

In this paper effort has been made to analyse and compare the position of different districts of Punjab state with regard to educational level of primary and upper primary government schools by developing primary and upper primary educational development indices based on indicators representing school education. Effort has also been made to develop composite index based on primary and upper primary Educational Development Indices. Total indicators have been divided into four components i.e. Access, Infrastructure, Teachers and outcome to develop Access Index, Infrastructure Index, Teachers' Index and Outcome Index along with composite index. In order to develop these indices weights were assigned to different indicators, which were derived through 'Principal Component Analysis'. The analysis reveals that there are large variations in the primary and upper primary education level in different districts of the state. The study found that the districts like Amritsar, Ludhiana and Patiala which have developed and big district headquarters have low value of index and the less developed districts like Hoshiarpur, Nawanshahr (S.B.S. Nagar), Rupnagar, Faridkot and Bhatinda have high values.

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Introduction

Education is a tool of improving the skills and knowledge of the people to make them capable of earning their livelihood. It is only by imparting proper education that objective of human resource development can be achieved. Education brings positive change in the attitude of the masses, increases awareness and brings sense of responsibility and makes them capable of facing oppression, humiliation and inequality (Planning Commission, 1998). According to Sharif and Ghosh (2000), level of literacy or education is directly associated with gross domestic product, indirectly with poverty, population growth and crime rate.

Since Independence, expansion of elementary education has been the major agenda of the governments (both state & central). India has made impressive progress in widening the coverage of elementary education. The gross enrolment rate in the 6-14 age group has increased many folds and the objective of universalisation has been almost achieved from just 42.6 per cent at the time of independence (Census, 2001). No doubt, universalisation of primary level enrolment has been achieved, however, when it comes to the question of retention and success rate at the primary level, it presents a very dismal picture. The drop-out rate at the primary level is very large, and very small per cent of enrolled pass middle level. Large populace is still without schools within one kilometre of their habitation. Till the country achieves high level of enrolment with retention at least till elementary level, the fruits of education cannot be reaped by those who are really in need of this, to enable them to come out of vicious circle of poverty.

During post-independence period, in particular, the Punjab state had made a phenomenal progress, not only in the sphere of agriculture, but in other areas, too. Educational development is the main source, which helps the state to develop in other fields, such as industry and infrastructure. No doubt, Punjab is one of the high per capita income state with the lowest proportion of population living below the poverty line, it ranks 11th among the states of India in terms of literacy rate. Many other states like Kerala, Maharashtra, Himachal Pradesh, Tamil Nadu, Gujarat have higher literacy than Punjab, but lower per capita income than Punjab. The condition of the state run schools has deteriorated at a very fast rate over time. Though education facilities exist, what concerns the most is the quality of education being provided by these schools. Though the teacher-pupil ratio is fairly good, the type of product produced in the form of students is of poor quality. Although there are schools in the rural areas, the education provided in these schools is not comparable to the one in the urban/private schools. Quality of education can be gauged from the high failure rate, mass copying in school board examinations, and the fact that the fifth standard students cannot even write properly in Punjabi (mother tongue). Reasons for this can be many. Absenteeism and lack of dedication on the part of teachers, non-academic work being performed by the school teachers, (This gives them excuse not to perform the teaching duties properly), illiterate parents, mushroom growth of the so-called 'English schools' in the rural areas and non-seriousness on the part of political leadership about education are some of the reasons for poor quality of education in the state run schools. Falling standard of education is also responsible for 'foreign craze' among Punjabi youth and thus exploitation by the treacherous travel agents. Majority of those, who opt for illegal means for migrating to foreign countries are school drop-outs without much education.

In this paper effort has been made to analyse and compare the position of different districts of Punjab state with regard to educational level of primary and upper primary

schools by developing primary and upper primary educational development indices based on indicators representing school education. Composite index based on primary and upper primary educational development indices has also been developed. The paper has been divided into four sections including the present one. Database and Methodology are explained in section II. Section III presents the results and discussion about Educational Development Indices of Primary and Upper primary school education level in respect of different districts of the state. The whole discussion has been concluded in section IV.

II. Database and Methodology

In order to develop primary, upper primary and composite Educational Development Indices for government run schools, the following indicators have been used for 19 districts of Punjab state for the year 2006-07. Total indicators have been divided into four components i.e. access, infrastructure, teachers and outcome to develop access index, infrastructure index, teachers' index and outcome index along with composite index.

Access Index

(i) Number of schools per 1000 population. (+)

Infrastructure Index

(ii) Average student classroom ratio (SCR). (-)
(iii) Percentage of schools with student classroom ratio ≥ 60. (-)
(iv) Percentage of schools with drinking water facility. (+)
(v) Percentage of schools with common toilet. (+)
(vi) Percentage of schools with Girl's toilet. (+)

Teachers' Index

(vii) Percentage of female teachers. (+)
(viii) Average Pupil-Teacher ratio (PTR). (-)
(ix) Percentage of schools with Pupil-Teacher ratio ≥ 100. (-)
(x) Percentage of single teacher schools. (-)

Outcome Index

(xi) Overall Gross Enrolment Ratio. (+)
(xii) Gender Parity Index in Enrolment. (+)
(xiii) Repetition Rate. (-)
(xiv) Drop-out Rate. (-)
(xv) Percentage of enrolled children passed. (+)
(xvi) Percentage of Appeared Children Passed with ≥ 60 per cent marks. (+)

The indicators used in the study were of two types i.e. either having positive or negative impact on the index and the same has been shown in brackets alongside the indicators. In view of type of an indicator (positive or negative), the best and worst cases were determined by considering all the observations.

Firstly, separate index has been prepared for each component. Then Educational Development Index has been developed based on all the four components' indices for primary and upper primary educational level. Effort has also been made to develop composite index based on primary and upper primary Educational Development Indices. All the above mentioned sixteen variables were used for construction of Educational

Development Index for primary level. In case of upper primary level, 'Gender Parity Index' was not included due to non-availability of data. The data used in the study were compiled primarily from website of Department of Educational Management Information System, National University of Educational Planning and Administration, New Delhi (www.dise.in). Statistical Abstract of Punjab, a publication of Government of Punjab was also consulted.

Primary, Upper Primary and Composite Indices

In order to develop these indices weights were assigned to different indicators, which were derived through 'Principal Component Analysis'. The Principal Component Analysis used to determine the relative individual or group indicator weights is the inter-correlation between them, high weights being assigned to those having high contribution and vice-versa. The Principal Component Analysis (Factor Analysis) produces Components (Factors) in descending order of their importance and factor loadings, which explain the relative importance of different variables in explaining variance in the phenomenon. Another important feature of this technique is that it bypasses the problem of multi-collinearity. (Harman, 1967)

The selected variables are first normalized; the following formula was used to obtain normalized values:

$$Z_{ij} = 1 - \left[\frac{\{\text{Best } x_i - \text{Observed } x_{ij}\}}{\{\text{Best } x_i - \text{Worst } x_i\}} \right]$$

Normalized values always lie between 0 and 1 (Mehta and Sidiqui, 2008).

The relative weight for the variables is worked out as follows:

$W_i = F_{ik} \lambda_k$

Wi is weight of i^{th} variable

F_{ik} is factor loading of i^{th} variable and k^{th} factor which reflects the highest correlation between variable (X_i) and factor (F_k)

λ_k is variation explained by k^{th} factor

By using the normalized values of variables and their relative weights, Primary, Upper Primary and Composite Educational Development Indices are calculated as under:

$$I_j = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} w_i z_{ij}}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} w_i}$$

I_j is Index of j^{th} district

Z_{ij} is normalized value of i^{th} variable for j^{th} district

$\sum w_i$ is sum of the weights

III. Results and Discussion

Factor Analysis and Primary Educational Development Index

First four component indices have been constructed for 19 districts based on the indicators for primary educational level by using the weights calculated from the 'Principal Components'. The component indices for primary educational level are presented in appendix A1.

Primary educational development index has been developed on the basis of these component indices. The result of factor analysis for primary educational development index is presented in Table 1.

TABLE 1

Result of Factor Analysis for Primary Educational Development Index

Sl. No.	Variables	Factors Loading		Communalities	Weights	Weight (in %)
		F_1	F_2			
1.	Infrastructure Index	0.899	0.00495	0.809	50.429	33.206
2.	Teachers' Index	0.862	-0.00395	0.743	48.353	31.840
3.	Outcome Index	0.592	-0.729	0.883	33.208	21.867
4.	Access Index	0.584	0.738	0.886	19.874	13.087
	Percentage of variance explained	56.09	26.93			
	Percentage of cumulative variance explained	56.09	83.02			

Table 1 shows the factors-loading with two factors derived from the four indicators i.e. infrastructure index, teachers' index, outcome index and access index. The two factors (F_1 and F_2) taken together explain 83.02 per cent inter-district variation in primary educational levels. Communalities for all the indicators varied between 74.3 to 88.6 per cent, indicating that two factors are sufficient to account for most of the variations in the selected indicators. First factor explains 56.09 per cent variation in the variable set. Three indicators—infrastructure index, teachers' index and outcome index are important in first factor (F_1). Remaining one indicator i.e. Access index constitute the second factor (F_2); which explains 26.93 per cent of variations in variable set.

Primary Educational Development Index was developed on the basis of above mentioned four indices by using the weights calculated from the 'Principal Components' for 19 districts of Punjab state and is presented in Table 2.

TABLE 2

Primary Educational Development Index

Districts	Weighted Access Index	Weighted Infrastructure Index	Weighted Teachers' Index	Weighted Outcome Index	$I_j = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} w_i z_{ij}}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} w_i}$	Rank
Amritsar	2.8440	12.6893	7.3355	7.1082	0.1974	19
Bathinda	2.8380	35.3151	35.2354	24.2175	0.6427	8
Faridkot	4.6803	32.4602	39.5395	24.9206	0.6690	5
Fatehgarh Sahib	14.7246	43.3718	28.9113	13.9307	0.6647	6
Firozpur	10.4259	28.8690	27.5076	23.8510	0.5969	11
Gurdaspur	13.8681	33.9571	39.5943	18.3991	0.6968	3
Hoshiarpur	19.7150	40.2673	41.0989	24.2815	0.8255	1
Jalandhar	5.8708	40.9755	31.3533	19.8478	0.6456	7
Kapurthala	12.1887	25.4868	42.1529	14.8949	0.6237	10
Ludhiana	0.0000	29.0930	24.2971	18.2465	0.4717	14
Mansa	2.1245	14.7715	29.2298	16.8782	0.4149	16
Moga	2.6353	23.3489	19.5746	23.1344	0.4523	15
Muktsar	8.3630	34.3711	41.7285	11.9825	0.5239	13
Nawanshahr (S.B.S. Nagar)	3.1679	26.0556	26.5467	23.7982	0.7578	2
Patiala	14.2397	44.1088	31.8369	24.8946	0.5311	12
Rupnagar	5.7734	29.6852	30.0140	15.1893	0.6852	4
Sangrur	19.8740	33.6731	38.1617	12.3551	0.4026	17
S.A.S.. Nagar	2.2994	25.2072	18.3452	15.2940	0.6351	9
TarnTaran	12.1927	14.3017	6.1924	8.1524	0.2689	18

Table 2 shows that index varies within range of 0.1974 to 0.8255 and it is clear from the ranking of the districts that Hoshiarpur is at the top with highest value of primary educational development index (0.8255) among the 19 districts for which analysis has been undertaken. Other districts which followed Hoshiarpur are Nawanshahr (S.B.S. Nagar) (0.7578), Gurdaspur (0.6968), Rupnagar (0.6852) and Faridkot (0.669).

Table further shows that Amritsar has the minimum value of primary educational development index (0.1973) and the other districts having low index, (but more than Amritsar) are Tarn Taran (0.2689), Sangrur (0.4026), Mansa (0.4149) and Moga (0.4523).

Factor Analysis and Upper Primary Educational Development Index

First four component indices have been constructed for 19 districts based on the indicators for upper primary educational level by using the weights calculated from the 'Principal Components'. The component indices for primary educational level are presented in Appendix A2.

Upper primary educational development index has been developed on the basis of these component indices. The result of factor analysis for primary educational development index is presented in Table 3.

TABLE 3

Result of Factor Analysis for Upper Primary Educational Development Index

S. No.	Variables	Factors Loading		Communalities	Weights	Weight (in %)
		F_1	F_2			
1.	Infrastructure Index	0.806	0.214	0.634	31.689	32.260
2.	Teachers' Index	0.628	0.621	0.779	24.690	25.135
3.	Outcome Index	0.578	-0.443	0.531	22.725	23.135
4.	Access Index	-0.442	0.692	0.673	19.125	19.470
	Percentage of Variance Explained	39.32	27.64			
	Percentage of Cumulative Variance Explained	39.32	66.96			

Table 3 shows the factors, loading relating to two factors derived from the four indicators viz. infrastructure Index, Teachers' Index, Outcome Index and Access Index. The two factors (F_1 and F_2) taken together explain 66.96 per cent inter-district variations in upper primary educational levels. Communalities for all the indicators varied between 53.1 to 77.9 per cent. First factor (F_1) explain 39.32 per cent variation in the variable set. All the indicators except access index are important in the first factor (F_1). Access index constitutes the second factor (F_2), which explains 27.64 per cent of variations.

The weights calculated for access, infrastructure, teachers and outcome indices from the 'Principal Component' for 19 districts of Punjab state have been used to develop the upper primary educational development index and is presented in Table 4 along with ranking of the different districts.

Table 4 shows that index varies within range of 0.3252 to 0.7322 and it is clear from the ranking of the districts that S.A.S.. Nagar (Mohali) is at the top with highest value of Index (0.7322) followed by Faridkot (0.7148), Rupnagar (0.7034), Muktsar (0.6689) and Nawanshahr (0.6568).

Table further shows that Amritsar has the minimum value of upper primary index also (0.3252). Districts having low value of index, but more than Amritsar are Mansa (0.4434), Kapurthala (0.4555) and TarnTaran (0.4684).

TABLE 4
Upper Primary Educational Development Index

Districts	Weighted Access Index	Weighted Infrastructure Index	Weighted Teachers' Index	Weighted Outcome Index	$I_j = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} w_i z_{ij}}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} w_i}$	Rank
Amritsar	5.6113	16.0294	5.9584	4.3496	0.3252	19
Bathinda	1.7346	22.4532	18.0165	15.4906	0.5874	9
Faridkot	7.9503	27.1579	21.0162	14.0884	0.7148	2
Fatehgarh Sahib	0.0000	28.5943	22.2240	8.5462	0.6043	7
Firozpur	4.6340	22.4942	13.5197	15.1782	0.5683	11
Gurdaspur	3.0715	17.8160	19.1615	9.8294	0.5078	13
Hoshiarpur	6.1831	18.7301	19.0186	18.1451	0.6320	6
Jalandhar	2.6067	25.8871	19.4939	10.7930	0.5984	8
Kapurthala	6.6785	10.5101	14.9009	12.6556	0.4555	17
Ludhiana	0.6522	25.4128	20.2862	10.4031	0.5778	10
Mansa	3.3392	21.1420	4.4017	14.6688	0.4434	18
Moga	2.2319	17.3508	15.1600	13.6134	0.4923	14
Muktsar	12.7220	23.6953	24.3765	11.1254	0.6689	4
Nawanshahr (S.B.S. Nagar)	3.3392	30.0205	16.3910	15.9511	0.6568	5
Patiala	7.1681	26.1123	12.5362	18.7044	0.5450	12
Rupnagar	1.3024	23.7200	18.1866	10.3279	0.7034	3
Sangrur	19.1250	21.8203	19.4591	8.6855	0.4834	15
S.A.S. Nagar	3.2589	21.8629	10.0959	12.2692	0.7322	1
TarnTaran	13.0318	18.5642	8.8657	5.5459	0.4684	16

Factor Analysis and Composite Educational Development Index (EDI)

In this sub-section Composite Educational Development Index (EDI) based on primary and upper primary educational development indices has been constructed. Composite index was developed by using the weights calculated from the 'Principal Components' for 19 districts.

The result of factor analysis for Composite Educational Development Index (EDI) is presented in Table 5.

Table 5 shows that only one factor (F_1) explains 86.02 per cent variation. Communalities and weights so derived for the two indicators are same.

TABLE 5

Result of Factor Analysis for Composite Educational Development Index

S.No.	Variables	Factors Loading F_1	Communalities	Weights	Weight (in %)
1.	Primary Index	0.927	0.86	79.737	50
2.	Upper Primary Index	0.927	0.86	79.737	50
	Percentage of Variance Explained	86.02			

Composite Educational Development Index (EDI) for 19 districts of Punjab state is presented in Table 6 along with ranking of different districts.

TABLE 6

Composite Educational Development Index

Districts	Primary Educational Development Index	Upper Primary Educational Development Index	Composite Index	Rank
Amritsar	0.1974	0.3252	0.2613	19
Bathinda	0.6427	0.5874	0.6150	8
Faridkot	0.6690	0.7148	0.6919	4
Fatehgarh Sahib	0.6647	0.6043	0.6345	6
Firozpur	0.5969	0.5683	0.5826	11
Gurdaspur	0.6968	0.5078	0.6023	9
Hoshiarpur	0.8255	0.6320	0.7287	1
Jalandhar	0.6456	0.5984	0.6220	7
Kapurthala	0.6237	0.4555	0.5396	12
Ludhiana	0.4717	0.5778	0.5247	14
Mansa	0.4149	0.4434	0.4291	17
Moga	0.4523	0.4923	0.4723	15
Muktsar	0.5239	0.6689	0.5964	10
Nawanshahr (S.B.S. Nagar)	0.7578	0.6568	0.7073	2
Patiala	0.5311	0.5450	0.5381	13
Rupnagar	0.6852	0.7034	0.6943	3
Sangrur	0.4026	0.4834	0.4430	16
S.A.S.. Nagar	0.6351	0.7322	0.6836	5
TarnTaran	0.2689	0.4684	0.3686	18

Table 6 shows that composite index varies within range of 0.2613 to 0.7287 and it is clear from the ranking of the districts that Hoshiarpur is at the top with highest value of composite index (0.7287) among the 19 districts for which analysis has been undertaken. Other districts which followed Hoshiarpur, are Nawanshahr (0.7073), Rupnagar (0.6943), Faridkot (0.6919) and S.A.S. Nagar (0.6836).

Table further shows that Amritsar has the minimum value of composite index (0.2613). Other districts having low composite index value, but more than Amritsar, are TarnTaran (0.3686), Mansa (0.4291) and Sangrur (0.443).

IV. Conclusion

The above analysis reveals that there are large variations in the primary and upper primary education level in different districts of the state. Some districts have very low value of Educational Development Index representing very low level of education and some districts, on the other hand, have very high value of Educational Development Index, hence, very high level of education. This means that some districts are lacking in primary and upper primary educational facilities in the government schools.

The study found that when districts are ranked according to Primary Educational Development Index (EDI), Hoshiarpur district is at the top, followed by Nawanshahr (S.B.S. Nagar), Gurdaspur, Rupnagar and Faridkot. Amritsar has the lowest Primary Education Development Index (EDI) and the districts like TarnTaran, Sangrur, Mansa, Moga and Ludhiana are very close to Amritsar. The study found that when districts are ranked according to Upper Primary Educational Development Index (EDI), S.A.S.. Nagar (Mohali) is at the top, followed by Faridkot, Rupnagar, Muktsar and Nawanshahr (S.B.S.) Nagar). Again Amritsar has the lowest value of Upper Primary Educational Development Index (EDI) and the districts having low upper primary EDI but more than Amritsar are Mansa, Kapurthala, Tarn Taran and Sangrur.

Amritsar district has very low value of EDI at both primary and upper primary level, thus has the minimum value of composite EDI. Other districts having low composite EDI are TarnTaran, Mansa, Sangrur and Moga. The study further found that Hoshiarpur district is at the top with highest value of composite EDI followed by Nawanshahr (S.B.S. Nagar), Rupnagar, Faridkot, S.A.S.. Nagar (Mohali) and Fatehgarh Sahib. So it can be concluded that these districts have high level of education both at primary and upper primary level in the government schools compared to other districts of the state.

Further, this study also found that the districts like Amritsar, Ludhiana and Patiala which otherwise have developed as big city headquarters have low value of index and the less developed districts like Hoshiarpur, Nawanshahr (S.B.S. Nagar), Rupnagar, Faridkot and Bathinda have high values. The reason behind this may be that there are more good private English medium schools in big and developed cities than in small cities. Large number of students in these districts opt for private schools, as majority of literate and well off parents are willing to pay high fees in private schools instead of sending them to ill-equipped government schools. On the other hand, there are only few good private schools in small districts, so, relatively more students are studying in government schools in small town.

The number of students in a school (enrolment rate) and the performance of the school on academic front is a two-way process. If a school performs better, then more students are attracted even to the government school and also if the number of students in a school are more, then performance of a school is also better. Besides this, it is the total neglect of the government schools by the successive governments by not providing adequate number of teachers in these schools besides other infrastructural facilities, which has led to the collapse of primary and upper primary education in the rural areas of the state.

In order to ensure quality education in government schools, emphasis should be on teachers' training and motivation and also on basic issues related to school management. The management of these schools can be improved with the involvement of community. It is a serious question and the state must find answer to this, otherwise, the state will be a loser in the long run. The state will have a large population, who will be educated in formal sense but in reality uneducated - 'educated illiterates'. They will not be in a position to take any worthwhile employment. State and society must find answer to problem of how to make teachers teach and students study, particularly in the rural areas.

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Appendix A1

Component Indices for Primary Educational Level

Districts	Access Index	Infrastructure Index	Teachers' Index	Outcome Index
Amritsar	0.1431	0.2516	0.1517	0.2141
Bathinda	0.1428	0.7003	0.7287	0.7293
Faridkot	0.2355	0.6437	0.8177	0.7504
Fatehgarh Sahib	0.7409	0.8601	0.5979	0.4195
Firozpur	0.5246	0.5725	0.5689	0.7182
Gurdaspur	0.6978	0.6734	0.8189	0.5541
Hoshiarpur	0.9920	0.7985	0.8500	0.7312
Jalandhar	0.2954	0.8125	0.6484	0.5977
Kapurthala	0.6133	0.5054	0.8718	0.4485
Ludhiana	0.0000	0.5769	0.5025	0.5495
Mansa	0.1069	0.2929	0.6045	0.5083
Moga	0.1326	0.4630	0.4048	0.6967
Muktsar	0.1594	0.5167	0.5490	0.7166
Nawanshahr (S.B.S. Nagar)	0.7165	0.8747	0.6584	0.7497
Patiala	0.2905	0.5887	0.6207	0.4574
Rupnagar	1.0000	0.6677	0.7892	0.3721
Sangrur	0.1157	0.4999	0.3794	0.4606
S.A.S. Nagar	0.4208	0.6816	0.8630	0.3608
TarnTaran	0.6135	0.2836	0.1281	0.2455

Source: Singh, Kuldeep (2009).

Appendix A2

Component Indices for Upper Primary Educational Level

Districts	Access Index	Infrastructure Index	Teachers' Index	Outcome Index
Amritsar	0.2934	0.5058	0.2413	0.1914
Bathinda	0.0907	0.7085	0.7297	0.6817
Faridkot	0.4157	0.8570	0.8512	0.6200
Fatehgarh Sahib	0.0000	0.9023	0.9001	0.3761
Firozpur	0.2423	0.7098	0.5476	0.6679
Gurdaspur	0.1606	0.5622	0.7761	0.4325
Hoshiarpur	0.3233	0.5911	0.7703	0.7985
Jalandhar	0.1363	0.8169	0.7895	0.4749
Kapurthala	0.3492	0.3317	0.6035	0.5569
Ludhiana	0.0341	0.8019	0.8216	0.4578
Mansa	0.1746	0.6672	0.1783	0.6455
Moga	0.1167	0.5475	0.6140	0.5991
Muktsar	0.1747	0.9473	0.6639	0.7019
Nawanshahr (S.B.S. Nagar)	0.3748	0.8240	0.5077	0.8231
Patiala	0.0681	0.7485	0.7366	0.4545
Rupnagar	1.0000	0.6886	0.7881	0.3822
Sangrur	0.1704	0.6899	0.4089	0.5399
S.A.S. Nagar	0.6652	0.7477	0.9873	0.4896
TarnTaran	0.6814	0.5858	0.3591	0.2440

Source: Singh, Kuldeep (2009).

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Community Participation in Educational Administration in Andhra Pradesh

— Rhetoric or Real?

M. Gopinath Reddy*
G. Bhavani$

Abstract

The most important forms of community participation was formation of Village Education Committees (VECs). During the initial phase of DPEP i.e. during 1996-97 the formation of VECs was made with lot of fanfare. Elections were held in every village for electing the VEC members and the elected members of the VECs were given capacity building trainings. However, in a short period of 5-6 years since the formation of VECs, these (VECs) were abandoned for sometime and were later (2003-04) replaced with a new nomenclature of School Education Management Committees (SEMCs) with nominated members rather than elected members. Paradoxically, the near abolition or suspension of these VECs was so quiet and silent in sharp contrast to their formation which leaves an unanswered question of what the VECs or community participation in effect have done to primary education in Andhra Pradesh. Thus, this paper attempts to analyze the role of VECs through which community participation was supposedly obtained by the DPEP. The analysis comes from a study carried out to examine the functioning of District Primary Education Programme (DPEP) – a major policy intervention in primary education for augmenting primary education through community participation.

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Introduction

Community participation is recognized as one of the important strategies to optimize the limited resources in education sector. In addition to effective utilization of resources, community participation is likely to have potential advantage on educational access and quality. However, while promoting community involvement in education, it is important to understand what is community participation and how does it work? A deeper understanding of this issue is important since the link between community involvement and educational access and quality is not simple and involves various processes.

Since mid-1990s, Andhra Pradesh has been hailed for its promising reform programmes in India, initiated by the then Chief Minister of the State, with large loans from institutional donors to carry out fiscal, poverty reduction and social sector reforms. A key prong of this reform agenda was the development of participatory grassroot bodies that would function parallel to the previously established elected local councils (panchayati raj institutions). These bodies or local committees were envisioned as more responsive to citizens' context-specific needs as well as less prone to elite capture and political interference.

Given this background the present paper focused on school education committees (which promote community participation in monitoring the service quality of primary education). In addition to analysing various processes of community participation for enhancing primary education in Andhra Pradesh, this paper seeks to assess to what extent community participation in the education committees are fulfilling their intended purpose of empowering communities and improving educational attainments in terms of quality and quantity. In the recent past, under the District Primary Education Programme (DPEP) community participation has been envisaged as a major catalyst in enhancing the enrollment, retention and quality in primary education. One of the major strategies of DPEP to improve primary education in Andhra Pradesh was to elicit community participation in a big way.

The most important forms of community participation was formation of Village Education Committees (VECs). During the initial phase of DPEP i.e. during 1996-97 the formation of VECs was made with lot of fanfare. Elections were held in every village for electing the VEC members and the elected members of the VECs were given capacity building trainings. However, in a short period of 5-6 years since the formation of VECs, these (VECs) were abandoned for sometime and were later (2003-04) replaced with a new nomenclature of School Education Management Committees (SEMCs) with nominated members rather than elected members. Paradoxically, the near abolition or suspension of these VECs was so quiet and silent in sharp contrast to their formation which leaves an unanswered question of what the VECs or community participation in effect have done to primary education in Andhra Pradesh. Thus, this paper attempts to analyze the role of VECs through which community participation was supposedly obtained by the DPEP. The analysis comes from a study carried out to examine the functioning of District Primary Education Programme (DPEP) – a major policy intervention in primary education for augmenting primary education through community participation.

Framework of Community Participation

What is community participation? This term can be interpreted in various ways, depending on the context. Shaeffer (1994) clarifies different degrees or levels of participation, and provides seven possible definitions of the term, including:

- *involvement* through the mere use of a service (such as enrolling children in school or using a primary health care facility);
- *involvement* through the contribution (or extraction) of money, materials, and labor;
- *involvement* through 'attendance' (e.g. at parents' meetings at school), implying passive acceptance of decisions made by others;
- *involvement* through consultation on a particular issue;
- *participation* in the delivery of a service, often as a partner with other actors;
- *participation* as implementers of delegated powers; and
- *participation "in real decision making at every stage," including identification of problems, the study of feasibility, planning, implementation, and evaluation.*

Shaeffer stresses that the first four definitions use the word *involvement* and connote largely *passive collaboration*, whereas the last three items use the word *participation* instead, implying a much more *active role*.

The analysis in this chapter will use this framework of community participation to understand the various roles of VECs in Andhra Pradesh.

This paper is organized into six sections of which the present one is the introductory section which also briefly throws light on what is community participation in the form of a framework. The second section reflects on the need for community mobilization in District Primary Education Programme through a few reviews. In section three, the processes of community participation employed by DPEP are discussed while the fourth section of the paper presents the details of methodology adopted for this paper. The fifth deals with the actual findings of the study and discussion and in the last section conclusions and way forward are presented.

II. DPEP and Community Mobilization

Prior to commissioning of DPEP (1996-97) and during initial stages of DPEP quite a few studies have argued vehemently for enhancing community involvement in education.

Shanta Sinha, in her seminal work in the area of Child Labour, published an article in the seminar entitled, 'Child Labour and Education' which discusses at length the problem of child labour and how it comes in the way of universalisation of elementary education. According to her, a large number of children were child labourers and some of them were engaged in hazardous occupations. About 77 per cent of children in 5-14 years age group were neither going to school nor to work. They are referred as 'nowhere children' and a large number of girl children fall in this category. Formal education, according to her, especially in the formative years of a child in the age group of 5-11 years, has an intrinsic value that cannot be provided by any other means. She suggested that the emphasis of any policy or programme should be on motivation of parents and the mobilizing of community at large for enrolling their children in schools, (Shanta Sinha, 1999).

Similarly, Srivastava, in his article, "Development in India since the 73rd Amendment – Implications for Safety Nets and the Social Sector", wrote about the experience of Madhya Pradesh regarding the devolution of primary schooling management to Panchayat Raj Institutions. The Panchayat Raj legislations of the State provide for Standing Committees at the district, block and gram panchayat level empower to take decisions regarding education, including supervising and monitoring primary schools, mobilizing the community for enrollment and retention of children in schools (Srivastava, 1998).

Based on such studies and suggestions, DPEP had been launched as a new intervention with four-fold objectives of access, universal enrollment, universal retention and quality. DPEP, being an innovative intervention has been implemented with a different strategy which emphasized on community mobilization for enhancing access and quality in primary education.

There are some commissioned reports on Community Participation under DPEP which present both the problems and prospects of DPEP. Research and Evaluation Sector, DPEP, made schools and pupils survey during (1997-98) in First Five Districts of DPEP in Andhra Pradesh and it prepared the Evaluation and impact assessment synthesis report. The districts were Nellore, Kurnool, Karimnagar, Vizianagaram and Warangal.

As per the Report, analysis of the study indicates that the situation with regard to quality of education in all the five districts concerned is far from satisfactory. In school classroom observations, it is mentioned that a trend of not-attending classes in the afternoon is seen among ST students. It is also observed that in all the five districts the frequency of organizing VEC meeting is not satisfactory. It is reported that in enrollment campaigns and rallies the participation of the villagers is not encouraging and many do not realize the importance of such type of rallies. The report also reveals the fact that the participation of the scheduled tribe members in the VEC meetings is low. (Govt. of Andhra Pradesh, 2001). This is an internal report submitted to the state project office, DPEP, Hyderabad.

The report on "Evaluation of School Committees in Vizianagaram District" by M.S.R. Sharma reveals that the headmasters working in the schools expressed their ill-feelings in dealing with Village Education Committees and School Committees. The comments of the Headmasters as reflected in the report are as follows:

(a) Members of the committee were not at all participating actively.
(b) The committee members have not understood the rules.
(c) The Village Education Committees are expecting dominance over teacher and school issues.
(d) Because of illiteracy, the members are not able to understand the activities of the school.
(e) In some cases, the participation of the members was not at all encouraging because of their personal works.
(f) The members give only secondary importance for participation in the school affairs.

III. Processes of Community Participation in DPEP

Community participation is an inbuilt intervention in DPEP. The programme elicits the involvement of the community including minorities, women and the socially deprived groups. This is the first large scale attempt to involve community participation for achieving

universal primary education. This is in consonance with the democratic processes in the country, which is reiterated by the recent 73rd and 74th Amendments of the Constitution providing statutory legitimacy to the local self-governments. Given the social, economic and cultural diversity in India, community participation is an enormous challenge.

In order to elicit and promote community participation, DPEP has created structures at the community level for popular participation. These are Village Education Committee (VEC), Mother-Teacher Association (MTA) and Parent-Teacher Association (PTA). Secondly, DPEP has devised context specific community mobilization strategies (DPEP, Calling, May 1997).

Community mobilization strategies devised in DPEP serve a multiple purpose. They are directed towards ensuring that the community is empowered to own and run the programme. DPEP envisaged that when interventions are tailored to enhance a village's distinctive characteristic, resources and capacity, best results are delivered.

Given the dispersed location of primary schools and the very large number of two and three teacher schools in rural India, the monitoring of schools by officials or school administration becomes impossible. In such a case, it is important to associate the community for school effectiveness. One concrete agenda for the community is the provisioning for school infrastructure. Many items of school infrastructure like buildings, toilets, drinking water source, compound wall, play ground, teaching learning materials and aids, sports goods, etc. are one time budgetary support items. There are no institutional arrangements for maintenance and this often explains the dilapidated state of school infrastructure. The only way of keeping the school infrastructure in a reasonably good state of maintenance, is to associate the community. Community supervision, support and contribution to school infrastructure is the only sustainable method for good school infrastructure.

A wide range of communication and media options are adopted for community mobilization in the programme. DPEP has drawn upon the experiences of Kala Jathas (cultural troups) mode of the Total Literacy Mission (TLM) for community mobilization (mostly for sending their children to schools) Kala Jathas have been extensively organized using folk forms such as puppet shows, traditional media, street plays, films and songs to create awareness. Rallies, workshops, meetings, house to house campaigns and camps are also held to motivate parents to send their children to school. Opportunities such as weekly market, Melas (fairs), and religious gatherings have also been used, apart from the media channels of radio, television and print media.

Special melas like Mahila (women), Ma-beti (mother-daughter), Bap-beti (father-daughter) and Sishu (child) were organised to sensitize the community on needs of primary education. Posters, banners, hoardings, pamphlets, folders and brochures also created an environment of a huge campaign. The districts which implemented the programme had rich repository of print and audio visual material.

However, all such efforts are made only to enrolling the children in schools or in other words, involving the community to utilize the primary school located in the village. It may be recalled as per Shaeffer's framework, this is first level of community involvement which connotes only passive collaboration of community.

IV. Methodology

The present paper seeks to examine the role of Village Education Committees which have mostly represented the community participation in primary education in Andhra Pradesh under the District Primary Education Programme (DPEP). As described above, Community Participation is an important process through which DPEP intervention seeks to achieve the set goals. Also the sustainability of the project rests with the community participation.

The analysis for the study comes from three inter-related studies which had examined the issue of community participation in the form of working of VECs and other institutions like Parents Teachers Associations (PTAs) in managing the educational administration. In particular, we evaluated a recent attempt in AP State to involve communities in closer monitoring and management of education. The first study was carried out in four mandals selected across the three main agro-climate regions of Andhra Pradesh on the basis of (a) community poverty status and human development indicators; and (b) caste composition. The four selected mandals were Amrabad (Mahaboobnagar district in south Telangana region); Kataram (Karimnagar district in north Telagana region); Atlur mandal (Kadapa district in Rayalaseema region) and Seethampet (Srikakulam district in Coastal Andhra). The three distinct regions of Andhra Pradesh namely Coastal Andhra, Rayalaseema and Telangana have distinct socio-economic characteristics. With wide variations in levels of social and economic development, each of these regions is likely to have different impact of any intervention and hence the sample selection is made from the three regions. *(This study was done in the year 2006).*

The second study was carried out during 2001-02 in Vizianagaram district of Andhra Pradesh which is one of the educationally backward districts of the state and where the first phase of DPEP was launched. The analysis is carried out on data which is a sub-set of 295 sample households whose children were in primary schools of the five sampled villages where the study is carried-out. Also, the experiences of the researchers from an ongoing study (third one) on quality of primary education in 30 primary schools drawn from 30 villages of 12 mandals from three selected districts of the three regions of Andhra Pradesh during 2006-08 are documented in the paper.

Our data collection methodology included both quantitative and qualitative techniques in the form of canvassing a structured questionnaire and by employing in-depth semi-structured Interviews and Focus Group Discussions with committee members, members of the general public, service providers (Teachers), local government representatives and line department officials, etc. Since all the stakeholders of DPEP were involved in the three FGDs carried out by the researchers, there was reliable and authenticated information on the role of VECs. Attempts to depend on recorded minutes of the meetings proved futile as on many occasions there were no minutes except for the signatures/thumb impressions or single line resolutions. The structured questionnaire contained questions on parent-teacher association, school committee elections and about meetings of parents and teachers.

V. Findings and Discussion

In this section, findings of the field study carried out in Vizianagaram district of Andhra Pradesh are discussed first, followed by discussion on points emerging from the first and third studies as detailed in the methodology section.

Village Education Committees (VECs)

VECs were formed to carry out a number of tasks with respect to school matters in the village. The members of the VECs were expected to take a lot of interest in school related matters ranging from encouraging the parents of the village to send their children to the primary school, to ensuring quality of primary education in the respective school and thereby enhancing retention. Further, the members of the VECs were also to work in close coordination with Head Master and other teachers of the school in maintenance of the school building, cleanliness and above all keep a watch on the attendance and progress of the children. Motivating the parents of irregular and drop-out children to send their children to school and enhancing girl child's education were the other pertinent tasks of the VECs. Thus, in a way, community participation was supposed to happen through VECs.

The tenure of VECs was envisaged to be for 4 years. VECs were supposed to meet once in a month, and review functioning of the school. They also discuss about enrolment and drop-out position, progress of civil works and effectiveness of mobilisation campaigns. Women, disadvantaged groups, parents, social workers and prominent persons adequately represent these committees. The head–teacher of the village school and members of the village panchayat (local body) are ex-office members of the committee. DPEP provides school grant of Rs.2000 per annum to each VEC for improving school facilities, furniture, health check up etc and also it has undertaken to orient and train VEC members to enable supervision, school improvement and also for bringing about attitudinal changes among parents and the community.

Besides VECs, there are other community based structures like Mother-Teacher Association (MTA), Parent-Teacher Association(PTA), and *Mahila Samakhya Sanghs* (Women's clubs, formed under the scheme for women's empowerment) which also assist the programme.

However, the experience in Andhra Pradesh (Study Area) showed that the pro-active role of VECs varies from context to context. The very formation of VECs was both contentious and a vexatious issue. The election process was too elaborate and had a lot of political colour to it. There were two extreme situations of too many candidates, on one hand, and in certain other situations, elections had to be put off or postponed for lack of contestants. The former situation arose because of availability of funds for construction of school building or classrooms while in the latter there was no construction activity. Apart from the fund factor, the major political parties tried to utilize these elections as testing grounds for their respective strengths. There were quite a few news headlines in the local vernacular news papers regarding the law and order problems as a fall-out of these elections.

> *'About 60 per cent of the Panchayats in Andhra Pradesh are in the hands of opposition parties. Due to hatred and ill-will towards them and with an evil intention of providing political employment to the unemployed cadres of his party*

Chandrababu Naidu created various committees. However, these committees have not done any good to the people but have weakened the panchayats at large and permeated rift and conflicts in the villages. Because of the funds available with the primary schools for the mid-day meal programme and to gain an upper hand in the appointments of vidya volunteers, the politicians have beelined for a place in the VECs. To prove their presence and importance in the villages, these politicians have started doling out easy money for gaining leadership in the VECs. During the last 10 days of elections in more than 100 schools there was blood-shed due to severe squabbles for power struggle among the contestants of VECs'.

(Blood Strains to Primary Education: 'Vartha' editorial dt. 26-7-2003).

It is also found in the study that the drop-outs in the study area during the years of the programme (DPEP) was considerable (from the school attendance registers) compared to the official statistics provided by the education department which means VECS have played a limited role in checking the drop-outs. The information in the Table 1 reveals the drop-out pattern in the study school.

TABLE 1

Retention and Drop-outs at Sample School in Pre-and Post-DPEP Periods

(As per the admission records of the school)

Year	*No. of Student Joined*			*Drop-outs*			*Retention*		
	Total	*Boys*	*Girls*	*Boys*	*Girls*	*Total*	*Boys*	*Girls*	*Total*
90-91	7	3	4	2	3	5	1	1	2
91-92	26	17	9	8	4	12	9	5	14
92-93	13	10	3	1	0	1	9	3	12
93-94	11	8	3	1	1	2	7	2	9
94-95	11	7	4	1	1	2	6	3	9
95-96	17	5	12	0	8	8	5	4	9
Pre-DPEP Total	85	50 (58.8)	35 (41.2)	13 (43.3)	17 (56.7)	30 (35.3)	37 (67.3)	18 (32.7)	55 (64.7)
96-97	18	12	6	1	3	4	11	3	14
97-98	23	14	9	3	1	4	11	8	19
98-99	20	11	9	0	1	1	11	8	19
99-00	5	4	1	1	0	1	3	1	4
00-01	17	6	11	1	2	3	5	9	14
Post-DPEP Total	83	47 (56.6)	36 (43.4)	6 (46.2)	7 (53.8)	13 (15.7)	41 (58.6)	29 (41.4)	70 (84.3)

Note: Figures in the parenthesis are percentages.

This information is gathered from the school admission registers from 1991 onwards. The information is corroborated carefully by studying the names of the admitted students and following them up till they completed Class V (or otherwise). This was a laborious task, since the names of the students kept repeating and they were to be scrutinized carefully from the records. The information reveals that in both pre-and post-DPEP periods, the enrollment of girls lagged behind the enrollment of boys. Although drop-outs for the post-

DPEP have reduced, nearly one-sixth of the enrolled students dropped out of school without completing primary level of education. For both the periods, the drop-outs also are high for girls. In such a context, the role of VECs is not pronounced.

Further, out of the five sample schools, two were constructed with DPEP funds and the other three schools were working in the old buildings. The new school buildings were built by the VECs using the DPEP fund and labour–free of cost-from the villagers. Also, in the FGDs and personal interviews it is clearly brought out that the VECs have actively participated in the construction of school buildings or classrooms where funding was available by giving their labour free of cost.

These observations and findings make it clear that the role VECs was limited to enrolling the students in general and participating in the construction activity in specific situations.

Nevertheless, the Pre-DPEP and Post-DPEP statistics show that enrollment in primary classes in Andhra Pradesh has gone up and Studies have shown that VECs have been successful to some extent in mobilizing the community and motivating parents to send their children to school (Bhavani, 2003). In a few places, where there were funds for building of schools and classrooms, VECs are found to be supervising such construction activity. In some other places, they raised contributions in the form of providing labour for construction of schools and appointed para teachers wherever there was scope.

Considering the Shaeffer's Framework, the role of VECs in Andhra Pradesh as reflected by the study indicates that it is only passive involvement of the community instead of participation which implies much more active role.

In recent periods Education services are funded under nationwide programmes, like DPEP earlier and Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan (SSA)[1] presently, but with greater state-level input into education policy development. As already mentioned, School (Village) Education Committees (ECs) were established to improve school management under the 1998 Andhra Pradesh School Education (Community Participation) Act. Comprised of four members, selected from among parents whose children attend the local government school, the ECs' formal responsibilities included monitoring teacher attendance and performance, hiring local teachers, promoting student enrollment, attendance, retention and scholastic achievement, managing the funding and construction of school facilities (infrastructure, equipment, health programmes), and interacting with parents to promote parental commitment to children's schooling. In order to facilitate these activities, the EC chairperson, who was elected from among EC members, was expected to work closely with the school principal. Reflecting the contentious nature of these committees in AP politics, as explained earlier, however, the ECs were discontinued in 2005 after the Telugu Desam Party (TDP) lost the elections in May 2004.[2]

[1] The first study with which the main author of this paper is associated is UNICEF supported study (Young Lives Project) on 'Local Institutions and Social Policy for Children: Opportunities and Constraints of Participatory Service Delivery', (see Jones et. al., 2007). The second study draws largely from MPhil Dissertation on 'Policy Intervention in Universilation of Primary Education: A Case Study of District Primary Education Programme (DPEP) in Vizianagaram district of A.P', (see Bhavani, 2003). authored by the co-writer of this paper and the third study is based on the ongoing Ph.D work by the co-writer of this paper.

[2] SSA has replaced DPEP in 2002 and is one of the flagship programmes of the UPA government for achievement of Universalization of Elementary Education (UEE) in a time- bound manner, as mandated

Reflections of Parents and other Stakeholders

As reported in the methodology section, five primary schools from five sampled villages from Vizianagaram district were selected for the study. In all the villages all the households were canvassed with a structured questionnaire. Out of the 355 households, 235 parents reported sending their children to the primary schools in these villages. Once the parents enroll their children in the primary school, they become members of the Parent Teacher Association (PTA) by default. As such they were asked to state whether are aware of PTA and also whether they realize that they are the members of PTA. Further, the parents were asked about their attendance to PTA meetings and about the issues discussed at PTA meetings. In addition to this, parents were asked regarding their knowledge about the VECs and their participation in the elections for VECs. This information is presented in Table 2.

TABLE 2

Awareness of Households (HHs) about Parent Teacher Association (PTA) and Village School Committee (VSC)

Number of HHs reporting children in sample schools	235
Percentage Awareness about PTA	66.6
Percentage Awareness about membership in PTA	29.8
Percentage Attended PTA meetings	25.5
Percentage Awareness of VEC/VSC	48.9
Percentage Contesting for VEC/VSC membership	8.7
Participation in election process	78.2

There were 235 households who were sending their children to the primary schools situated in the sampled villages. All of them are supposed to be aware of PTA and VEC/VSC and also are expected to participate in the activities.

However, the study results reflect the following:

- Two-thirds of the parents are aware of the existence of parent teacher association. One-third of the parents were not even aware of the PTA which is a sad reflection on the programme in the context of supposedly huge efforts undertaken by the programme managers in creating awareness. *(PTAs were in existence as reflected by the fact that meetings were held. Every parent becomes a member of the PTA once their wards are in the school rolls. However, one-third of them were not aware of PTA)*
- Out of those who were aware of the PTAs, only 30 per cent of the parents were aware of the fact that they were the members of the PTAs and only one-fourth of the parents attended the PTA meetings. The meetings are routine in nature as the only point of discussion was about enrollment of children. (Those who reported attending the meetings were asked to state what was discussed in the meetings and the answer was mostly about enrollments)

by 86th amendment to the Constitution of India making free and compulsory Education to the Children of 6-14 years age group, a Fundamental Right. SSA is being implemented in partnership with State Governments to cover the entire country and address the needs of 192 million children in 1.1 million habitations.

- Most of the respondents (78 per cent) participated in the election process.
- Of those who were aware of the VECs, only a few contested in the election process.
- Majority of the members (51 per cent) were not aware of the VECs.

As already indicated the researcher had some informal personal discussions with VEC Members, Chairman and also with the Panchayat President who incidentally happened to be a woman.

The Panchayat President was very enthusiastic about the programme. She informed that she was quite active in making all-out efforts to enhance the enrollment in the school. However, she was very skeptical about the participation of whole community in such developmental activities because of poverty and illiteracy.

Surprisingly none of the female members of the VEC made any comments throughout the discussion, despite lot of probing and provocation. The Chairman of the VEC was also totally guided by the Headmaster of the school. It appeared that he did not have any say in spending the development grant of Rs.2000/- except for signing wherever the head masters wanted him to do.

Apart from the above informal discussion, an FGD was carried out involving the teachers, mandal resource persons, mandal education officer, members and chairmen of VECs and also the panchyat presidents. The following few points emerged from the FGD.

1. The group felt that inviting the community to take part in the affairs of the school is a welcome step, which enables the parents to motivate the children to be more regular to school.
2. Too many tasks to the teachers leaves them with very little time to really impart quality education. Sometimes even completing of the routine syllabus is becoming difficult.
3. Too much of pressure both from the higher-ups and community puts the teacher in a spot. In earlier days, teacher had a respectable and commendable position, which allowed him to serve to the best of his capacity. However, with present pressure teachers are mere government employees and are accorded no value.
4. School Committee elections are too fiercely fought on political lines when funds are available. On the other hand, there is no contest and illiterate villagers are forced to be members of the school committees where there are no funds.
5. Head Masters and school committee chairman are competing with each other in misappropriating the funds in some cases.
6. The programme envisages huge community participation and lesser government responsibility as a long term perspective. However with abysmal community participation such a prospect will be in jeopardy in future.

Participation: Opportunities and Constraints

Our results paint a mixed picture regarding inclusive and meaningful participation in these committees. Going by the Shaeffer's framework, the fourth level of participation, i.e, involvement on a particular issue (or some issues) is applicable in this case. On the positive side, both key informants (prominent and active people of the village) and committee members claim that the committees offered a space for participation in public affairs by a broader cross-section of villagers than is the case with other governance institutions. In the case of ECs, as the well-off generally send their children to private schools, participants are

often by default from the less advantaged sections of society. Some members also feel that participation in education committees has given them a sense of entitlement and the right to question school authorities, and even potential government officials. In several cases, for example, committee members have continued to monitor education service delivery and to interact with school personnel even after the formal dissolution of the ECs due to a sense of responsibility instilled during their EC membership tenure. This is the opinion expressed by the EC chairman of Amarabad in Mahabubnagar district of Telangana region. In his own words, *"A sense of responsibility and commitment comes with being a committee member. I have that responsibility, that's why I am talking with you. Otherwise, I could have said that I have other work to do. Even though the committee was formally stopped, I still have that responsibility."*

Such optimistic account was far from universal, however. Our findings revealed a number of factors that condition participation in committees and limited meaningful devolution of power and authority in practice. These include caste, class and gender inequalities and the politicization of user committees as discussed below.

Caste, Class and Gender Inequalities

Participation opportunities were significantly shaped by socio-economic, caste and gender differences. Notwithstanding a reservations system for excluded social groups, class and caste inequalities were manifested both in direct and indirect ways.

First, there was less interest and active participation in committee activities among parents occupied as daily labourers as participation came at the cost of daily earnings and was thus deemed a less urgent priority than more pressing livelihood issues.

Second, the position of EC chair, in particular, seems to be unattainable for most poor parents: the fact that candidates may have to spend considerable amounts of time and money just to be elected is likely to exclude many parents even from considering participation. As committees are expected to raise funds for the school construction budget, a chairperson's ability to contribute financially to school development is seen as an important asset. Many respondents also mentioned status (based on age, education levels, gender or political party connections) within the community as a desirable attribute for an EC chairperson.

Gender inequalities also affected participation levels. ECs were typically male dominated and in cases where women were involved, their participation was more likely to be tokenistic with their husbands handling their responsibilities. This tended to be the case particularly among women with low education levels and/or from Muslim families who often faced restrictions on their physical mobility and/or involvement in public affairs. These difficulties were highlighted in a focus group discussion with female EC members in Atlur mandal about reasons for their lack of interaction with school authorities. We also came across some active and efficient women members in ECs in Seethampet and Atlur mandals, for example, two former EC chairwomen (both of whom have completed secondary education) have since been elected to the local *panchayat.* Nevertheless, in general, women participating in ECs tended to be less informed and more passive than their male EC counterparts.

Education levels—also mediated through class and caste positioning—played a key role in members' participation levels. Many respondents emphasized that for committee

members to participate effectively and for committees to reach their potential members should be articulate, educated and knowledgeable. Education in turn shapes members' awareness about committee functions and responsibilities. One interesting aspect of education committees is that there tended to be a significant divide between awareness levels, activity and involvement of the chair and those of the rank and file members. In many committees, the chairperson is the only active participant and generally takes care of committee matters, in co-operation with the school headmaster.

Committee Politicization

In the case of education committees, another barrier to inclusive participation was linked to high levels of committee politicization. This was witnessed in Amrabad and Atlur *mandal* sites. EC chairmanship was a valued position for aspiring local party cadre, particularly in areas with a strong tradition of party political contestation. As a result, the election of the EC chairperson tended to be a very visible and politicized event. Typical contenders were men with an affiliation to one of the main political parties, the Congress Party or the TDP, who viewed EC chairmanship as a position of prestige and potentially a stepping-stone for a future career in more influential political bodies, such as the village panchayat. For this reason, candidates for the chairmanship sometimes spent considerable sums of money in their electoral campaigns and made their political affiliation visible so as to enhance voter recognition.

Pupil's Participation

Finally, it is noteworthy that while the education committees were set up to improve community participation in public services, there are very limited provisions for children's voices to be taken into account in service delivery, monitoring and evaluation. Government regulations state that in ECs that monitor higher secondary schools, the highest achieving student in Standard 9 would be a member without any voting rights. However, even in this rather tokenistic way, we did not find any examples of children's participation in our research sites. Moreover, although some respondents mentioned that the committees represent the interests of children, this was not always how members understood their participation. As EC chairs were frequently concerned about securing their future political advancement, there were greater incentives to focus on activities that would carry favour with the general public of voting age—visible examples of infrastructure development such as construction of compound walls or new school buildings—rather than actions that prioritized addressing children's concerns.

Impact on Service Delivery

Although our qualitative methodology largely does not permit us to make statistical assessments of change over time we focused on a number of themes that emerged from triangulating our interview data with government officers, local service providers, elected officials, parents and children. These include respondents' perceptions of committee effectiveness and the extent to which expectations have been met, as well as the type and quality of linkages committees have been (un)able to form with the community, service providers, government decision-makers and elected officials.

Demand-driven Services

In committees with active members and/or support from pro-active service providers, there was a general consensus that the outreach of educational services had improved. Generating parental demand and commitment to their children's attendance and performance did emerge as an important achievement in Kataram and Seethampet *mandal*s where ECs consisted of informed and motivated members.

Infrastructure Bias

An important function of the ECs is to oversee the budget for school infrastructure development, together with the school principal. When asked about their achievements many respondents focused predominantly on improvements in terms of building repairs, constructing classrooms and toilets, whitewashing classroom walls etc. One EC chair of Seethampeta mandal boasted, 'We constructed rooms and we have developed a garden around it and also built a fence. We have made the school a beautiful place and we have seen to it that there are paintings of political leaders and also science diagrams on the walls of the school.' Play equipments have also been provided. This is the predominant trend we observed in our field trip.

This tendency to focus on infrastructure is influenced by several important political factors. First, infrastructural improvements are one of the main functions of local government in rural India. Second, social sector or child-related issues are rarely (if ever) discussed in *gram sabha* or *gram panchayat* (all-village and local council) meetings. Instead, infrastructure development provides an important source of political capital for local politicians, including those initiating their political career as education committee chairmen. Although committee members also talked about their role in ensuring teacher attendance and the quality of teaching,(in one of the ECs, members even became involved in regular testing of students to assess their scholastic performance) these are clearly tasks that have less concrete outcomes, and such achievements are more difficult to demonstrate to the wider community. Third and probably most important is the link between construction work and personal financial gain.

Capacity and Awareness Gaps

Outreach and infrastructural improvements notwithstanding, a considerable number of respondents argued that the committees have not been able to realize their objectives at least in part due to members' capacity gaps. In view of these gaps, government has initiated capacity building workshops; though they have to focus on crucial issues such as school management and school accounts, they were organized for short duration of a day or two. Hence, they were only superficial and were not successful.

Insufficient capacity is hardly surprising given that the committees seek to involve substantial numbers of poor and lower caste citizens, many of whom are illiterate. The more puzzling dimension is rather why despite a general provision for capacity development of members in the government regulations regarding the establishment of ECs, more resources (by the government, donors and NGOs) have not been invested in providing complementary capacity building programmes in order to overcome these structural disadvantages. Capacities need to be built to prepare the community "in real decision making at every stage," including identification of problems, the study of feasibility, planning,

implementation and evaluation. Such capacity building cannot be achieved overnight and hence, it should be a continuous process rather than a one-time routine affair.

Service Provider Accountability

Effective monitoring of teachers has proven to be a more demanding (or a not very attractive) task for user committees to tackle than undertaking construction work. Many committee members were unable to challenge frontline service providers, considering the latter socially and professionally superior. Most of the VEC members are of lower socio-economic background and hence, they could not question the teachers or officials who were highly qualified.

ECs have enjoyed greater, compared to other providers—but still limited—impact on teacher accountability. A number of parents believed that before the dissolution of the ECs, teachers had been compelled to be more accountable to the local community. The following statement by a female teacher in *Kataram* is a good example. *"The ECs have the feeling that they are our superiors and they would always question us wherever they see us, even in the streets. They won't ask us on the school premises and even if we traveled to our home town they question us. Though we are on leave they question us because they don't know about leave entitlements. This questioning is particularly problematic for women teachers."*

Others, however, argued that school committees—especially because they typically represent the poor and uneducated—do not tend to carry substantial weight vis-à-vis the teaching profession. Moreover, in several sites with more assertive education committees, we encountered resistance by way of evasive responses to our queries from teachers and headmasters. This may be because teachers were unaccustomed to hearing demands from their pupils' parents or, alternatively, because of true harassment by ill-informed or ill-intentioned committee members.

Overall, principals and teachers were generally unenthusiastic about the proposed reviving school monitoring committees because they were seen to disrupt day-to-day functioning of school activities and also risked politicising school management. Perceived dangers included members with strong political affiliations, misuse of funding (especially on infrastructure construction projects) and criticising teachers without being adequately informed about the case in question.

Links with Local Decision-makers

Our research found only limited evidence of effective linkages between either elected officials or government officers and school committees. Instead, our findings largely endorsed the view that these grassroot organizations are functioning as isolated institutions and are weakly linked to local political structures. Where there are links they tend to be political rather than substantive. For example, committee chairs and local politicians harked from the same political party or any other political party used their post as a career stepping stone. This is problematic not only in terms of a lack of genuine concern for improving education services, but also because it means the committees themselves lack adequate checks and balances against corruption and mismanagement. An equally important problem is the fact that local officials have limited scope to shape service policy. While rhetoric about school committees focuses on the need for demand-led services by grassroot clients, in reality the opportunities for making a real impact on service content and quality are few.

Most decisions about education standards, school curricula, teacher training and hiring etc. are made at the national and state levels, or at best the district levels, but for which there are no formal communication channels for committee members to articulate their views. We have not come across any mandal level education committee or district level education committee which, perhaps, could have been appropriate channel for the ECs to deliberate their opinions.

VECs and Panchayats

In the case of the VECs, the task of primary education was removed from the jurisdiction of the Gram Panchayats much against the GO No. 120, dt.31.3.99 that devolves primary and secondary education to the PRIs. A study conducted by the PRIA, Hyderabad, an NGO observes that the School Education Committee formed under Andhra Pradesh School Education (Community Participation) Act, 1998 invests the responsibilities and the resources with Village Education Committees rather than with Gram Panchayats in contradiction with its own GO (Anil, 2001). The GO MS. No. 538 takes away whatever control was there with Chief Executive Officer (CEO) of Zilla Parishad (ZP) and vests all powers regarding functionaries, teaching and non-teaching staff-with the DEO (District Education Officer) who belongs to the State Education Department. The DEO now takes all the decisions regarding posting, transfers, promotions, disciplinary action matters which were earlier under the control of CEO of Zilla Parishad and elected chairperson of ZP.

Abolition of VECs

The abolition of VECs towards the end of DPEP period is a sad commentary on the community participation under this important intervention. Later on VECs were replaced by School Education Management Committees as per the GO 95 of the government of AP, 2006.

One of the fundamental reasons for the failure of VECs could be traced to under-preparation of the community to take up such a huge challenge. In hindsight, one would have thought that there should have been a preparatory period for the community during which adult literacy programmes and massive community training programmes should have been organized. This could have led to an enabling environment for the community to involve itself with a commitment and purpose.

The educated youth in the villages could have been very handy in this programme who were sidelined in the initial stages of the programme and later were lured with the para-teacher concept.

Recent Experience

Most of the schools have lesser strength with the opening of a good number of schools under DPEP. Under the SSA the emphasis is on quality of primary education. Based on the performance of the students schools are given grades.

As of now there is little community participation in the primary education except for the mid-day meal programme which is being managed by the SHGs of the villages. There is a lot of ambiguity with regard to the concept of School Education Management Committees (SEMC).

These committees are to be formed by nomination of the District in-charge minister. Each Committee would have four parents of the children who are the in the local primary

school. The idea of SEMC in its present form is to take virtual control of the primary schools and their role is both managerial and supervisory. The present hierarchy of DEO is likely to get overshadowed and the teachers are supposed to be answerable only to SEMC which will monitor the day-to-day functioning of the schools. However, given the experience of the VECs, there is lot of skepticism in the teacher community about the supervisory role of SEMCs.

VI. Conclusions and Way Forward

The paper clearly brings out that there is only passive community involvement in the primary education despite tall talk of community participation as envisaged by the DPEP. Such involvement as pointed out earlier is largely limited to enrolling the children in schools.

Our research highlights that government policies on decentralization, local governance and public services will need to be revised to shift the focus away from quantity (enrolment) and coverage of communities to the quality of committee work and depth of participation. It is crucial that these challenges are addressed in programme design and implementation as community participation is a key element in social policy on public service delivery, as well as an important component of the *Sarva Shiksha Abhiayn* scheme, the forthcoming education bill in Andhra Pradesh[3] and the broader decentralization process upon which Andhra Pradesh is now embarking[4].

To ensure the VECs to be pro-active and vigilant (even in case they are revived and/or restructured) the following measures need to be addressed:

Firstly, ensuring that service users, parents of school going children and committee members are provided with adequate information about the mandate, roles and responsibilities of these committees and are offered capacity-building opportunities by the education department to improve their skills in negotiating confidently with officials and service providers.

Secondly, there is an urgent need for strengthening committee accountability mechanisms vis-a-vis both parents and representative local community. This is because in cases where VECs offer greater prestige and budget control, there is chance that incentives may result in the over-politicisation of committee membership and possible misappropriation of resources. Stronger linkages and cross-accountability between elected local government bodies and service monitoring associations are also needed so that committee chairs could be held responsible to the wider community. In this regard the proposed reforms in the Andhra Pradesh local government sector including appointing the

[3] The education committees were discontinued in 2005 after the tenure of the existing committees came to an end and the new chief minister (elected May 2004) decided against holding new elections for the committees. As per the end of 2007, they were the only user committees to be dissolved following the TDP electoral defeat. Part of the reason was pressure from the teachers' union, which was opposed to local community monitoring, although the teachers' union in Andhra Pradesh is not a major political force as it is in other states (eg. West Bengal).

[4] Government of Andhra Pradesh Abstract; Andhra Pradesh school management Committee (community participation) Rules 1998 certain amendments-orders–issued, G.O Ms. No. 95 dated 02/12/2006.

Mandal Parishad Territorial Constituency (MPTC) members as education committee chairs to ensure greater accountability would be welcome step.

Thirdly, committees have been less successful at developing meaningful linkages with authorities of education department. Parents whose children attend government schools have little confidence or opportunities to challenge local school authorities, let alone politicians or officials. Although some EC chairmen affiliated with the ruling party had close relationships with some authorities and were sometimes able to access funds this way; Overall we found few cases where chairpersons had drawn on this political capital to improve education services. There need to be institutional arrangements to be put in place for meaningful linkages with authorities.

Lastly, equally important, given that education services remain much centralized in Andhra Pradesh, encouraging and facilitating local participation in public services has little meaning if in reality the decisions are taken elsewhere (Mooij, 2006). Careful devolution of a wider range of responsibilities to schools and local governments would encourage greater service user participation.

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Sacred Goals and Injudicious Spending

— A Mid-Term Appraisal of Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan (SSA), Kerala

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Abstract

This paper seeks to study largely the allocation and expenditure pattern of SSA funds by the districts of Kerala. It also attempted to ascertain if the shortages in allocation and utilization of the funds did hamper the attainment of SSA mandates. The paper argues that as the reported physical achievement levels of the districts are high, the lower utilization level at the initial years, by itself, did not seem to be a serious deterrent in the success of the project. It therefore suggests that if at all it turns out that there still remain incidences of non-schooling, or education of poor quality, it is not due to the deficits in fund supply but to the deficits in imagination and will to pursue the purposes of the project.

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Introduction

Compulsory education for all children of 6-14 years was a constitutional target in India (vide Article 45), mandated to be achieved within 10 years from its commencement (1950), though as a directive, it envisaged nothing beyond the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (Article 26) of the United Nations which proclaimed already (1948) that education was a human right. However, since the directive principles of the Constitution, including Article 45, are not enforceable by law, it took many more decades, and much more indignant public action that education came finally to be a basic right of the children that made the Government of India to act. Accordingly, in contrast with the cases of other government projects, it launched its prestigious programme called 'Sarva Siksha Abhiyan' (SSA) in a mission mode and mandated strict pattern of resource utilisation by the participant States in the Union, to accomplish the destined objectives of mainly the Universal Elementary Education (UEE) and quality in education. The States also had to respond befittingly to the initiatives of the Union government in this direction, though their share of liability to the total outlay deemed quite substantial and set to take quantum leaps over the Five-Year-Plan (FYP) periods. Despite the facts that there were reportedly many constraints for the State to mobilise the required additional resources and that the State was adjudged already to be very near the declared goals of the SSA, the Government of Kerala – a State in the Indian Union – also embarked on measures to launch the project throughout the State, almost with the massive institutional infrastructure in the State already put in place. However, the progress card of the districts in implementing the project shows that the performance of the State in the initial years of its launching is far too short of targets, both in the resource allocation and its utilisation.

Studies have shown that though the diffusion of elementary schooling was quite enviable in Kerala, certain 6-14 year population groups missed the bus quite woefully. The scheduled communities, Muslim children and children of very poor families are seen to bear the brunt of educational deprivation, each having their own reasons for non-attending school (IIPS and ORC Macro 2001, GoK 2004, Kumar and Lathika 2007). Kerala is a state where the institutions of education have great history, and private participation in the school education system has been pervasive, and the government is content with running only one-third of the schools (2002-03). Except for the 'un-aided' schools, which had but less than 5 per cent stakes in the total number and which grew in number at a rate of about six per cent, the size of the system remained almost stagnant since 1960-61. Though, a school in Kerala, in average, caters to the children in an area covering about three square kilometre around it (termed in this paper, the catchment area of the school), its presence is more distant apart (about 7 to 10 km^2 coverage per school) in the hilly districts where, the neediest communities namely the scheduled tribes and the very poor are densely populated. Access to education is not uniform or universal in Kerala across regions or social groups, and hence, SSA mandates mean much to even Kerala especially when the efforts are focussed on these regions, or groups.

Education means a fair share of the State's rare resource stock, and in Kerala also, income poverty seems to breed education vulnerability (Lathika and Kumar 2008). The massive funds that are flown in through SSA sources must enable these education-deprived children to access the mammoth education system already in place in the State. SSA already approved about (up to 2008-09) 10.60 billion rupees to Kerala for various interventions

intended to bring the education-deprived children also to the mainstream. Much of it (63.76%) is seen to have been spent also. If the expenditure by the state government on elementary education (2001-02 to 2008-09) that works out to about 120 billion rupees, is also taken into account, the per-capita public expenditure on education amounts to a huge sum, and if any child around is still left un-schooled, or does not attain quality education at least for eight years, there shall be no justification, on the part of the state, for its blatant lethargy of not honouring the constitutional guarantee of education for children.

With this background, the objectives of the study are fixed as under:

a) To study the fund flow pattern of SSA in Kerala, in general and the districts in particular, and to ascertain the achievement levels both physically and financially;

b) To classify the SSA interventions according to the goals they target and to analyse the goal-wise allocation and achievement level of funds; and

c) To analyse the expenditure pattern at the Block Resource Centre (BRC) level, under the District Project Office (DPO) of one of the districts in the State and to ascertain if they differ substantially with that experienced at the DPO level.

Data Source and Limitation of the Study

The study is based almost solely on the data from the secondary sources, mainly the reports of the SSA state project office, financial statements of district project offices, audit reports and other reports from governmental sources. These reports are known to have been prepared by compiling the inputs received from the lower units in the system hierarchy, including the most primary one among them namely the schools. However, taking schools as the primary functioning units may defeat the very purpose of SSA, as the main goal of SSA is to bring the out-of-school children to school. The SSA targets not the school children alone but the 6-14 age children all around, from whom the system does not appear to draw any direct inputs for preparing reports. In other words, a study of this kind might be regarded as complete only if it covers the school age children also as a data source. However, this study did not conduct a field-level sample survey for circumventing the problem, though some inferences that are derived out of the analysis of the secondary data given in the departmental reports were either sought to be ascertained by personal visits to project areas or with the reports of the agencies like NSSO or NFHS which took to large scale household surveys on parameters including education.

System of School Education in Kerala – Indicators of Sufficiency

As on the academic year 2007-08, the elementary education system in Kerala carries about 4.8 million children of 5-14 years, and 177 thousand teachers. Eighty per cent of the total 6664 habitations in Kerala satisfy the norm of having a primary school within one square kilometre of the habitation (NCERT, Educational Statistics, 7th Survey). Though literacy and elementary education is known to have already diffused into all sections in Kerala, cutting across gender and regional barriers, income deprivation is reported to be still hampering education attainment of children in Kerala (Kumar and Lathika 2007). Table 1 provides a district-wise account of various parameters on the efficiency of education system in Kerala. The child-density of the region, the catchment area of a school (in km^2), the child-

density of a school and student-teacher ratio are provided in the Table, as they could be perceived to be as very relevant indicators of efficiency of the system of education in achieving quality UEE. The lesser the catchment area that a school covers, or the lesser the child density of the region, the more will be the access of children to education in the locality.

The Table also provides the student-teacher ratio in each district. While the child density is very low in the two hilly districts of Wayanad and Idukki in Kerala, where population density is also seen to be low (252 and 366 respectively, against the State average of 819), it is found to be very high in the capital district and the districts of Malapuram (68%) and Kozhikode (37%) where the TFR levels are high (2.4 and 1.7 respectively) and the Muslims dominate in number. However, catchment area of a school is very low in Kozhikode (higher than only Alapuzha district where the TFR rate is the lowest in Kerala). It could be seen that schools are more distant apart in districts where child population is low (GoI 2008). The child population density seems to be rather a determinant of proliferation of schools.

TABLE 1

Parameters of system sufficiency in education in Kerala

District	*Child Density@*	*School Coverage (km2)*	*No of Students per Teacher*		*Child Density per School#*	*School Enrolment Gap$*
	2001-02	*2007-8*	*2001-02*	*2007-08*		
Thiru'puram	243	2.21	34	30	537	63212
Kollam	166	2.69	34	31	446	36636
Pathanamthitta	121	3.56	32	22	432	20183
Allappuzha	137	1.85	28	28	253	34638
Kottayam	136	2.42	29	25	328	27882
Idukki	41	9.34	33	31	381	31841
Ernakulam	160	2.92	32	27	465	59896
Thrissur	161	2.56	31	31	413	28241
Palakkad	108	4.62	31	33	497	18736
Malappuram	235	2.41	33	32	564	43962
Kozhikode	217	1.88	27	27	409	20057
Wayanad	67	7.25	33	37	484	11883
Kannur	143	2.29	25	23	328	16282
Kasargod	121	3.6	32	29	434	24714
Kerala	142	3.03	31	27	431	429343

@: Child population (5-14 years) in 2001 in the district
#: Ratio of child population (5-14 years) in 2001 and number of schools (2007-08)
$: Difference from the population (2001) 5-14 years with enrolment 2001-02
Source: SSA Kerala Annual report, various years.

The student-teacher ratio is seen to be varying much between districts, with a range of 22–33, in 2007-08. But the most striking feature of student-teacher ratio is that there occurred a great depletion in the ratio in many districts. Only two districts namely Palakkad and Wayanad reported an increase in the ratio. Wayanad is a district where no new school

has been opened since 2001, though TFR is substantially high (2.0, against the State average of 1.7, GoI, 2008, GoK, 2008).

But note that child population growth in Kerala is taking a sharp retreat since 1981, when it made a substantial increase by 1.7 million since 1961. While in 1961, 4 in 10 Keralites were children, it declined to 2 in 10 by the year 2001. A decline of 32 per cent of school age population in 2051 will necessitate a corresponding shrinkage in the number of schools also. Kerala had 2622 uneconomic government-funded schools (which, as per Kerala Education Rule 22(4), has strength less than 25 per standard in lower primary section or upper primary section) in 2003, which increased to 3415 in 2007-08 (GoI, 2008, GoK, 2009). Thus, increasing the total number of schools already available in the State may not be a prudent remedy to universal educational access in Kerala, but an efficient redeployment or realignment of resources may be.

This Table shows also that the enrolment gap of the children of 5-14 years in Kerala was 4,29,343, at the turn of this century – an estimate which defies all estimates projected by the State for the purpose of the implementation of SSA. The child census conducted, as a pre-project activity, to identify and estimate the total number of out-of-school children in Kerala, arrived at a figure of 16,800 children. On the other hand, the SSA-sponsored mid-term (2005) study estimated that there were 23,242 children in Kerala who refrained from going to school. It deems really alarming that an enquiry at the school and Block Resource Centre level revealed that these institutions at the ground level who are responsible to implement the SSA programme are seemingly unaware of either these estimates, or are serious about this estimate so that they could identify and persuade these children at whatever cost it incurs. This casts shadow on the claims of the SSA-Kerala on the success and achievement rates of their project.

Fund Flow Decisions: The Kerala SSA Experience

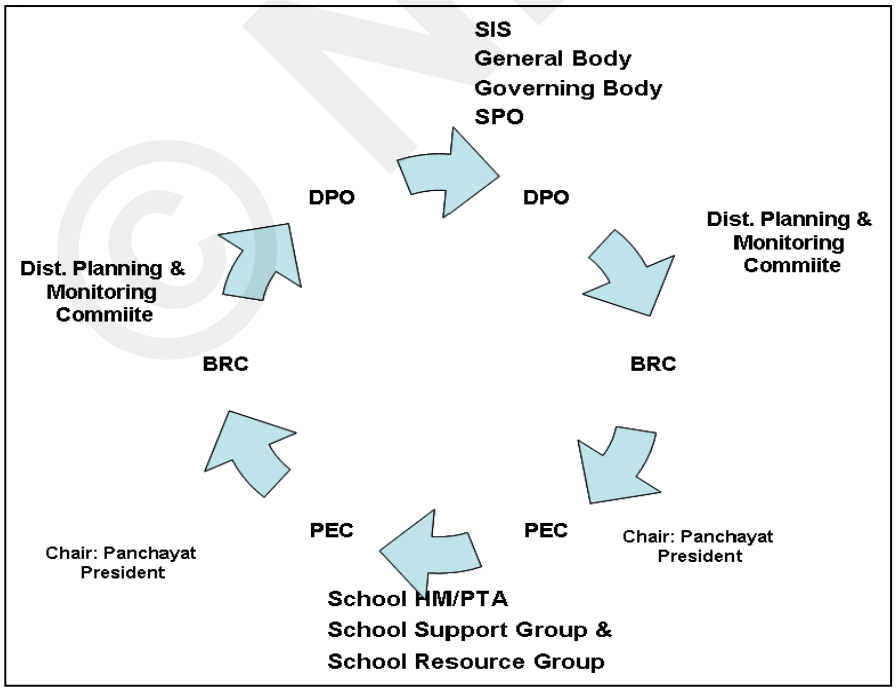
SSA is financed by the Government of India and the State Government in the ratio of 85:15 during IX Plan (up to 2002), 75:25 during X Plan and the state share is successively increased thereafter (up to 2010) to reach 50:50. The State Government was to maintain their level of investment in elementary education as in 1999-2000 and the contribution for SSA of the State will be over and above this investment. A series of processes like the preparation of District Elementary Education Plans, Perspective as well as Annual Working Plan, appraisal of plans and approval of plans and financial outlay by the Project Advisory Board (PAB), precedes the release of funds by the government at the Centre. The Ministry would release the funds approved, in two instalments every year, that is, in April and September, subject to certain conditions, the main ones being the following:.

(i) Written commitment by State Government regarding its contribution towards SSA.
(ii) Commitment of the State Government to release its matching contribution to the SIS within 30 days of release of funds by Government of India.
(iii) Supervision visit of the programme implementation in district by National Mission before processing the second instalment.
(iv) Progress of expenditure is at least 50 per cent of funds released, before release of second instalment and the quality of implementation justified its release.
(v) Utilisation certificate of funds released in the first instalment is furnished before release of first instalment of subsequent year.

The Flow and decision path of SSA funds is captured in the Figure 1. In the picture, the decisions on the proposal are being processed initially at level shown in the figure at the bottom, and then forwarded to the levels in the decision channel shown at upper stages on the left of the picture, and the final proposal consolidated, finalized and presented to the PAB by the bodies shown at the top of the figure. The fund approved by the PAB is forwarded to the State Implementing Society (SIS), which in turn distributes it to the agencies shown at lower stages on the right of the picture. Thus, the school Headmaster, the school support and resource groups frame the initial proposal for funds for a particular year and submit it to the PEC (Panchayat Education Committee) for approval. The PEC will compile the proposals from all the schools under the PEC, and a consolidated proposal is sent to the next upper level in the decision path (shown on left part on the diagram). Thus, the quality of SSA fund utilization would be determined by the amount and items for which they were proposed (in accordance with the SSA goals, as applicable to the level of implementation like school, Cluster Resource Centre (CRC), Block Resource Centre (BRC), District Project Office (DPO) etc. which will be based on the physical target fixed for that level and for that particular year), the percentage amount finally approved by the PAB, the time of releasing the approved amount, the distribution and time of the total approved amount to the levels under each level of implementation of SSA project. The processes of fixing the physical targets and timely utilization of the amount granted exactly for the targeted items are hence the most crucial elements in the proposal-decision and fund-expenditure flow path, and they will determine the efficiency and success of the whole project.

FIGURE 1

Flow & Decision Path of SSA Funds



Both Central and State Governments are to release the funds directly to SIS, which in turn, releases the funds to the District Project Offices (DPO). The DPO releases funds for all interventions, except the funds for civil works, which are sent directly to PEC, to BRCs who, in turn, release them to the PECs (Schools). The PAB, while approving the Annual Work Plans of 2002-03 and 2003-04, had directed the State Government to maintain the level of expenditure on elementary education as in 1999-2000 and give details of this to Government of India before release of second instalment. In fact, as an initial step, the PAB recommended a plan size of 504 crores for a 5-year period for 2002-07 (SSA Kerala report 2002-03). If the whole enrolment gap given in Table 1 in the state is taken as the target group, the recommended amount per child would amount to Rs. 11,739. But, actually, the PAB approved an allocation of Rs. 7135.8 million during the period, which is 41 per cent more than what was initially envisaged. Thus, it appears that fund was not a constraint for effective implementation of SSA plans. To cite a specific case, the case of PAB allocation for 2007-08 for Kerala is examined. Table 2 provides the essential details.

TABLE 2

Allocation by PAB, as per cent of Proposed Amount in 2007-08

Interventions	*Per cent of Proposed Amount*	
	Fresh	*Total (including amount carried over)*
Teachers' Salary	100	100
Teachers' Grant	100	100
Block Resource Centres (BRC)	63	63
Cluster Resource Centres (CRC)	100	100
Teachers' Training	98	98
Alternate and Innovative Education (AIE)	65	65
Remedial Teaching	100	100
Free Text Book (FTB)	100	100
Interventions for CWSN (IED)	78	78
Civil Works	18	36
Major Repairs	92	89
Teaching Learning Equipment (TLE)	2	2
Maintenance Grant	100	100
School Grant	100	100
Research & Evaluation (R & E)	100	100
Management & MIS	71	71
Innovative Activity	93	93
Community Training	100	100
Total	58	62

Source: Computed from the file "Maj_Head_kerala 290307(2007-08).pdf" available in net

Though, as would be seen later from the Table on year-wise allocation of funds, there was a cut by the SIS in the approval from the proposed amount, it could be generally discerned from the Table that the PAB is fairly generous in allocating funds, especially for the items related to the crucial SSA interventions which concerns directly with child's quality education. In fact, out of the 18 items under which the fund was given, allocation for 10 items was complete. This includes teacher-salary, teacher-grant, remedial teaching, free text book, research & evaluation, Innovative activities, community mobilization – all very critical interventions in SSA project. Table 3 provides a classificatory analysis of percentage allocation of funds for Kerala. Table amply testifies to the credibility of our earlier argument that SSA is not fund-constrained.

TABLE 3

SSA Interventions Approved by the PAB, Classified by their Percentage out of Proposal in Kerala

Range	*No.*	*Items*
100%	9	Teacher salary, Teacher grant, CRC, remedial teaching, FTB, maintenance grant, school grant, R & E, community mobilisation
75-100	4	Innovative activities, teacher's training, major repair, IED
50-75	3	MIS, BRC, AIE
25-50	1	civil works
< 25	1	TLE

Source: Computed from data in source as in Table 2.

Table 4 provides a district-wise actual allocation of funds by the PAB up to the year 2007-08, compiled from the various annual reports of SSA.

TABLE 4

Amount Approved by PAB up to 2007-08

District	*2002-03*	*2003-04*	*2004-05*	*2005-06*	*2006-07*	*2007-08*	*Total*
Thiru'puram	714.96	1120.09	1693.7	1479.08	1369.79	1380.33	7757.95
Kollam	1026.9	1239.53	1442.8	1354.52	1173.42	981.56	7218.73
Pathanamthitta	296.34	449.86	590.4	642.33	729.22	722.17	3430.32
Alappuzha	521.75	732.65	1011.65	1003.88	885.55	891.13	5046.61
Kottayam	675.9	779.92	885.75	1009.61	835.79	838.78	5025.75
Idukki	233.18	344.68	636.33	755.01	847.45	662.7	3479.35
Ernakulam	619.88	785.05	1108.85	1336.07	1341.19	1139.41	6330.45
Thrissur	710.95	788.16	1256.49	1412.54	1442.19	1363.75	6974.08
Palakkad	381.19	885.28	1255.31	1489.77	1348.57	1223.05	6583.17
Malappuram	821.93	1513.53	1787.63	1891.07	2185.52	2116.48	10316.16
Kozhikode	866.87	1223.24	1534.63	1731	1630.89	1699.56	8686.19
Wayanad	211.67	386.69	564.07	640.4	707.94	620.32	3131.09
Kannur	1005.98	1382.27	1628.29	1645.73	1568.94	1315.45	8546.66
Kasargod	385.01	664.11	983.82	950.99	801.13	757.02	4542.08
Kerala	8472.51	12295.06	16379.72	17342	16867.59	15711.71	87068.59

Source: SSA Kerala Annual Report, various years.

Naturally, Malapuram district has claimed the largest share of allocation out of the total state allocation of more than Rs. 8,707 millions upto 2007-08. Malappuram which has 15.4 per cent of the students, 11.5 per cent schools and 14.1 per cent teachers (2007-08), out of the total state tally, was allocated 11.5 per cent of the total State funds allowed. It appears that the fund was allocated largely in proportion to the total number of schools, total number of teachers, total number of children etc. From the ground level (school and BPO) information also, this appears to be true. However, in order to ascertain whether the funds were allotted strictly in accordance with the parameters which determine the performance of education front, like student-teacher ratio and school coverage, we have done a correlation analysis of cumulative sum of the fund (over the years) of each district (N=14) with these selected parameters that are shown in Table 1. The results are presented in Table 5.

TABLE 5

Correlation (N=14) between Total Funds Approved till 2007-08 and Selected Education Parameters

Child (5-14 years) Population	0.6550**
No. of schools	0.7096**
No. of teachers	0.7614**
Student-teacher ratio	- 0.044
School coverage (km^2)	- 0.6270**
Child density per school	0.1554

Source: SSA Kerala Annual Report 2007-08

The Table proves amply clear that the fund allocation was in conformity with the number of schools and number of teachers. However, this Table also indicates that the amount allocated was not in consideration of the child density per school, or even the school catchment area. The allocation should also have been increased with the increment in the student-teacher ratio, which was not the case here. As the school catchment area becomes wider, or the child density per school is more, the fund should flow more. But the experience in this case was to the contrary.

SSA-Fund Utilization in Kerala: The Trends

As already mentioned, the authorities seem to have experienced many teething troubles in the fund utilisation, mainly due to short release of funds by the centre to the SIS (which in turn was due to the short release, or non-release of proportionate share of funds by the State to SIS and the State's inability to maintain the level of expenditure on elementary education as in 1999-2000), and also by the delayed release of funds by the SIS to DPOs. The frequent change of position of main functionaries at each level of project implementation also dampened the utilization efforts at all levels. A study sponsored by the Ministry of HRD of the Government of India on Financing of SSA (GoI 2005) noticed various anomalies in the utilization of funds of SSA, the main ones are listed below:

- Funds did not flow as per prescribed format
- Marked delay in receipt of funds from the State government

- The maximum delay of 15 days in releasing funds by SPO to DPOs was not maintained.
- Withholding large amounts by SPO and DPOs noticed. This varied vastly from district to district.
- In Kerala, the SSA fund (except that for civil works) should flow from DPO to BPO and then to the HM/PTA President of the school. Large delay running to many months noticed in the flow from DPO to BPO and from BPO to school.
- Large amounts given as commission charges should have been avoided.
- Government of Kerala ordered that from 2002-03, 25% of the plan funds allocated to local bodies should be transferred to SIS. Dues thus became eligible not ascertained by SIS.
- Diversion of SSA funds noticed.
- Lack of coordination between Director of Public Instructions and SPO in creating and maintaining a student-database in 2004.

Table 6 depicts the utilization levels of SSA as percentage of amount approved by the PAB.

TABLE 6

Utilization Levels of SSA Funds (as per cent of approval) over the Years, by Districts

District	*2002-03*	*2003-04*	*2004-05*	*2005-06*	*2006-07*	*2007-08*	*Total*
Thiruvananthapuram	24.5	55.64	60.59	60.65	61.03	97.79	63.26
Kollam	17.97	35.13	38.27	57.49	65.02	94.19	50.4
Pathanamthitta	59.29	62.24	63.19	62.44	70.98	75.03	66.74
Allappuzha	11.31	37.43	77	64.74	69.34	88.69	62.75
Kottayam	13.56	53.77	48.42	64	68.46	83.96	56.96
Idukki	60.01	51.75	51.67	63.22	45.57	69.8	56.71
Ernakulam	45.86	45.75	48.9	45.51	50.89	87.92	54.94
Thrissur	34.07	47.35	52.94	59.58	50.28	73.67	55.23
Palakkad	28.55	44.41	51.93	42.48	56	78.44	53.19
Malappuram	42.13	49.2	53.6	59.83	47.47	93.9	60.15
Kozhikode	42.52	61.42	56.43	56.85	53.37	89.18	61.66
Wayanad	34.82	61.31	75.07	69.81	67.95	87.32	70.39
Kannur	13.78	42.58	51.37	40.22	51.82	93.56	49.95
Kasargod	23.33	47.32	62.57	63.63	105.38	102.01	71.36
Kerala	29.25	48.57	55.23	56.3	58.68	87.75	58.51

Source: SSA Kerala Annual report, various years

In the year 2008-09, an amount of Rs. 1659.9 million has been spent against an outlay of Rs. 1886.1 million (annual report 2008-09, SSA Kerala). The State SSA has hitherto (upto 2008-09) utilized 63.76% (Rs. 6754.3 million) of the total outlay of Rs. 10593 million, approved for meeting the expenses related to the 18 SSA interventions. The Table 6 is quite revealing. All the DPOs spent at least half the approved amount. No DPO spent more than 75

per cent of the total funds approved by PAB till 2007-08, and half of the DPOs spent less than 60 per cent. The expenditure pattern for the initial years was too low for many districts. In 2002-03, three districts spent as low as less than 15 per cent. But the situation improved in later years. From the personal interaction with a few BRCs, it was clarified that for the initial year, especially for the districts where DPEP was implemented, there was confusion in the procedure and modalities for project proposal and expenditure at all levels.

However, on a conversation with the Head (HM) of certain schools in Kollam district, it transpired that they were fairly satisfied with the allocation of funds. Fund utilization would be full from the school side. However, the maintenance grant and the funds for civil works are normally being released by January – February months of the year. As all the works are to be completed before 31st March, and the funds are to be operated through the PEC only, there occurred considerable delay in the operation of these funds, especially since the civil construction costs are becoming prohibitively high and because the decisions on proposal and utilization of such funds would be, to a great extent, based on political considerations rather than social and pedagogic imperatives of the region.

Physical Achievements of SSA Interventions: District-Level Analysis

It is now worth examining whether the shortages in the fund utilization from that of the PAB's outlay, which was in fact, short of the amounts proposed, would really hamper the rate of physical achievement of SSA interventions. The intervention-wise average of physical achievement rate computed from the data provided in the various annual reports of SSA is presented in Table 7. For many interventions, the achievement rate is not shown, either because that intervention was not made in the district in that year, or because that intervention was not applicable in their case. The number of years (N) over which the averages were taken is also shown in the Table. This analysis is restricted to three districts, namely, Thiruvananthapuram, Kollam and Malapuram. The southern districts of Kerala are traditionally ahead of their northern counterparts, in education parameters like literacy, school attendance rate etc. Thiruvananthapuram and Kollam have been randomly selected from among the southern districts of Kerala. Malapuram is a northern district with the largest education system, and is reportedly leaping ahead in these respects from its earlier status of relative backwardness. This district is purposively selected for a comparative assessment.

As in the case of PAB's allocation levels (Table 2), the physical achievement was shown to be complete (100%) for many interventions, especially for the most crucial interventions in terms of the SSA mandates. The districts do not seem to be varying substantially with each other, in their physical achievement levels. Except for the intervention of civil works, these districts achieved more or less 90 per cent of what they targeted physically. And even for the civil works also the achievement level is not far short of targets. In fact, the year-wise physical achievement data showed that the physical achievements in civil works were lagging in the initial years, but it picked up tremendously as the project progressed.

TABLE 7

Physical Annual Achievements of SSA Interventions in the Selected Districts

Items	*Thiruvananthapuram*		*Kollam*		*Malapuram*	
Civil Works	N	Mean	N	Mean	N	Mean
Additional classrooms	5	82.07	7	82.58	7	67.91
Drinking water	5	78.04	7	79.82	2	80.83
Toilet	5	68.02	7	89.52	3	95.58
Electrification	6	98.51	7	99.2	5	98.78
Compound wall	4	87.99	5	98.7	1	100
Separation wall	3	83.51	3	77.06	1	100
Other buildings	4	92.8	5	16.8	2	95
Major repair	--	--	--	--	--	--
Alternate/ Innovative education (AIE/MGLC)	6	97.96	4	100	5	84.02
Free text books (FTB)	7	100.8	6	83.3	7	98.53
Innovative activities	--	--	--	--	--	--
Integrated education for disabled (IED)	1	100	3	100	1	27.89
School repair & maintenance grant	6	98.28	6	97.41	7	77.89
Research & Evaluation	2	100	2	100	2	100
School grant	7	105.21	7	95.02	7	99.19
Teacher grant	7	95.6	6	90.63	6	92.67
Training						
Teachers	6	86.32	7	94.91	6	75.81
Others	5	99.88	5	115.17	3	99.69
Remedial (SC/ST, Girls)	2	100	3	110.37	5	131.41
Community mobilisation	6	100	6	100	4	100
computer installation	4	100	6	100	4	100
Aids distributed	5	100	5	100	4	100
Other tools	2	100	2	100	1	100

However, it is doubtful whether these DPOs really meant these figures of physical achievement, as it was seen that they had shown the same number for both 'target' and 'achievement', as a matter of routine, for many of the interventions. May be, they did not have any previously fixed target of sorts, or they might have later contented with what they have attained, and hence have shown the same figures for target and achievement. But, in either case, it is very evident that they did not seem to have any serious and larger need perceptions in respect of these interventions.

Expenditure Pattern of SSA Funds and Efficiency in Achieving the SSA Goals

The question naturally arises whether one should be any more concerned about the financial achievement levels, or financial utilization levels, once they reported that they had attained sufficiently well what they wanted physically, in respect of these interventions. The next section of the paper largely addresses this issue. The question really relates to whether

the financial (cash) disbursements match the physical achievement levels. It should also to be ascertained if the rate of financial achievements has an intervention-bias. It was seen that effective physical achievement data was available only for 13 SSA-interventions. Therefore, those interventions were only sought to be compared. As the financial achievement rates are supposed to have a strong association with the physical achievement rate, analysis of co-variance was done to compare the financial achievement rates of the interventions, with physical achievement rate as the co-variate. But it was found that the financial achievement rate is not significantly dependent on the physical achievement rate (with a non-significant regression coefficient). The intervention-wise financial achievement rates were found to be varying significantly with each other ($F_{12,38} = 4.25$, $p < .01$), implying that some interventions did enjoy greater favour in the rate of expenditure of SSA funds. The mean value of the financial achievement rate, without adjusting for the variability in the physical achievement rates (as the regression was not significant) and the mean value of the physical achievement rate, corresponding to 13 interventions in Kerala is given in Table 8.

TABLE 8

Financial and Physical Achievement of SSA Interventions in Kerala, for 2002-03 to 2005-06[$]

Expenditure	*Achievement (%)*	
	Financial	*Physical*
BRC	39.58	100.0
CRC	38.32	97.03
AIE	36.62	92.62
Free text book	46.03	94.89
Innovative activities	56.88	100.0
IED	30.49	88.94
School repair, maintenance	79.15	81.52
MIS	43.74	100.0
Research & Evaluation	40.24	99.68
School grant	104.98	105.86
Teacher grant	81.34	83.71
Teacher training	22.69	88.92
Community mobilisation	61.16	80.88

Note: [$] The physical targets at state-level were not available for the period after 2005-06.
Source: SSA report 2007-08.

As already noted, the analysis of co-variance of the intervention-wise physical and financial data revealed that the financial achievement rate has hardly any influence on the physical achievement rate. This Table also rather corroborates this. Except for three items, namely, school grant, teacher grant and grant for repair and maintenance of school, all of which had very high (more than 80%) financial achievement rate, the high rate of physical achievement happened with relatively very low financial achievement levels. Expenditure for community mobilisation was also almost commensurate with the physical achievement level. For the other nine items, which included very crucial SSA interventions like AIE, IED, innovative activities, research and evaluation etc., the physical achievement was almost

complete with very low financial efficiency. It can be argued that, since the physical achievement rates are reportedly almost complete for almost all interventions, the financial outlay granted for the SSA interventions might be unduly high, and an amount to the tune of the already spent sum would be sufficient enough to achieve the desired goals. But, before delving into such conclusions, one should ensure the validity of the physical achievement figures reported by SSA.

TABLE 9

Amount Received by the DPOs in Kerala and Percentage of Expenditure on Goal-wise Interventions to Sum Total (over 7 years since 2002-03) of Receipts

DPO	*Amount (Rs '000)*	*% of State receipts*	*Goal 1-3*	*Goal 4*	*Infra-structure*	*Adminis-tration*	*Unspent fund*	*Interests*
Thiru'puram	668780.5	9.15	13.21	38.71	26.84	20.21	1.05	0.31
Kollam	524076.7	7.17	4.88	34.87	30.68	21.46	8.10	0.46
Alapuzha	439576.5	6.01	8.02	41.01	28.6	21.10	1.27	0.75
Pathanamthitta	304536.6	4.17	6.72	42.99	23.97	21.29	5.04	0.89
Kottayam	397720.5	5.44	12.9	43.33	18.06	20.17	5.54	0.65
Ernakulam	495180.0	6.77	6.48	44.26	22.83	21.45	4.99	0.40
Idukki	325509.9	4.45	11.43	37.29	17.09	15.04	19.15	0.88
Thrissur	541996.1	7.41	6.07	45.71	26.48	11.97	9.77	0.70
Kozhikode	722854.2	9.89	8.14	43.32	29.92	14.72	3.89	0.46
Palakad	570311.6	7.80	7.47	48.11	20.6	13.06	10.76	0.37
Malapuram	851297.4	11.64	6.94	44.08	31.16	13.21	4.61	0.40
Wayanad	303666.3	4.15	10.27	48.72	28.95	22.2	-10.14	0.62
Kannur	589341.7	8.06	6.58	45.30	29.99	17.35	0.79	0.45
Kasaragod	448432.4	6.13	8.94	35.75	27.46	16.91	10.95	0.53
(Other than DPOs)	128216.8	1.75						
(State)	7311497	100	7.5	41.2	24.5	18.15	8.65	0.76

Table 9 provides the data on the total receipts till 2008-09, to carry out the interventions (without considering the opening balance at the beginning of each year, except for 2002-03) in the State as a whole, and the DPOs in the districts. The audit report of the SPO and DPOs for the respective years was the source of these data. As indicated earlier, Malapuram district received the greatest share (11.64%) and the hilly districts of Wayanad (4.15%) and Idukki (4.45%), and the mid-land district of Pathanamthitta (4.17) claimed the least, among all the districts of Kerala. Normally, financial efficiency of a project is largely measured by the per cent utilisation of total allotted fund. Instead, we provide the per cent of amount that remained un-spent at the end of the year, out of the total SSA receipts. About nine per cent of the total receipt was left un-spent cumulatively by the State at the end of the year 2008-09. The share of un-spent amount varied widely between districts, with Wayanad spending fully, and the other hilly district of Idukki spending only about four-fifths of the total receipts. The districts of Thiruvananthapuram, Kollam and Malapuram spent about 98.95%, 91.9% and 95.3% of the total receipts respectively. The SSA had identified 18

interventions for the full attainment of its goals in time. However, a closer look at these interventions suggests that many of these are meant for achieving the goal of assured quality of education, and the other three main goals of SSA are to be achieved mainly by the interventions like AIE, IED and community mobilization. The remaining interventions meant either for administering the project activities, or for building infrastructural facilities of schools or higher levels of SSA set up. Thus, the whole interventions are classified into four categories as follows:

Category	*Interventions*
Goal 1-3:	AIE, IED, Community mobilization
Goal 4:	FTB, Innovative activity, R & E, Teacher grant, School grant, Remedial teaching, Quality improvement programme, Training, Training and Learning Equipments (TLE)
Administration:	MIS, computer installation, BRC, CRC
Infrastructure:	Civil works, maintenance grant

The expenditure under each intervention is classified accordingly and the trend of per cent of expenditure out of the total amount received by the DPO, under each category is also presented in Table 9, for all the districts.

The most catching point that could be drawn from the Table is that SSA, Kerala spent a huge amount (more than 42%) for infrastructure development and administration, even while these items serve a subsidiary cause of the project and, more important, the project was administered making use of the physical structure and human capital already available with the elementary educational system of the State. However, a few items of civil constructions like, additional class rooms, toilets etc., and the deployment of some trainers/ experts, MIS staff, operating staff (like drivers, personal assistants etc.) were indeed made, exclusively for the project. Kerala had a legacy of opening schools even during the colonial period, with heavy participation of private agencies. In 1947-48, that is, during the pre-State formation stage – the government had 55% share of the total schools in Kerala region (GoK 2004). A large body of the physical infrastructure was built and opened during the infancy of the state formation also. Though a major share of these buildings is very old, very few of them apparently need demolition and reconstruction. They however required repair and maintenance works regularly. But repair and maintenance incurred only about 8 per cent of total expenditure for infrastructure development under SSA, leaving the huge bulk of the total outlay for civil construction works that is made available for new constructions.

The child population in Kerala is fast declining, and there is little scope for a sudden surge in the school net-enrolment, it being already close to complete for many years now. Therefore, the per-child built-up space of pucca school buildings is on a steady rise in Kerala. Moreover, the average school catchment/coverage area in Kerala is reportedly fast shrinking. It could safely, therefore, be concluded that additional school buildings are least warranted in Kerala. Only about one-third of the schools are currently (2002-03) in the government sector, and whole SSA outlay for civil works is meant exclusively for government schools. Thus, while the government schools in Kerala demand little funds for the upkeep and maintenance works of their buildings, they are apparently flooded with SSA fund for civil works. A perusal of the audit reports reveals that the huge funds for civil works are spent mainly for very few items like building additional classrooms, toilets, compound/ separation walls etc. The fund for civil works could be utilised only through the respective

Panchayat Education Committee (PEC) where the decisions could be influenced by political considerations as well. A multi-tier decision making system will always buy time for its finalisation, and may even dampen the effective materialisation of the mandates.

However, recent years saw a spree of computerisation of office works, especially at higher levels of administration. An MIS wing is seen instituted at each DPOs and the SPO. But how much these could impact on the achievement of SSA goals is a serious question. Even the book-keeping at the lower levels of SSA (BRCs and lower) are not reportedly computerised, and it seems that the computers are seen used mainly for DTP works, especially for preparing the presentation slides and the mandatory reports, which are now brought out regularly and with all colour and pomp. Therefore, the huge SSA funds that are spent for the civil works and the administration works need a thorough scrutiny, especially in terms of the goals they are intended to achieve.

This Table also provides the share of un-spent fund and the interests out of the cumulative total funds that were received over these years. Wayanad is reportedly spending over and above its receipts. Thiruvananthapuram, followed by Alapuzha, is seen to be the best performer as far as the efficiency of utilisation of funds is considered. In all, only 8.65% of the funds remained un-spent over the years. Idukki, Kasaragod and Palakkad are the least efficient performers, in this respect. The State is estimated to have accumulated interest to the tune of 0.76% of the cumulative total receipts. Wayanad which was seen spending over and above the receipts is seen to have an accumulated interest-receipt at a relatively high level as 0.62%, which indicates that there occurred some instances of mismanagement, or that some errors have crept in the audit report for the district. Thiruvananthapuram district reported the least accumulation of interest, either because they were very efficient in the utilisation of funds, or, also because they used to spend the funds as soon as they were received. Palakkad is seen to be another district with less accrual of interests. As Palakkad is a district with fairly high rate of non-spending of the funds, this indicates that this district was, however, very keen to spend the funds that were cleared very quickly.

Financial Efficiency of SSA Funds

In this study, the financial efficiency is assessed mainly by two parameters - the fund that went un-utilised at the end of a year and the delay in spending the utilised funds. According to the SSA norms for fund-utilisation, the funds are to be spent within a period of not more than 15 days. However, neither the audit reports nor the SSA annual report clearly mentioned the date of receipt and the date of expenditure of a particular inflow of fund, enabling us to ascertain the delay in utilizing that fund. However, the amount accrued as interests for the un-spent balance at credit was available in the audit report. We feel that the interest amount as percentage of total receipts is a strong measure of the inefficiency of fund utilization – both in terms of the un-spent part of the fund at the end period and the delay in effecting the expenditure. To capture a disaggregate picture of the efficiency of fund utilization we provide district-wise information in two Tables 10 and 11, one for the fund un-spent and the other for the interests accrued every year, as percentage of the total receipts.

TABLE 10

Amount$ Left Un-spent at the End of each Year, as Percentage of Receipts

DPO	*2008-9*	*2007-8*	*2006-7*	*2005-6*	*2004-5*	*2003-4*	*2002-3*
Thiru.puram	2.47	0.36	0.88	9.08	12.04	20.22	23.52
Kollam	5.67	4.74	0.18	9.28	41.93	28.54	39.12
Alapuzha	1.9	7.5	2.54	15.08	5.6	24.5	73.72
Pathanamthitta	17.43	12.2	8.71	13.98	24.59	29.74	26.32
Kottayam	15.02	1.81	5.72	20.63	26.25	38.94	73.64
Ernakulam	17.64	14.45	4.79	8.89	22.56	14.29	19.52
Idukki	36.82	41.5	25.28	14.44	30.67	43.29	34.18
Thrissur	26.06	6.28	3.61	11.57	10.77	13.65	16.91
Kozhikode	4.87	8.57	2.81	8.49	10.76	26.32	38.96
Palakad	10.81	23.32	10.19	21.59	27.02	33.71	33.77
Malapuram	4.97	5.32	7.31	9.21	13.5	40.07	6.01
Wayanad	15.19	8.31	-15.3	-3.18	4.83	**	-33.43
Kannur	4.35	6.64	0.81	15.07	19.4	6.64	42.33
Kasaragod	26.35	2.44	5.51	12.23	27.72	21.95	47.83
(State)	16.05	14.18	8.22	21.26	28.59	33.81	33.23

Source : SSA audit reports, various years
Note: $: The opening balance was also accounted for
** : Data not available

The Table 9 made it clear that less than nine per cent of the total SSA fund remained un-utilised at the state level, when the opening balance amount was not accounted for among the accumulated receipts (over the years). But for year-wise analysis, the fund available at the beginning of the year, which was really the amount that accrued in the preceding year(s) but remained un-spent till then, was also included as a receipt. Table 10 gives the per cent share of the un-spent fund at the end of each year, by DPOs. The SSA allows the amount that remained un-spent at the end of a year to be carried over to the next year. Naturally, this fund is also open for expenditure in the succeeding years. This amount will figure in the opening balance for the next year. The general trend that emerges from the Table is that for the state, as a whole, and for most of the districts, the amount as the per cent of total annual receipts that went un-spent, was found to be getting fast declined till 2006-07, and has started gradually rising since then. While one-third of the total receipts remained un-spent in the initial years, it declined to less than 10 per cent by the year 2006-07 and started ascending to hover around 15 per cent in recent years. There is great inter-district variation in the expenditure pattern in terms of not only the total allocation but also the per cent of amount utilized. Thiruvananthapuram, Kollam, Alapuzha, Kozhikode, Malapuram and Kannur are seen to be better-performing districts, as regards the efficiency in utilization of SSA funds, though these districts also lagged much in the initial years. About 40 per cent of the total receipts remained un-utilised in Malapuram in 2003-04. But it started utilizing the fund quite magnificently from the next year onwards, and trend improved over the years. Thiruvananthapuram and Alapuzha took great care in utilizing almost fully the fund allotted,

in recent years. Kasaragod displayed again an inexplicable lethargy in utilizing SSA funds during the last year. Wayanad district is seen to be liberal in spending the funds. For many years, they spent much more than what they had been granted. It looks strange that in the years 2002-03 and 2006-07, the expenditure was seen to cross the receipts much far, and how they managed to settle the accounts for these years, is really intriguing.

TABLE 11

Amount (per cent of total receipts) Accrued as Interest$ at the End of Each Year, by Districts

DPO	*2008-9*	*2007-8*	*2006-7*	*2005-6*	*2004-5*	*2003-4*	*2002-3*
Thiru'puram	0.22	0.18	0.41	0.34	0.4	0.35	0.11
Kollam	0.22	0.15	0.37	0.75	0.66	0.64	0.15
Alapuzha	0.61	0.32	1.50	0.47	0.5	1.13	0.25
Pathanamthitta	0.49	0.56	0.66	0.82	1.28	1.02	0.84
Kottayam	0.21	0.19	0.71	0.07	1.57	1.1	0.28
Ernakulam	0.41	0.19	0.35	0.31	0.66	0.52	0
Idukki	0.67	0.81	0.75	0.66	0.97	0.92	0.18
Thrissur	0.74	0.67	0.86	0.64	0.48	0.99	0.08
Kozhikode	0.42	0.14	0.58	0.31	1.28	0	0.37
Palakad	0.3	0.25	0.41	0.3	0.58	0.26	0.12
Malapuram	0.25	0.17	0.43	0.47	1.03	0.26	0.07
Wayanad	0.36	0.45	0.95	0.86	0.68	1.02	**
Kannur	0.52	0.06	0.9	0.38	0.32	0.45	0.2
Kasaragod	0.44	0.43	0.63	0.68	0.39	0.59	0.01
(State)	0.44	0.37	1.14	0.81	0.81	0.8	0.46

Source and Note: (as in Table 10)

Though interest is an income, its accumulation points to the inefficiency in spending the funds. Interest is a function of the amount un-spent but is credited with the bank for the duration for which it remains un-withdrawn, and, of course, the rate of interest the bank offers. Thus, the amount of interest reflects both the volume of un-utilised amount and the delay in spending the fund – the two parameters considered in the study for financial efficiency. It is discernible from the Table 11 that the interest accrued varied greatly from district to district, and also from year to year. Generally, there occurred more delay during the period from the years 2003-04 to 2006-07. Receipt by way of interest was indeed a source of income for the DPOs and the SPO as well. For the State, as a whole, 2007-08 saw the least accrual of interest (0.37% of total receipts), but the year preceding it was the most beneficial as far as the interest receipts are concerned. The year 2005-06 closed with a heavy balance of un-spent fund (21.3%), though the succeeding year witnessed the least un-spent fund (8.22%) and the un-utilised fund was much higher in the preceding years. It could be safely regarded that there occurred un-usual delay in spending the funds also during 2006-07, making the interest receipts heavy. Alapuzha contributed heavily to the total interest receipts of the State during 2006-07. Recent years, however, witnessed good performance by almost DPOs, with the exception of Thrissur, Idukki and Alapuzha, since the interest amount accured was low during the years.

To capture a still more dilated view of the intervention-wise expenditure pattern we have collected the data on financial outlay and expenditure pattern of all the BRCs in one of the districts, namely, Kollam. The picture emerged from the district-wise analysis (Table 11), was sought to be cross-examined in this part. As no entry of receipt/ expenditure, other than that of the SSA interventions, was made in the statement of BRCs, here the percentage of expenditure under each category out of the total stated expenditure made, is worked out. A slight modification in the formation of category is made in the BRC-wise analysis, as items of expenditure in this case are seen to be slightly different. The average of percentage of category-wise expenditure is computed, over all the 12 BRCs from where data was collected.

TABLE 12

BRC-wise Analysis of Expenditure Share of Items that Catered to the various SSA Goals

	2008-9	*2007-8*	*2006-7*	*2005-6*	*2004-5*	*2003-4*
	Mean (over BRCs, N=12)					
Goal 1-3	6.82	10.86	14.08	11.11	12.45	5.16
Goal 4	64.22	58.72	65.76	69.71	71.11	70.51
Admn	10.13	12.32	12.94	11.48	7.51	6.56
Infra	18.59	17.93	7.21	7.7	8.65	17.7
Others	0.23	0.17	0	0	0.27	0.07
Interest	0.02	0	0	0	0	0
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100
	CV % (over BRCs, N=12)					
Goal 1-3	42.42	88.3	42.83	60.9	40.57	83.88
Goal 4	21.15	21.66	20.91	19.58	15.53	10.79
Admn	95.52	128.1	130.34	129.18	118.79	54.51
Infra	35.08	28.78	65.31	24.1	51.59	27.14
Others	285.67	339.62			237.67	303.92
Interest	252.98					

Source: Statements obtained from individual BRCs under DPO-Kollam

The Mean and CV(%) are presented in Table 12. The BRC-wise analysis revealed that, at the BRC-level, the share of allocation directly meant for the goals of SSA are seen to be larger, and the administration and infrastructure assumed lesser priority. This is true for almost all the years studied. The CV of administration expenses is found to be very large.

Conclusion

The school attendance rate of 6-14 year children is reported to be very high in Kerala, touching almost universality and the officially reported drop-out rate is negligibly low. Yet, the flagship project of the government of India called SSA was launched in the State also, despite the fact that this meant a substantial share of the rare resources of the State. This paper seeks to study largely the allocation and expenditure pattern of SSA funds by the districts of Kerala. It also attempted to ascertain if the shortages in allocation and utilization of the funds did hamper the attainment of SSA mandates. The paper argues that as the

reported physical achievement levels of the districts are high, the lower utilization level at the initial years, by itself, did not seem to be a serious deterrent in the success of the project. It therefore suggests that if at all it turns out that there still remain incidences of non-schooling, or education of poor quality, it is not due to the deficits in fund supply but to the deficits in imagination and will to pursue the purposes of the project. The expenditure pattern at the BRC level in the randomly chosen district of Kollam is suggestive that the overheads relating to administration and infrastructure build-up is considerably lower than that reported at the DPO level of the district.

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Research on Leadership Behaviour of Educational Administrators

— A Critical Review of Literature

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Abstract

This study focusses on the critical review of literature undertaken on Leadership Behaviour of educational administrators. Leadership is an "Influencing Process" where leaders motivate the members of an organisation to get their best efforts and achieve organisational objectives. They also create a shared vision and lead the organisation towards it, solving problems on the way and overcoming obstacles as and when they arise. In this study it has been found that a great deal of studies on leadership behaviour and its impact on institutional climate and such other variables has been conducted. However, there has been no study examining the effect of leadership on administrators' occupational efficacy, effect of perceived leadership style on work motivation and organizational commitment. So, attempts should be made to make up the deficiencies and fill up the existing gap in research in the areas related to Leadership Behaviour of educational administrators.

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Introduction

In educational institutions there is a vast amount of self-restraint, good sense, objectivity and rationality. Education takes place most effectively in an atmosphere of regard, respect and warmth. Leadership is required for the effective and efficient operation of the structure to achieve the ends. Similarly, each and every institution of society needs leadership more than anything else for it to make a mark. Shields (2004) recognized Educational Leadership as complex and challenging. Educational leaders are expected to develop learning communities, build the professional capacity of teachers, take advice from parents, engage in collaborative and consultative decision making, resolve conflicts, engage in educative instructional leadership and attend respectfully, immediately and appropriately to the needs and requests of families with diverse cultural, ethnic and socio-economic backgrounds. Increasingly educational leaders are faced with tremendous pressure to demonstrate that every child for whom they are responsible is achieving success.

Effective leadership behaviour creates inspiring and stimulating climate for the group so that they can enjoy a high level of morale and are motivated to receive new ideas and are always ready to venture into new goals. The behaviour of a leader is the inspiring force that begets healthy climate, high morale and motivation for the receptivity of new ideas for taking the organisation to higher and still higher plane. This is true in the context of educational institutions as well. An administrator is viewed from almost every quarter as being the leader of an institution. The education board has hired him/her to lead. The community holds him/her responsible if he/she does not lead. It is apparent that the question facing an administrator is not whether he/she must behave as a leader, rather it is a question of how shall he/she behave to be an effective leader. In short, an administrator is expected to possess all desirable qualities for leadership. At the same time he/she should also act as a friendly liaison officer between the organisation and the community. Thus, he/she is expected both to lead and to carry other activities as well. A great amount of credit goes to him/her when he/she is able to perform all these activities effectively and to take the institution on the path of progress. Furthermore, the effectiveness of education depends largely upon the effectiveness of a 'leader' who is a necessity in all complex educational institutions intent on the achievement of excellence. It has been rightly said that an effective administrator is a "Leader of Thoughts" whose job is to mobilize human minds and train on such healthy lines that may help to achieve the national goals. Therefore, a number of researches have been carried out on various parameters of Leadership Behaviour in respect of educational administrators. These are briefly presented as under:

- Leadership Behaviour of Educational Administrators.
- Leadership Effectiveness of Educational Administrators.
- Leadership Practice of Educational Administrators.
- Leadership Style of Educational Administrators.
- Effect of Leadership Behaviour on Organizational Climate and Job Satisfaction.

Leadership Behaviour of Educational Administrators

Researches conducted on the Leadership Behaviour of Educational Administrators include the studies of Dinesh (2010); Luechai (2008); Mills (2008); Hoo-Ballade (2005);

Brown, Howard, & Jannet (2007); Turner (2007); Graham (2007); Derrick (2007); Love (2007); Richard (2006); Guttenberg (2006); Harris, Brown & Abbott (2006); Ruff & Shoho (2005); Waters (2005); Dinham (2005); Wilson (2005); Johnson (2005); Geter (2005); Garner (2005); Thomas (2004); Siddiqui (1994); Shamir et al (1993); Verma (1989); Krishnaraj (1987); and Veearaghwan (1986). However, Anderson (2006); Stout (2005); Kelly (2004) presented a different approach of Leadership Behaviour of Educational Administrators.

Dinesh (2010) found aided schools head leadership behaviour better than the govt. school head leadership behaviour and unaided schools head leadership behaviour better than the govt. schools head leadership behaviour. Luechai (2008) found no significant difference on the basis of gender, school size, position within any aspect of leadership behaviour. Mills (2008); Stout (2005); Hoo-Ballade (2005) and Verma (1989) found no significant difference between leadership behaviour of male and female principals, between rural and urban principals' leadership behaviour patterns and between principals' gender and school achievement. Brown, Howard & Jannet (2007) found significant relationship between leadership behaviour and teachers' motivation.

Turner (2007) found that principals who have excited Program Improvement display specific leadership behaviours like establishing strong lines of communication, clear goals and having quality contact and interaction with teachers and students at high level. Principals of these schools have strong, consistent ideals in education with clearly articulated goals. They are communication facilitators for and with all stakeholders. Graham (2007) found that in more negative leadership schools, teachers commented about communication problems and minimal rewards. Derrick (2007) showed that male and female principals hold opposing priorities and task emphases and, therefore, principal's behaviour is often influenced by their gender. Love (2007) found that male principals are more effective in their leadership behaviour; Richard (2006) indicated that significant difference might be influenced by superintendents and board members years of experience as well as the gender of board members.

Guttenberg (2006) revealed that principals' leadership is highly idiosyncratic and determined by a combination of factors including a principal's personal and professional experiences, the context within which he/she leads, the school's socio-politico-historical context and school size. Harris, Brown & Abbott (2006) found that executive leadership is a powerful lever for change when it is able to mobilize and release leadership energy between and across schools. Ruff & Shoho (2005) demonstrated differing levels of integration as well as variation regarding the conceptualization of instructional leadership among the elementary school principals. Waters (2005) found no statistical significant difference between teachers' and principals' perceptions of principal leadership as measured on the PIMRS. Dinham (2005) found leadership as a key factor in the achievement of outstanding educational outcomes.

Wilson (2005) found a strong and significant relationship between principal's use of elements and the distribution of leadership throughout the school. Hoo-Ballade (2005) found statistically significant differences based on level of education for programme management and instructional goals on the Principal's Survey. The differences indicated that higher the degree held by the principal, the more frequently principal used those two leadership behaviours. Johnson (2005) found significant difference between how principals from various schools perceived themselves performing leadership behaviour for the

variables-communicate the school goals, monitor student progress, protect instructional time and provide incentives for learning.

Geter (2005) implied that Black Elementary School teachers were not as pleased with their principals' leadership in integrating technology into teaching. This indicated a need for principals to involve all stakeholders in decision-making and efforts that impact the schools' overall programmes and initiatives. Garner (2005) found a significant difference among elementary, middle, and high school teachers' perceptions of principals' leadership behaviours with regard to gender. Thomas (2004) found significant differences in perception of elementary teachers towards the twelve leadership behaviour components as measured by LBDQ. Siddiqui (1994) found leadership behaviour pattern and school performance of principals correlated. Shamir et al (1993) found that leaders behaviour activate self-concepts which in turn affect further motivational mechanisms of followers. Verma (1989) found that as far as the leadership behaviour of principals as perceived by teachers is concerned, the principals have been rated high on all dimensions as well as leadership as a whole. Further, no significant relationship exists between the leadership behaviour of principals with teaching experience and administrative experiences. Krishnaraj (1987) found that principals in autonomous and affiliated colleges differed in their decision making process. Veearaghwan (1986) found no significant difference in leadership adaptability which was significantly higher in high performance schools than in low performance schools.

With a different approach, Anderson (2006) found a negative relation between principal's perceptions of leadership behaviour and student achievement. Stout (2005) found a significant difference between leadership behaviour patterns and the percentage of full time students enrolled. Kelly (2004) showed no significant correlation between principal's leadership behaviour and student achievement and school climate.

Leadership Effectiveness of Educational Administrators

Studies conducted on Leadership Effectiveness were those of Bhat (2011), Ekundayo (2010), Victor (2009), Abdullah & Alzaidyein (2009), Adams and Gamage (2008), Banyard (2007), Mailot (2005), Jesus (2003), Kulsum (1999), Sudha (1997), Jones and Holdway (1996), Raut (1995). However, Don & David (2008), Nanda (1992) & Mahashabde (1990) presented a different approach of Effective Leadership.

Bhat (2011) found a significant difference between effective and ineffective educational administrators' Leadership Effectiveness. Ekundayo (2010) found that there is a positive relationship between leadership behaviour and effectiveness of principals of the secondary schools. It was further found that behaviour of the principals in the area covered was satisfactorily encouraging. Victor (2009) indicated that effective principals try to establish trust, create structures that promote principal-teachers communication and maintain a high level of moral values. Abdullah & Alzaidyein (2009) found that spirituality has an important role to play as an aide to leadership development as well as leadership effectiveness. Adams and Gamage (2008) found that the effects of gender, length of service, educational discipline did not have a substantial effect on head teachers' leadership effectiveness. Banyard (2007) revealed that there is a widespread support from the teachers for the performance of the principals as educational leaders and majority of teachers seemed to have a positive view of their principal's leadership effectiveness. Mailot (2005) found that the voluntary principals

exhibited behaviours and practices that are congruent with the research and literature on effective leadership. Jesus (2003) found a significant positive relationship between emotional competence and leadership effectiveness among Academic Deans. Kulsum (1999) found headmasters with higher initiating structure quality make them more effective. Sudha (1997) found that effective leaders/principals of govt/govt aided and private schools were administratively effective and managerially flexible. Jones & Holdway (1996) found that deans were having high leadership effectiveness and were found very effective in their work with respect to faculty-related activities. Raut (1995) observed that there existed a significant difference between the principals showing different levels of effective leadership in their perception of organisational effectiveness. Mahashabde (1990) found that the relationship between leadership effectiveness and teachers' morale was significant.

Contrary to these, Don & David (2008) found a significant difference between the self perceived leadership effectiveness of the head teachers and the leadership effectiveness perceived by the teachers; Nanda (1992) found that out of 30 heads of primary schools, only 10 were most effective leaders. Further, it was found that ineffective leaders show more considerate behaviour and less initiating behaviour. Mahashabde (1990) found that relationship between leadership effectiveness and institutional climate, job satisfaction of teachers and students' academic achievement was not significant.

Leadership Practice of Educational Administrators

Researches conducted on Leadership Practices of Educational Administrators include the studies of Jonathan & Henry (2009), Meyers (2008), Braun (2008), Murphy & Seashore Louis (2008), Karney (2007), Provost (2007), Rowe (2007), McWilliam (2007), Meier (2007), Heiken (2007), Littleford (2007), Siemens (2007), Barrett (2007), Kosner (2006), Anderson (2006), Barrenger (2006), Banks (2006), Jacobson et al (2005), Day et al (2001), Yadav (1996), Pounder, Ogawa & Adams (1995) and Naik (1982).

Jonathan & Henry (2009) indicated the importance of principal work for student learning because of their indirect influence on teachers' practices through the fostering of collaboration and communication around instruction. Meyers (2008) found that principals that did not attend the workshops and smalled faculties had a greater measure of success in two of the dimensions of professional learning community. Braun (2008) found a significant positive relationship between the essential preparation practices and the leadership behaviour for deep change, the school learning environment and student achievement. Murphy & Seashore Louis (2008) identified a shift in the organizational structure in schools, illustrating that principals should be able to work with others to implant the vision into the structures and processes of the school, they should be able to communicate the vision of the staff of what their schools should become. Karney (2007) demonstrated a significant relationship between student outcomes and administrative support, leadership for community collaboration and leadership for school improvements.

Study conducted by Provost (2007) found that based upon the principal's perspectives, it seems likely that the group of principals will continue to refine the teaching and learning processes at their schools to attain higher levels of student achievement, but they are not likely to initiate radical transformations of their school's culture; Rowe (2007) concluded that the practices and actions facilitating implementation of school wide differentiated instruction are within the purview of all educational leaders. McWilliam (2007) found that

principals developed shared instructional decision making, ideals and beliefs about students achievement with their teachers; monitored the instructional programme frequently, provided time for teachers to make collaborative data driven decisions, created multiple opportunities for students to receive additional instructions, maintained continuous positive communication with teachers and fostered strong working relationships between teachers. Principals worked to expand teacher's instructional capacity and excellence. Meier (2007) indicated that teachers perceived principals with more experience exhibit leadership behaviour practices more frequently than do principals with less experience.

Heiken (2007) found that school leaders demonstrated fairly high level of emotional intelligence and found a modest positive relationship between emotional intelligence and practice of leadership. Littleford (2007) found that teachers' perception was for principals to self-evaluate their leadership strategies and style. Siemens (2007) found leadership practice most forecast was challenging the process and least forecast was encouraging others. Barrett (2007) indicated that junior high school principals relied on their professional judgement to interpret and enact the district requirement in their local school context. They were supportive of this expectation and used information from their direct and regular presence in classrooms to inform other aspects of leadership practices.

Kosner (2006) revealed that principal's leadership strategies provided a nurturing, non-threatening environment where the school's stakeholders were allowed to participate in the school improvement planning process. Anderson (2006) found that principals of large schools reported more involvement in institutional leadership management behaviours. Barrenger (2006) found that regarding leadership practices, administrators from both schools maintain a visible presence with their staff, students and community, support and recognize students, teachers, staff and administrators. Banks (2006) demonstrated that principals had a strong sense of purpose and unrelenting passion for unleashing the power of learning among the students.

Jacobson et al (2005) found principals shared some common characteristics: most notably all demonstrated facility with the core leadership practices of direction setting, developing people and redesigning the organization; Day et al (2001) found that principals addressing clear set of goals and communicate personal and educational value are good leaders. It was also revealed that good leaders must possess the following qualities like respect for others, fairness and equality, caring for the well-being and whole development of students and staff, integrity and honesty.

Yadav (1996) found that the principals who have more concern for the task, their student achievement is very significant. It was found that the principals showing more concern for task enthuse the teachers to make more interest in teaching. The students perceiving study under such principals feel more motivated and secure better results. Pounder, Ogawa & Adams (1995) identified that principals play critical role in recruiting, developing and retaining teachers, and also in creating a learning environment within the school. Naik (1982) has found a significant and positive relationship between building facilities, evaluation of students, supervisory and colleague relations. Also integration was significantly related to material and equipment, special services and supervisory relations.

Leadership Style of Educational Administrators

Researches conducted on Leadership Style of educational administrators include the studies of Runhaar & Sanders (2010), Jayasingam (2009), Abgoli (2008), Mills (2008), Giri & Santra (2008), Griffin, (2007), Neal (2007), Elliot (2007), Renehan (2007), Jones & Rudd (2007), Chen (2007), Somech & Wenderow (2006), Miller (2006), Leithwood and Jantzi (2006), Ross & Grey (2006), Barnett et. al (2004), Lagomarsino & Cardona (2003), Mehrotra (2002), Neelima (2002), Panday (1985), James (1996), Nagarajan (1998) Leithwood et. al (1998), Beer(1996), Lee (1996), Rashmi (1993), Hallinger (1992), Urmila (1992), Sergiovanni (1990), Eagly & Johnson (1990), Deluge (1988), Virmani (1984), Patel (1983); Panday (1985); Singh (1985) & Nasreen (1986), Shukla (1981), Wager (1965), however, Sancer (2009) presented a different approach of it.

Runhaar & Sanders (2010) found positive relationship between occupational self-efficacy and transformational leadership. Jayasingam (2009) found autocratic power to have a negative influence on leadership effectiveness. Abgoli (2008) found that headmasters adhered more to transformational leadership style followed by transactional one. It was also found that headmasters' leadership style was not significantly related with their demographic variables such as gender, age, educational qualification, subject and experience. Mills (2008) found significant positive correlation between transformational leadership and school achievement. Giri & Santra (2008) revealed that transformational and transactional leaders have positive and significant relationship with the employees' satisfaction, productivity and organizational effectiveness as against laissez-faire leadership that is negatively related to these factors. Griffin (2007) revealed that a large percentage of the African American Women used transformational leadership and believed it to be a positive leadership style to promote teacher empowerment, teacher buy-in, and teacher ownership for the school.

Neal (2007) found that leadership styles exhibited by principals in working with their school communities during and after a school crisis differed tremendously; each was unique in their response to the crises situation. Elliot (2007) revealed that principal leadership resonated with transformational and authentic leadership models, although discrepancies existed between principal's perceived theories action and their theories-in-use as perceived by teachers. Also it was found that leadership was so co-constructed adaptively as an active process of sense making between leaders and followers as participants responded day by day to organizational and individual contingencies. Renehan (2007) observed a relationship between transformation leadership and happiness as well as servant leadership and a relationship between the demographics of school type and leadership style and demographics of staff size and happiness. Jones & Rudd (2007) found that academic programme leaders in college of agricultural and life sciences tend to use transformational leadership more often than transactional or laissez-faire leadership. Heads were depicting transformational leadership style more often. It was also found that males more often show transformational as well as transactional leadership behaviour than their female counter-parts. Chen (2007) found that principal's collaborative working style with teacher leaders seems to have positive impact on student achievement. Somech & Wenderow (2006) suggested that participative and directive leadership styles were both positively associated with the teachers' performance, however, the impact of directive leadership on teachers'

perception was contingent in nature, whereas the positive effect of participative leadership on teachers' performance was above and across specified studied conditions.

Miller (2006) found no significant differences between principals serving in schools that met Adequate Yearly Program (AYP) and principals in schools identified as being improvement after not having met AYP targets of the No Child Behind Federal Act. Leithwood and Jantzi (2006) found that the transformational leadership style of principals significantly affects the teachers' classroom practices but not students' achievement. It was also revealed that motivation, capacity and work settings act as mediating variables between transformational leadership and teachers' classroom practices. Ross & Gray (2006) found that schools with higher levels of transformational leadership had higher collective teacher efficacy, greater teacher commitment to school mission, school community, and school-community partnerships, and higher student achievement. Further, it was also found that transformational leadership has strong effect on the teachers' job satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour. Barnett et. al. (2004) suggested that teachers' perception of satisfaction with leadership is significantly related to the leadership style as exercised by their principals. Laissez-faire leadership indicated a negative relation with satisfaction. Lagomarsino & Cardona (2003) found that transactional leadership increases the followers' continuance commitment and decreases their growth commitment, whereas transformational leadership behaviour increases followers' growth commitment and normative commitment. Mehrotra (2002) and Neelima (2002) found that principals of govt and private schools manifest different leadership styles, the majority of the govt. school principals had low initiation-high consideration style, while majority of private school principals had a unique high initiation-high consideration pattern. Further, Mehrotra (2002) found no significant difference between the leadership style of govt and private school principals but Panday (1985) found a significant difference between the leadership of rural and urban principals. James (1999) concluded that schools having principals' changes had greater use and more students who were new to the district, to school, economically disadvantaged and minority.

Nagarajan (1998) found that in Arts and Science colleges autonomy has resulted in promoting only Human Consideration aspect of leadership behaviour and not of Initiating Structure. Leithwood et. al. (1998) found that transformational leaders may challenge teachers to examine their assumptions about their work and rethink instructional processes; they may also establish expectations for quality pedagogy and support teachers' professional growth. Beer (1996) found a significant two-way interaction for teacher experience and leadership style. Less experienced teachers rated principals' performance lower than did more experienced teachers. Lee (1996) found that both consideration and initiating dimensions of leadership style of the principals correlated significantly with their need for achievement. Rashmi (1993) found that school principals resort to either task or relationship or balance of both in their styles of behaviour management. They behave in accordance with the demands of situation. Hallinger (1992) found that to improve organizational performance, transformational school leaders' focus on the individual and collective understanding, skills and commitment of teachers. Urmila (1992) found that male teachers were higher on the consideration dimension of leadership behaviour of principals. Sergiovanni (1990) found school principals particularly in "effective" or "innovative" K-12 schools as transformational leaders. It was also found that practicing value and value-added leadership based on transformational leadership principals together provide the bridge

between helping teachers and students meet basic expectations and achieving levels of performance and commitment that are extraordinary. Eagly & Johnson (1990) reported that women tend to use more participative and inclusive style while men tend to use a more directive and controlling style. This indicates that women tend to use more transformational styles while men use transactional styles. Deluge (1988) also stated that transformational leadership was more closely associated with the employee satisfaction. For promoting organizational productivity, transformational leadership was found to be more effective in influencing employees' behaviour. Virmani (1984) found style flexibility of head of schools related to pass percentage of students and to his own intelligence and creativity but found that the basic leadership style of school heads were not related to students pass percentages; Patel (1983); Panday (1985); Singh (1985) & Nasreen (1986) found positive relationship between initiative structure and consideration style of leadership behaviour, teachers' self-concept and teachers job satisfaction. Significant mean difference were found between leaders' self-perception and faculty perception of his actual leadership behaviour. Shukla (1981) found the consideration style of leadership more dominant in the administrative behaviour of the educational leaders at the district level. Further, Initiative Structure and Consideration styles of educational leadership emerged significantly correlated with teacher's morale. Wager (1965) found a significant relationship between leadership style along initiating structure and the need for power. It was also found that principals were high in both initiating structure and consideration leadership dimensions. However, no significant relationship was found between leadership style and the need for affiliation.

With a different approach Sancer (2009) found no significant relationship between school principal's perceived 'initiation of structure' behaviour and expressed teacher's job satisfaction level.

Effect of Leadership Behaviour on Organizational Climate and Job Satisfaction

Studies conducted on the effect of Leadership Behaviour of Educational Administrators on Organizational Climate and Job Satisfaction include those of Robert (2010), Rowland (2008), Rad et. al. (2008), Biswas (2008), Camp (2007), Emery & Baker (2007), Rad & Yarmohammadian (2006), Nguni et al (2006), Koopman (2006), Lee (2005), Khaled (2005), Mishra (2005), Asbill (1994), Nasreen (1986), Al-Shuwairekh (2005), Appalwar, Rao (1995), Bechtold (2004), Chen & Silverthorne (2004), Peter & Jhon (2004), Hines (2004), Kelly (2004), Kim (2002), Bogler (2001), Shamir et al (1993), Jayajothi (1992), Knoop (1982). However King Betty (2006), Singh (2004), Nongrum (1992) and Sharma (1982) presented a different approach of it.

Robert (2010) demonstrated that 'Superintendent Leadership Practices' is an important factor in the job satisfaction and efficacy of their principals. Superintendents who take steps to improve their leadership may help alleviate pressure on principals and increase the likelihood of getting and retaining good principals in the future. Rowland (2008) revealed that principal's daily behaviour plays a vital role in the environment of the school. Rad et. al. (2008) found that job satisfaction and leadership style were positively and significantly correlated. It was also found that job satisfaction was correlated with several factors like process of leadership, motivating factors, communication, process of decision making and

characteristics of the control process. But the best predictors of job satisfaction were found to be leadership and communication. Biswas (2008) found that psychological climate and transformational leadership style was significantly correlated with job satisfaction. Camp (2007) showed that principals created a positive environment in the school, modelling enthusiasm for the vision, focussing on the best for students and supporting the staff. Together the principal and teacher leaders developed an exemplary programme where technology is used effectively to enhance teaching and learning. Emery & Baker (2007) found that transformational factors of charisma, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration were more highly correlated with job satisfaction. Rad & Yarmohammadian (2006) found that participative leadership as the dominant style. It was also demonstrated that employees found less satisfaction with salaries, benefits, work conditions, promotion and communication and more satisfaction with factors such as the nature of the job, co-workers and supervision type factors. It was further revealed that leadership behaviour and employees job satisfaction were significantly correlated. Nguni et al (2006) found job satisfaction to be a mediator of the effects of transformational leadership on teachers' organizational commitment. Further, transformational leadership was found to have an add-on effect to transactional leadership in prediction of the organizational commitment, job satisfaction and organizational citizenship behaviour.

Koopman (2006) found that positive relationship existed between restrictive principal behaviour and the number of principals for which a teacher has worked and a negative relationship was found for the directive school climate. Lee (2005) found that the style of transformational leadership has significant and positive effects on job satisfaction and school commitment among Taiwanese secondary school teachers. Khaled (2005) found that there is significant positive correlation between the two dimensions of leadership behaviour (consideration and initiating structure) with job satisfaction. Therefore, the greater the degree of perceived consideration and initiating structure behaviours in managers, the higher the degree of extrinsic, intrinsic and general job satisfaction reported by the staff. Mishra (2005) Asbill (1994) & Nasreen (1986) found that leadership behaviour is positively related to teachers' job satisfaction. High desirable leadership behaviour of the principals generated a higher degree of conformity and normalcy in the teachers and vice versa. Al-Shuwairekh (2005) indicated that initiating structure and consideration of leadership style were significantly related with the level of job satisfaction. Therefore, the greater the degree of perceived consideration and initiating structure behaviours in the managers, the higher the degree of extrinsic, intrinsic and general job satisfaction reported by the staff members. Mishra (2005) and Appalwar, Rao (1995) found that leadership behaviour of headmasters influenced the organisational climate of schools in a significant way. Bechtold (2004) found that the primary basis for employee satisfaction and loyalty to leaders is 'Trust'.

Chen & Silverthorne (2004) found that the higher the leader's leadership score, the more effective is the leader's influence. However, the leadership score did not predict employees' job satisfaction. Peter & Jhon (2004) found that innovative and supportive culture, and a consideration leadership styles, had positive effects on both job satisfaction and commitment. Hines (2004) reported that school location promotes a distinct but potentially complementary approach to understanding the effect of school context influence on principal decision making. Kelly (2004) found significant positive relationship between principal's leadership behaviour and school climate. Kim (2002) found that managers' use of a participative management style and employees' perception of participative strategic

planning processes are positively associated with high levels of job satisfaction. Bogler (2001) proclaimed that principal's transformational leadership style affected teacher's satisfaction and motivation directly and indirectly through their occupation perceptions. He further enunciated that the more the teachers perceive their occupation in terms of a profession, the more they perceive their school principal to be transformational leader, the more they perceive their principals as participative, and the less they exhibited transformational leadership, the greaten is their job satisfaction. He also asserted that principals' transactional leadership style affected teachers' satisfaction negatively. Shamir et. al. (1993) found that the subordinates' perception of their supervisor's leadership style is positively related to their job satisfaction, work motivation and job performance. Jayajothi (1992) found that the open climate related best to the perception of leadership behaviour of principals by the teachers. Knoop (1982) found that work values did not seem to moderate the relationship between leaders' behaviour and satisfaction of subordinates. Instead, both leader's dimensions and the moderators influenced satisfaction with job and with supervision directly.

With a different approach King Betty (2006) found no significant difference for principals, superiors, teachers, parents and community representatives in the use of structural, human resources, political and symbolic frames for the schools making adequate progress or for the schools at risk. Singh (2004) found no significant relationship between leadership behaviour of secondary school principals and school management climate. Jayojothi (1992) found that leadership behaviour of principals differed with organisational climate. Nongrum (1992) found that the leadership characteristics of principals appeared to be associated with teachers' job satisfaction, the govt. school teachers showing significantly more satisfaction. Sharma (1982) found a significant difference between the different types of school climate and leadership behaviour. A significant difference was found among open, controlled, familiar and parental type of school climate of the leadership behaviour.

Critical Summary

There is a good deal of empirical research that has been carried out on Leadership Behaviour of Educational Administrators. Most of these studies have been carried out abroad. Generally these studies are doctoral dissertations while others are project reports.

The variables that have been studied through these researches are Leadership Behaviour, Leadership Practices, Leadership Effectiveness, Distributed Leadership, Instrumental Leadership Behaviour, Transformational Leadership, Instructional Leadership Practices, Leadership Styles, Leadership Skills, Leadership Characteristics, etc. These studies are largely descriptive in nature using ex-post facto method, case study method, causal-comparative research design and correlational methods. Few studies have used phenomenological research method while some are ethnographic studies. The sampling procedures used in most of the studies appear to be good. The generalizations are based on well acceptable sample sizes, some of which are randomly drawn using systematic, stratified or multistage techniques and others are drawn through quota or purposive sampling techniques.

In almost all these studies, the most frequently used instrument includes the Leadership Behaviour Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) of Halpine and Winer, Leadership Behaviour Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) of Halpine and Croft, Leadership Behaviour Scale of

Stogdill, Leadership Practices Inventory of Kouzes and Posner, Leadership Behaviour Inventory of Boleman and Deal and Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire. However, in some studies, the following tools have been administered by the researchers: Modified Version of Leadership Effectiveness and Adaptability Description Questionnaire (LEAD) of Hersey & Blancheird, Leadership Behaviour Description Questionnaire of E.A. Fleishman, Boleman and Deal's Leadership Orientation (Self) Survey. The researchers in a few cases have also developed their own questionnaires; however, there is very little added in the form of standardised instruments to the already existing resource base. Researchers have also used various other data gathering devices like Interviews (Face-to-Face, Structured & unstructured, Individual Interviews), Field Observations, Document Analysis, Field Notes, Focus Groups and Discussions.

The data in most of these studies have been analysed by applying ANOVA, MANOVA, 't'-test, correlation, Percentage and Chi-Square while in few cases Aitken's Pivotal Condensation method, Range, Scheffe Multiple Comparison & Krushal Wallis Non-parametric Independent Group Comparison, Multiple Regression Analysis, Linear Regression Analysis and Duncan's Multiple Range Test are used.

The reviewed studies show that a great deal of researches on Leadership Behaviour and its impact on institutional climate and other such variables has been conducted. Leadership Behaviour, which has been found as a key factor in the achievement of outstanding educational outcomes influences the organizational climate of an institution in a significant way. These studies clearly demonstrate that administrators as effective leaders are those who possess certain qualities like trust, communicating clear goals and vision, high level of moral values, respect for their colleagues and staff members, caring, participative and inclusive in working style etc. The role of an administrator is to increase the organizational effectiveness as well as staff's morale.

Studies have also found that Leadership Behaviour of administrators has direct impact upon an institution and its functioning which builds up its positive climate. The above stated studies also focused on the role of effective administrator or their leadership qualities, leadership style and effectiveness in schools or other organizations. With respect to gender, studies have found that men tend to use a more directive and controlling style and women tend to use more transformational, participative and inclusive style, whereas in few studies researchers argued that the leadership style of school principal does not have any impact on students' achievement, but studies have shown that there is an indirect relationship between transformational leadership practices and students' overall achievement in the school.

Further on the basis of these studies, we can say that principals' leadership style and teachers' job satisfaction are the two important components which determine the organizational effectiveness to a greater extent. While exploring the leadership style most of the studies have emphasised on participative leadership style which was found to be positively correlated with teachers' performance. In contrast to this authoritarian leadership was found to be least effective in terms of output as well as satisfaction. These studies have been conducted in different organizations and schools. Most of them are based on qualitative as well as quantitative techniques. However, very few Indian studies have explored transformational and transactional leadership specifically in relation to job satisfaction. They have either focused on democratic/autocratic/laissez-faire or on situational approach. There is also lack of such studies which have investigated this phenomenon especially in school organization. The importance of transformational and transactional leadership and

job satisfaction has been explored mostly in international studies. Thus, there is a great need to explore such studies in Indian educational settings as well.

Again the studies reviewed have suggested that transformational leadership augments transactional leadership in producing greater amount of performance, outcomes and leads to increased work motivation. Some of the studies have also explained that transformational leadership also influences the organizational commitment of teachers. There exists a positive relationship between perceived leadership and motivation and also perceived leadership and organizational commitment. There have been quite a lot of studies of the schools examining the effect of perceived leadership styles on teachers' outcomes, students' outcomes etc. However, the researcher/authors have not come across any study examining the effect of perceived leadership styles on work motivation and organizational commitment. Also there has been no study investigating the effect of discipline and designation on the perceived leadership style. Very few studies have explored the relationship of demographic or personal variables like age, marital status, educational qualification etc with perceived leadership styles. Since leadership is the act of influencing people, it is important to take subordinates' perspectives into account, that is, how do the subordinates perceive their heads and how does it effect their motivation, performance, outcomes etc? Again a very critical area here has been left out focusing on the counselling and training of the leaders to help them become effective and to change their lifestyles if they are not conducive to the functioning of the institution.

Thus, it can be concluded that the scope of research is unlimited and beyond boundary of imagination. The findings and conclusions of various investigations and researches indicate that there are certain spheres that have remained unexplored. So, attempts should be made to make up the deficiencies and fill up the existing gap in research in the areas related to leadership behaviour of educational administrators.

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RESEARCH ABSTRACT

Cost and Efficiency Analysis of Professional Higher Education in Rajasthan

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Introduction

Education involves a process of learning. Broadly speaking, it covers the whole process of development through which a man passes from infancy to maturity. Gradually, he learns about it. He gets educated. Thus, the purpose of education is to lead from darkness (ignorance) to light (knowledge).

Planning of education as a facet of economic growth was one of the important policy objectives which received particular emphasis in many countries from the beginning of the sixties of the twentieth century. Till late fifties, physical capital was considered as the key button which could set in motion the economic process which would result in raising the future output. Although the demand for education was strong and the spread of education was thought to be an index of social advance, most governments had as yet no specific conception of the relation between education and economic development.

Thus, the economic aspect of education had not been creditably seen as important in the development process for many years. Concern for education by economists started about three decades ago when series of empirical studies carried out on the nature and causes of economic growth over a long historical period in highly developed countries.

Ours is the labour-abundant economy where there is higher labour intensity in almost all economic activities. So, India's economic development largely depends on the quality of labour force. To enrich the qualitative aspect of labour force, education and training programmes are absolutely essential so that the productivity of labour can be increased. The question that immediately comes in the mind of a researcher is: What should be the different working lines in the sphere of Professional higher education to increase the labour education to increase the labour-productivity. In this age of planning whether the country is capitalistic or socialistic, and whether democratic or non-democratic, the unique feature of these economies is the adoption of planning in organizing all the economic activities. Our country having the mixed framework of economy cannot be put away from the above said fact. Evidently, educational planning has become much essential. While formulating the plans for education sector the most emphatic and considerable point is: how should the education resources be inverted on efficient lines?

The six objectives of this study are as under:

1. To estimate the total and unit institutional costs in government and private professional colleges at degree and postgraduate levels in the faculties of medical, engineering, management, computer application and education.
2. To identify and analyse the various determinants of education and thereby estimate the total and unit institutional cost functions.
3. To identify and analyse the various determinants of private cost and thereby estimate the private educational expenditure function.
4. To estimate and analyse the institutional cost differentials by decomposing them into scale and efficiency effects.
5. To identify the determinants of educational output and their quantities' influence and thereby estimate the educational production function.
6. To study the efficiency for professional higher education and its determinants by estimating the physical wastage and monetary wastage rates and effective cost.

Research Methodology

This study is based on primary data as well as secondary data. This is a cross-section study. It is cross-section data based study as far the analysis of institutional cost, production and enrollment is concerned. It is a cross-section primary data based study for the analysis of private cost and enrollment choice behaviour.

The secondary data about enrollment, examination result of students and number of teachers for the session 2005-06 was collected from the office records, and annual reports of the colleges. Similarly, the data about the income and expenditure for the same period have been collected from the annual income-expenditure statements of the colleges.

To estimate the private cost of education, to study the socio-economic profile of students and the enrollment choice behaviour, primary data have been collected for the academic session 2005-06 through the administration of schedules, applied on the sampled resident and non-resident students separately.

All the colleges of professional higher education in Rajasthan were stratified into four groups on the basis of their management. These four groups are government postgraduate colleges, government degree colleges, private postgraduate colleges and private degree colleges.

In order to take a representative sample from each stratum, a purposive type of sample of colleges was drawn by considering the fields of education, medical, engineering, management and computer science.

The Students enrolled in the sampled colleges were also stratified on the basis of their residential pattern as residents who are living with parents and non-residents who are living in the rental rooms A 10% and 20% sample has been attempted at degree and postgraduate levels respectively in case of hostellers, residents and non-residents separately.

The simple random sampling was used for the sample of students at degree and postgraduate levels from the government and private colleges. A Separate list was prepared for class-wise resident and non-resident students and then 10% of the enrolled students in the academic session 2005-06 were selected in degree colleges and for the degree level in postgraduate colleges.

In postgraduate colleges, all the postgraduate subject departments were treated as one and a sample of 20% of the enrolled students has been taken for hosteller, resident and non-resident categories of students.

Plan of Study

The present study analyses the production, cost and efficiency in colleges of Professional higher education in Rajasthan. After discussing the role of human capital formation in the economic development of a country and trends of enrollment and number of colleges have been estimated in chapter 1.

Chapter-2 describes the mythology and concepts used in the study. Econometric analyses of educational cost, production and efficiency has been highlighted.

Chapter-3, components of educational cost have been discussed. Inside and out-side determinants of institutional cost of education have been analyzed. Activity based and input based approaches have been discussed for the estimation of total and unit institutional costs.

This chapter analyses the total and unit institutional costs and components of unit institutional cost by estimating the linear, quadratic and exponential form.

The econometric analysis of institutional cost has been given in Chapter-4. Under the size-cost relation approach, total and unit cost functions have been discussed and estimated in linear, log-linear, quadratic forms. Similarly, under the determinants of cost approach, total and unit cost functions have been discussed and estimated in additive and multiplicative models. This chapter also estimates and analyses the decomposition of cost differentials into scale and efficiency effects.

The empirical analysis of the private cost of education is the subject-matter of Chapter-5. Determinants of private cost of education have been discussed. Class-wise and level-wise unit private costs have been estimated. Effects of institutional, innate, peer and family characteristics on private educational expenditure have been analyzed by estimating the private educational expenditure functions. This chapter also analyses the total unit cost of Professional higher education as the sum of unit institutional and unit private costs.

In Chapter-6, the concept and measurement of educational output have been analyzed. Various determinants of educational output have been discussed in the framework of production function. Qualitative and quantitative output rates have been estimated. Educational production functions have been estimated in linear and log-linear forms to identify the determinants of educational output.

The concept and aspects of educational efficiency have been discussed in Chapter–7, under the physical and monetary criteria. Physical wastage and monetary wastage rates and effective cost have been estimated to study the internal productive efficiency in education.

Finally, in Chapter-8, main findings of the study have been summarized and policy implications are stated with some suggestive measures.

Main Conclusions

1. It has been observed that students had shifted themselves from formal education to professional education and thus demand for professional education had increased.
2. Total unit cost was more for non-residents than hostellers and residents in government as well as private colleges.
3. Total unit cost had been found more in Government degree & P.G. colleges than in private degree & P.G. colleges for different faculties.
4. Total institutional cost had increased more in Government colleges than in private colleges.
5. Class-wise as well as level-wise unit private costs had been found more for non-resident students than hostellers and residents in both the types of colleges.
6. Unit private costs for non-residents and hostellers had been observed more in both types of colleges.
    i) In case of faculty of education in private colleges aggregate drop-out is found to be high in U.G. level than in P.G. level.
    ii) In case of medical science, drop-out rate is higher in government colleges at P.G. level than at degree level.

iii) Low drop-out rate in government engineering colleges at P.G. level in comparison of U.G. level.

iv) Results show that in case of private education, the repeater rate is higher in comparison of the government education colleges.

v) The repeater rate of the government colleges of management is higher in comparison with the private colleges of management.

vi) Repeater rate is much more at P.G. level in medical science

vii) In case of faculty of education, management & computer application, comparative results show that effective cost is higher in government colleges than in private colleges, so private college are more efficient on the basis of average effective cost.

viii) In case of post-graduate engineering, on the basis of average effective cost civil engineering is more efficient.

ix) In education colleges, government colleges have shown lower aggregate monetary wastage rate than private colleges, so government colleges are more efficient.

x) In case of computer application on the basis of low monetary wastage rate, government colleges are more efficient than private colleges.

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Book Reviews

Sucha Singh GILL, Sukhwinder SINGH and Jaswinder Singh BRAR (2010): **Globalisation and Indian State: Education, Health and Agricultural Extension Services in Punjab**. Aakar Publications, Delhi, ISBN: 978-93-5002-034-0. Pages: 135. Price: ₹ 325/-

The social sector, particularly education and health, has been in the crisis in the process of globalisation. Despite the fact that the provision of primary education and primary health care is the responsibility of the state, the role of the state has been gradually reduced in these sectors on account of the dominance of the market mechanism in the economy during globalization period. Consequently, the private sector entered into the social sector in a big way as the government funding in these sectors is quite inadequate to meet the demand of these sectors. Since there are lots of variations in the status of development of Indian states, the Government is faced with the real challenge to formulate appropriate policy to protect the interest of the states and the country as whole in the process of globalisation. In this context, the less developed states, vulnerable groups of population and rural areas have become more seriously affected.

Understanding the severity of the problem, the authors of the present book have made an attempt to assess the role of the state in respect of education, health and agricultural extension services in the context of new phase of globalization. The book focuses largely upon the delivery system of education, health care and agricultural extension services in the most advanced and prosperous state of India, i.e., Punjab. The book is the product of a study which was the part of the national level research project entitled, "Globalization and the Indian States" financed and sponsored by the National Foundations for India (NFI), New Delhi. Mostly, the analysis is based on time series secondary data for the period 1978-79 to 2004-05. In order to supplement the secondary data, primary data was used, collected through appropriate sampling.

There are five chapters in the book. Chapter 1 entitled "Introduction" presents various dimensions and implications of globalization supported by a strong data base. Chapter 2 elaborates the present scenario of the education system in Punjab. Chapter 3 is divided in five parts which states different dimensions of education and health service delivery system in Punjab. Chapter 4 examines the agricultural extension services in Punjab. The last chapter presents the summary and conclusions and recommends certain policies to strengthen the public sector in order to facilitate the provision of social services to common people.

The first chapter highlights the thematic context of the study, the scope and objectives, data and methodology and the rationale for the selection of the present study in one of the advanced and the most prosperous states of India, i.e., Punjab. The periods of the study relate to 1978-79 to 2004-05 with some variation in the years depending upon the data availability. In terms of thematic context, the process of globalization in the colonial and

post-colonial period is discussed in detail. The authors discussed effect of globalization in 1980s and 1990s where the development strategies were shifted from the "state-centric to market- centric" in the context of the Indian economy in general and the economy of Punjab in particular. Till the nineties of the twentieth century, the process of globalization of Indian economy was constrained by the barriers to trade and investment. After the Indian economy was opened to the outside world in 1994, Government tried to adopt the policy of fiscal deficit by controlling public expenditure. By examining the "fiscal distortion and deceleration" in Punjab state, the authors tried to show the impact of globalization on the development process. The economic situation of Punjab continued to degrade due to policy failures in almost all the sectors (primary, secondary and tertiary).

The second chapter discusses the development of education in respect of the relevant indicators of education in Punjab. The major insights of this chapter observed by the authors are: (i) increasing commercialization of education; (ii) gender inequality in enrolment and the inequality is widened at the higher education stage; (iii) the infrastructure facilities at the government schools are not only poor but also not functioning in many schools; (iv) poor educational outcome; and (v) considerable distortion in the share of educational funding. All these affected the development of the educational delivery system significantly. Despite the shrinking of the education budget, technical education got relatively extra benefit over other levels of education. Various measures were undertaken to improve the quality of education on a massive scale. In this process, the weaker sections got neglected. The authors have suggested the need of proper educational governance for building a strong educational delivery system which can lead to a stronger knowledge economy.

Chapter - 3 is divided into five parts. Part-I entitled, "globalization and health sector: theoretical underpinnings" addresses the implications of health sector in Punjab. It provides the major negative and positive effects of globalization in the health sector. The negative side of Globalization is attributable to extensive industrialization which led to the depletion of natural resources, emergence of high risk diseases like cancer, heart attack etc. while the positive effect of globalization is largely due to better life style, hi-tech medical facilities etc.

Part-II discusses the rationale of spending on health services. The authors examined the growth of public spending in health services and intra sectoral planned expenditure on health in Punjab during the period 1978-81 to 2002-05. It was found that the public spending on health sector declined from 9% in triennium period 1978-81 to 4.02% in the triennium period 2002-05. Even the intra-sectoral planned health expenditure showed uneven distribution of funds between the central and state government of Punjab. It was disheartening to note that after the new economic policy in 1991, public expenditure on health sector experienced a decelerated growth in the state.

Part-III of chapter 3 focuses on the health delivery system in Punjab which clearly revealed that there was almost stagnation in the public health infrastructure in Punjab. There was no appreciable increase in the bed per population in Punjab which shows one bed for 1,276 rural persons during the period 1981-84 while this increased to 1,555 persons per bed during 2002-05. Moreover, partial initiatives were taken up to: (i) improve the quality of the health service by PHSC (Punjab Health Service Corporation); and (ii) upgrade the secondary health care system. Of course the process of decentralization of administration in rural area was another initiative in order to delegate more power to local bodies in rural areas.

Part-IV examines the measure of drawbacks of the public health sectors in Punjab. It was pointed out that there was very low utilization of public health infrastructure on account of old and obsolete machinery, equipments and such other health infrastructure. Not only the infrastructure was poor but also many of them were found to be defunct particularly in rural areas. As a result the richer sections were kept away from availing the existing public sector health services. Moreover, globalization encouraged the private capital in creation of provisions for health services in the state which have better medical facilities than the public health services.

Part - V presents the concluding part of chapter-3 which addressed the issues relating to the impact of globalization that favoured mostly the private health sector, thus affecting the public sectors to a great extent. Certain development strategies were laid down for the rural areas with respect to the health services of the public sector in order to control the ever-growing reliance on private health sectors.

Chapter - 4 provides a vivid description of agricultural extension services which is vital for the growth of production and employment in Punjab. Four models of extension services are discussed in the book viz. *Pure Public Sector Model* managed by public sector agency; *Collaborative model* managed by government and other service providers like NGOs; *Contracting model* managed on contract with private organizations for implementing extensions; and *Private sector model* which recovers the cost plus profit from the farmers. In fact the government chooses to use a specific model depending on the circumstances and the need. The extension services largely provide a link between the agricultural research and production in the field. But, the decline in budgetary spending led to declining capacity to continue with various agricultural extension services. During recent years, many Private companies made themselves associated to facilitate agricultural extension services but they were involved more in trading of seed and the produce instead of setting up agricultural research and extension centers.

Chapter - 5 recapitulates the main findings along with the concluding remarks and policy recommendations. The book concludes with the detailed discussions of all the previous chapters along with some very constructive policy recommendations not only to improve the delivery system of health and education but also to make the management and regulatory mechanisms most effective to improve the public sector. The authors felt for the need of a second Green Revolution in Punjab as agricultural growth is of vital importance for the development of the state. Strong regulatory mechanism is needed for the private sectors so that the weaker sections are not exploited by them particularly in social sectors and development of extension services.

Of course, the book has some limitations. The size of the sample and the place of the survey have not been missed out in the book. The questionnaire used for the collection of data has also not been appended to the chapters. Many interesting insights could have been revealed if the authors could have linked the financial data with outcome indicators. Of course these aspects do not affect the quality of the book. On the whole, this is one of the few valuable books and a quality product in education and health care delivery system and agricultural extension services in the face of globalisation in one of the most developed and prosperous states in India, i.e, Punjab. The book provides various strategic interventions to promote development in these sectors. The findings and evidences presented in this book can be easily replicated with the other developing and developed states of India. This book

will be of great help to the researchers, students and the academic community. The policy recommendation prescribed in the book is of immense help for the overall development of the state, particularly in respect of education, health and agriculture sectors.

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Mark BRAY (2008): **Double-Shift Schooling – Design and Operation for Cost Effectiveness.** Commonwealth Secretariat. UK (Third Edition). ISBN: 978-0-85092-854-9. Pages: 95 (Paperback). Price £ 15.

Mark Bray is well known for authoring subjects relating to Shadow Teaching, Adverse Effects of Private Supplementary Tutoring in Asian and African countries. In this book he has dealt with one of the crucial issues of Double Shift Schools. He visualized that double shift schooling as a resource saving model in expanding schooling provisions to children and enrolling additional children to schools. He envisaged that double shifts can optimize on account of construction of new schools and providing all necessary provisions to schools. However, it stands as a challenge for the planners and policy makers to compromise on various parameters of schooling and its quality while weighing the option in favour of double shift schools.

Bray envisaged double shift schooling on the basic premise of expansion and access to cater to the challenge of meeting the EFA goals by 2015. This will result in creation of many schools which might lead to affect the scarce resources and spending on account of buying high priced land and expenses on account of construction as well as recruitment of additional teachers in the schools. Keeping in view of the urban areas where there is scarcity of land as well as scarcity of resources and teachers in rural areas is a major challenge. The double shift can take into account socio-economic requirements and can support the parents who need their children at home. However, the author also is cautious in totally depending on the system of double-shift schooling, as there may be loss on account of time for class-room transaction and reduction in extra-curricular activities with shortened periods and teaching load etc.

The book which has been brought out as a third edition deals with the concept of double shift schooling and has focused its attention to reduce cost especially in countries where there is an urgent need for making schooling available in response to the goals of EFA. As it is a well known fact that majority of the monetary resources in most of the countries are spent on account of salaries of teachers with the result there is very little to spend on providing new schools, teaching-learning material as well as creating additional teacher positions to cater to the large number of children entering the schools. The very idea of creating double shift schools emanates from such constraints and, if adapted appropriately, may reduce cost on account of creating new schools and enable the children who are economically disadvantaged to assist their parents and family in their occupations while participating in education. Thus, the double-shift schools can act as a reprieve to the resource constrained countries and can also provide quality education which has been

proved from empirical research evidences while taking into consideration the quantity, i.e., here it is larger enrolment.

Mark Bray in his book has pointed out certain shortcomings in opting for double shift schooling as a long term phenomenon, e.g., certain parts of the United States of America utilized double shift system in order to cater for fluctuations in enrolment. Managing double shift system requires a variety of administrative decisions and adapting proper distribution of work load to teachers and the levels of education e.g., primary or high to which shift has to be adopted morning or afternoon. The needs of the community also have to be taken into account to make the double shifts more acceptable and viable.

The author tries to demystify the myths/misconceptions of double-shift schools having low quality education and little time for teaching learning and other activities in contrast to the single shift schools which consume a greater chunk of financial resources in their construction and upkeep. Illustrating the example of Zambia, where multiple shift schools were organized enabling the government to reduce cost by 46 per cent, where minor changes were made by teaching Grades 1-4 and Grades 5-7 separately. This attempt was made by Zambia in order to cater to the population growth and consequent pressure on education budget. While, Uganda, by introducing double-shift reduced on account of salaries of teachers by offering 40 per cent increase in salary for teaching in a second shift, which also saved from new teacher recruitments and additional salary to teachers. The cumulative effect of this policy was that saving was made on account of procuring expensive land and construction of schools. The resource requirement of the double shift schools was optimized and better facilities were provided.

The author has weighed the pros and cons of single shift and double shift schooling in terms of curriculum transaction, time spent on teaching, grades that can be taught in the morning or afternoon shift, and a variety of models of double shifts practised in a number of countries. He tried to contest the myth of low achievement in the double shift schools with the support of researches in Brazil, Chile, Guinea and Senegal where the studies proved that there is no association between the double shift and academic performance in the schools although some of the countries have reduced the schooling hours to accommodate double shifts. This however, did not affect academic performance in schools. In most of the countries it was also reported that the schools with double shifts faced difficulties in organizing extra-curricular activities.

The book has thoroughly touched upon all important issues of schooling with good illustrations and examples of the double shift practised in African, Asian and Latin American countries. The author has critically analyzed aspects of school organization in totality with reference to socio-economic factors with due consideration to quality factors of the schools. The author ended with a word of caution stating that double shift schools should not be looked as a means to optimize resources and expansion but a well-developed model of shift system can be adapted according to the requirement of the context and situation of the country.

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Kenneth KING and Robert PALMER (2010): **Planning for Technical and Vocational Skills Development**. UNESCO: International Institute for Educational Planning - Fundamentals of Educational Planning-94, Paris. Pages: 138.

Planning for technical and vocational skills development (Unesco, IIEP, 2010) is a review study and, to some extent, a critique for planners to re-emphasize with renewed interest to make a case for skills development programme and vocational education for the very poor, the marginalized and women. The authors of the document (Kenneth and Palmer) have traced the development of technical and vocational education and training. The concept of vocational education has gone under change at the school level with different connotations viz, Technical and Vocational Education (TVE); Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET); Vocational Education and Training (VET); Technical and Vocational Skills Development (TVSD).

The document is divided into five distinct chapters. The first introductory chapter provides the background and rationale for TVSD. The Millennium Development Goal three (MDGs') states: "ensuring that the learning needs of young people and adults are met through equitable access to appropriate learning and life–skills programmes." The World Conference of 1990, and the reinforcement by the Dakar World Forum has put great pressure to provide physical access to large cohorts of young people to secondary education after completing the first cycle of basic education (elementary education in the Indian context).

Appropriate skills development programmes are needed to facilitate the transition of young people to the world of work, to improve the productivity of workers in the formal and informal sectors, and to provide some skills to disadvantaged groups, so as to provide opportunities to earn more income and improve the quality of their life. This document focuses on the type of programmes which are most likely to do so. How, and by whom, should they be managed and financed? How should they be planned? What can we learn from the reforms and successful programmes that have been implemented in recent years? This analysis is drawn from across the global experience and policy implementation of vocational education. King and Palmer review the major reforms that have been implemented in the past years – advanced economies of OECD, dynamic economies of East and South–East Asia, Latin America and African countries. The analysis deals with concerns on equity, providing training to the poorest segments of the population, improving quality, management, and governance, increasing skills portability and developing financial strategies. All these above components, dealt against the background of implementation process of VE, do underscore the implementation of vocational education. The well–known German dual system (combining apprenticeships in an enterprise with attachment to a vocational school) was historically considered a preferred model, against the diversified curriculum model of upper secondary school system with major weight for general education curriculum with some additional vocational course along with practicum.

Chapter I begins with an examination of the changing fashions, drivers, meanings and locations of technical and vocational skills development in the international agenda. Chapter II examines in more details the economic and social dimensions of some of the drivers of technical and vocational skills development. Chapter III discusses some of the current

reform initiatives within the TVSD sector, drawing on international experiences of TVSD reform activities in Africa, Asia, the Middle East, and Latin America. Chapter IV concludes with a brief summary of the implications for TVSD. While concluding the TVSD as a review to policy programmes, mode of deliveries, reforms and programme financing covering government, private, GOs' and informal sectors of the economy for regular formal, non-formal and informal programme, the planners have to take cognizance of the following parameters:

- While situating TVSD at the national or regional level, planners need to understand the local meanings of skills, competency or technical knowledge and to perceive how these are valued within education and training systems (p. 105).
- Planners should be aware of the different domains of TVSD in schools, training centers, and enterprises, and their delivery through formal, non-formal, and informal systems, and their public and private sectors, even if they are more concerned with provision under the umbrella of the ministry of education. (p. 105).
- Pay attention to the kind and quality of skills being acquired. (p. 106).
- Good coordination to the TVSD areas.
- Reforms required relative to the portability of skills.
- Reforms of financial provision for training.
- Need for shifting from input-oriented to output- or outcome-oriented systems be promoted using performance -based financing approaches.
- Information System to be adequate with a strong mechanism for monitoring system.
- Reform related school-based TVE: The vocationalization of education in not found to work well in facilitating the transition of youth to employment in advanced or developing countries; more success is achieved by full time technical and vocational education.

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Pamela BAXTER and Lynne BETHKE (2009): **Alternative Education - Filling the Gap in Emergency and Post-conflict Situations.** International Institute for Educational Planning, Paris. France and CfBT Education Trust, RGI 4BS, UK. ISBN: 978-92-803-1332-1. Pages: 194 (Paperback).

The authors are to be congratulated on producing a truly useful guide for policy-makers and education leaders for formulating an alternative educational approach which has relevance to societal and life survival issues. In-fact, keeping in view the recent natural and anthropogenic disasters, the biggest challenge for education is to provide sensitization to young learners about coping up with the consequences of such calamities. Recent earth-quakes, tsunamis, landmine casualties and spread of drug menace have had serious consequences for the youth both at the individual and family levels across the globe. The book written by the authors Baxter and Bethke focuses on very contemporary and relevant area of investigation which needs to be factored in the existing education system obtainable

in global context. The book will be of great use to practitioners and researchers, also, with its numerous examples and evidence-based accounts articulating the rationale for public and private stakeholder to work in tandem for the mitigation measures.

The basic argument is based on a strategy which is far beyond the borders of a specific country and benchmarks discussions on reengineering education at different stages in life. With regard to good practices and policy guidance, the authors look at importance of the framework which provides a networking mechanism for aligning their organization programming.

- Alternative access programmes: These are educational programmes that may look exactly like a formal school programme but are: (1) focused on a different group of learners; (2) operate in a different geographical area; and/or (3) offer different curricula and methods.
- Alternative subject programmes: These are non-traditional subjects that are offered, sometimes within traditional formal curricula and sometimes in parallel. The subjects are designed to respond to specific needs like landmine awareness and HIV prevention. Peace education is also mentioned. These programmes, according to the authors, often require different methodologies and pedagogies.
- Alternative pedagogy programmes: These are often offered as an adjunct to alternative access and alternative subject programmes. They may, however, simply be offered to upgrade the teaching/learning processes in formal schooling. The authors claim that, offered alone, they are not altogether successful as the content of the curricula is often not modified to suit the new Pedagogy, while the school system itself (including the examination system) remains unchanged.

The book is divided into seven chapters and each one has a special focus of its own. In the first chapter, the authors throw light on how to prioritize education in conflict areas. In the second chapter, two distinct dimensions about ensuring quality benchmarks have been aptly discussed. In the third chapter, learning processes intertwined with community participation for capacity building to generate spontaneous response to calamities has been elaborated on the basis of experiences of the authors. In the fourth chapter, curricula designed for planning alternative teaching-learning pedagogy and examples of implementation on ground is well illustrated. In the fifth chapter, institutional linkages and role of official agencies have been highlighted, while in the sixth chapter, strategies for addressing to the challenges and problems faced in integrating the education disaster mitigation mechanism, have been highlighted. In the concluding chapter, the authors have given various recommendations to suggest how education can become a vehicle for managing post-emergency and conflict situations.

The authors give a valuable insight into what is now termed emergency or post-conflict education. They do, however, adhere rather strictly to UN texts and official donor documents. They cite the Dakar Framework for Action and embrace the Fast Track Initiative without criticizing the heavy donor involvement in defining educational priorities for developing countries. The book reads more like a consultancy report based on donor-defined terms of reference than a critical study by independent researchers. The use of a familiar or a foreign language as language of instruction—a central issue for any form of education, especially in an emergency situation has not been addressed in an adequate way.

What was the language used as the language of instruction in the four countries the consultants visited, for example? How did it differ from the children's home language? When the authors write about the CREPS (Complimentary Rapid Education for Primary Schools) Programme in Sierra Leone, they mention that the core CREPS curriculum consisted of the subjects of language arts; they do not mention which languages, mathematics, social studies and integrated science. ''These core subjects are those that are most essential to passing the National Primary School Examination which test students in mathematics, English, verbal attitude, quantitative aptitude and General studies'' (p. 52). There is nothing here about testing children in Mother Tongue. On p. 67, a girl who graduated from the 3-year CREPS programme notes: ''In the beginning, it was difficult for me to understand what the teacher says. This was because I can't even speak the lingua franca which is similar to English''. What about the mother tongue of the children, the language they normally communicate in? Maybe it is even more important for children in emergency situations to be taught in a familiar language? It is surprising that this question is not raised and discussed. Issues relating to terrorism and violence perpetuated by extremist ideological group threatening human lives impacting the youth should also have been reflected while planning educational curricula.

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The World Bank (2011): **Reducing Inequality for Shared Growth in China: Strategy and Policy Options for Guangdong Province.** Washington D.C., The World Bank. ISBN 978-0-8213-8484-8. Pages: xxxi+356. Paperback. Price not mentioned.

While the rapid growth of the Chinese economy is widely acclaimed, what is less well-known is that economic inequality is a large and growing problem in China, with the potential to lead to an explosive situation. This book is thus timely, and focuses on economic inequality in the Guangdong Province of China, easily the best performing province in terms of economic growth in the recent past. It makes its prescriptive nature known in the opening pages stating that the rich-poor gap is a "long term challenge of human society", afflicting both the developed and developing countries; hence, any lesson learnt is going to benefit a large number of countries. Space constraints have led us to focus on the education and skill related aspects only. The reader would benefit by going through the Chapter titled Overview wherein the major findings of the eight chapters and the policy note are succinctly given.

Guangdong province has been growing at an average growth rate of 13.7% of GDP for the last thirty years and now accounts for over 11% of China's GDP. Highly urbanized and industrialized, with 30% of Chinese exports originating from it, it is a star performer. Migration of people into the region has been high. Currently, absolute poverty is high in its rural areas, inequality of opportunity is widely prevalent, and income inequality is at untenable levels. Absolute poverty refers to the situation when an individual does not have the minimum means for basic living. Inequality of opportunities refers to a situation when different individuals face different opportunities in pursuit of life's goals; typically this is

seen in varying degrees of access to education and health services. Inequality of outcomes refers to income and wealth disparities among individuals and households.

The reduction of poverty through human capital development, through partnerships between the leading and laggard regions, through production oriented poverty alleviation measures, and through the minimum living allowance system has been adopted. Based on an intensive study of the province through numerous field visits, the book comes up with a "three-pillar" approach which relates to the reduction of absolute poverty, reducing inequality of opportunities, and restricting the inequality of outcomes.

The findings include the following: Larger families are more poverty prone than smaller ones and most of the rural poor have lower levels of education compared to others in the province. The second aspect, inequality in opportunity indicates that there is uneven access to basic social services because of reasons of geography or wealth. Even when health, education and skills endowments are the same, unfair competition in the market, based on gender, household registration (*hukou*) or family background, may lead to unequal opportunities.

Despite the impressive progress made through the free compulsory education scheme, there are large disparities caused by geographic location or differing income levels. There are large differences in the quality of infrastructure, provisioning of books, spending per student and the like. Spending on education rose more in the urban and wealthy areas and coupled with the fact that the fiscal capabilities of each area is very different, this has resulted in large gaps in spending on education among various regions.

When one looks at income inequality, the Gini coefficient for Guongdong province is less than that for the whole of China, but is more than that of India. The primary reasons for the income inequality are the disparities between the urban and the rural areas and among the regions. The spatial imbalance in economic growth in the Guongdong province is primarily due to the Pearl River Delta region, which has been the most dynamic in terms of economic growth, aided by geographical and historical factors. Thus one way to reduce the inequality in Guongdong is by transferring industrial activities to the lagging regions.

Turning to the aspects of education in Guongdong, free compulsory education has been instrumental in reducing the following four gaps, which are inter-related. The first relates to the outcome gap which has to do with the quality and coverage of education. The second is the human resource gap namely, the number of teachers and their qualifications. The next two are a spending gap and a management gap. Usually outcomes are measured using gross enrollment and completion rates. This book uses net enrollment rates, drop-out and survival rates as well as test scores and also take into account other data sources and comes to an understanding closer to reality.

There had been a focused attempt to spread compulsory education and this has been paying dividends in Guongdang. Access to education has improved greatly. On the financial side, both total and public education expenditure as well as education expenditure per student has been rising. A higher share of the education expenditure has been going for the payment of salaries and a lower share to capital expenditure. All rural students have been exempted from miscellaneous fees as part of the compulsory education scheme. Despite these statements, it needs to be noted that Guongdong province comes off poorly when compared with international spending on education. While spending per student has increased in the rural areas, urban spending has increased faster still, giving rise to a large

gap between rural urban spending. The gaps in spending per student across socio-economic levels are less acute than urban-rural gaps. In the case of primary education, inequalities in spending per student across counties have worsened. In junior secondary too, the inequitable distribution is apparent in the spending per student.

Among the problem areas, the main issue is the lagging performance of the rural areas as seen through various indicators as compared to the urban ones. There is a gap in the completion rates in primary education and access to junior secondary education between urban and rural areas. The problem is greater when we look at the completion of and access to senior secondary and above. Great inequalities in education are visible when households are sorted income-wise or geographical location-wise. A major explanation for the outcome gaps can be traced to the gaps in spending per student.

What are the policy implications? Education performance needs to be looked at to identify where the equity issues emanate from, when looking at different groups. Secondly, the subsidy needs to be raised so that the miscellaneous fees are taken care of. Thirdly, the new funding formula for the said subsidy needs to be worked out. Fourthly, a systematic maintenance scheme needs to be implemented. Fifthly, a relook is required at the subsidies and textbooks that are distributed. Finally, while the issues to do with inter-governmental transfers need a relook, the management of the system has to be done properly so that the funds targeting provisioning of compulsory education do actually reach the intended beneficiaries.

Till recently the rapid growth of Guongdong province has been facilitated by the flow of rural surplus labor, but now the situations is changing. There is a shortage of the labor and wages are rising. Rural urban inequality has worsened with urban per capita income close to three times that of the rural one. The earlier manufacturing activity which revolved around labor intensive production involving unskilled labor is changing and the share of high technology sector is rapidly increasing. This is also seen in the kind of products that China of late has been exporting. Further this province is on the way to becoming a regional financial center and logistics hub in southern China as well as a center for international business travel and shopping. Taken together all these imply that the expected skill levels of the labor force has been on the rise.

Workers education and skill levels have emerged as constraints on growth. Investments in both are critical if the transition to a knowledge-intensive economy is to be achieved. As basic compulsory education of nine years is almost widespread throughout China, it is the post-basic education of secondary and higher levels that are becoming important now. With a strong correlation between educational (and skill) levels and incomes there is a good incentive for students to pursue higher levels of education as well as enter vocational schools. However, a number of problem areas remain. Non-state providers of skills are not sufficient and they need to be enlarged. And yet the government has a critical role to play. Financing skills upgradation is another area of concern.

The book also covers in depth aspects related to labor markets, financing, land policies, health services and the like seen from the larger objective of the reduction of economic inequalities. The mass of data and the meticulous research coupled with the many policy implications that emerge make this book an extremely useful one. Policy makers of emerging economies as well as those researching on them will benefit by reading this book

which points out to the inevitable rise in inequality when rapid economic growth takes place, but suggests very practical measures to ameliorate the situation.

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Roger KING, Simon MARGINSON and Rajani NAIDOO, (eds.) 2011: **Handbook on Globalization and Higher Education**. Cheltenham, UK: Edward Elgar, pages: 515+ index, hardbound; ISBN: 978-1-84844-585-7

Globalisation has offered both opportunities and challenges to every society in every sector, including higher education in particular. Higher education is influenced by globalisation on a large scale, and at the same time, it influences and even strengthens forces of globalisation. In the last couple of decades, a vast amount of serious scholarly literature has been produced on this subject. In fact, globalization has become one of the most fashionable areas of research in the present decade. With rapidly changing colours of globalisation on the one hand, and awesome changes in global higher education on the other, the relationship between higher education and globalisation is becoming ever-interesting, researchers unraveling new and newer dimensions. Edward Elgar has produced a serious of volumes reprinting scholarly articles on various themes, including on globalisation and separately on higher education. But the present book is a rich volume of 29 freshly written stimulating research articles on various issues relating to globalization and higher education.

The 29 chapters are organised in three major parts titled, Generic, Case Studies, and Global Governance. The three parts are edited respectively by Simon Marginson, Rajani Naidoo and Roger King, each part with introduction by the respective editor. In a sense the volume can be seen as three books; but the theme, higher education and globalisation bonds them together. The three parts are very closely knitted.

Besides an overview of the chapters, Marginson provides in the introduction to the first part, a crisp survey of how global knowledge was produced in India, Egypt, China and Europe during the ancient and medieval periods and how it developed in the present global era of the 21st century. Knowledge production has been truly global. At the same time, as Marginson rightly notes, "the global dimension of higher education and research is not a natural domain. It is one that humans make" (p. 6), by acts of imagining, by acts of practical strategizing and cross-border activities and by formal and informal control, regulation and limits. The remaining eight chapters in Part I look at various generic and empirical aspects: university as a global institution (by Peter Scott), how global dimensions are created (Marginson), how higher education responds to the new imperialist trends (Naidoo), three forms of knowledge economy – the learning economy, the creative economy and the open knowledge economy (Michael Peters), etc. Part II edited by Naidoo contains eleven case studies focusing on not only advanced countries like UK, Canada and USA, but also other countries including China, India, South Africa, Malaysia, Singapore, South Korea, Argentina, and Mexico. These case studies have examined different aspects of globalisation, like the world-class university movement in China (Mei Lie and Q Chen), external evaluations in South Africa (Mala Singh), integration within Europe through the Bologna and the Lisbon

strategies (Jussi Valimaa), the death of the liberal university in UK (Mark Olssen), and soft power and changing governance in East Asian Countries like Singapore, Hong Kong and Malaysia (Ka Ho Mok). Thus, in fact, the case studies are rich in terms of themes covered and perceptive in terms of country experiences with different kinds of strategies adopted in responding to global issues. A few outcomes of globalisation are important and are experienced by many countries. As Marcela Mollis described in case of Argentina, with global pressures, in many countries some themes went into invisibility in public discourses and new issues occupied their space. Second, the concept of liberal university is meeting a "strange death" as Olssen described in case of UK. Third, in many countries globalisation has impacted the nature and role of the state, as William Tierney described in case of USA with the case of California in particular. The state changed its own role from being a provider of higher education to an enabler, enabling the markets to provide higher education with limited public support as in many countries. Further, as Sangeeta Kamat describes in case of India, there has been a "shift from state developmentalism to a competition state." Lastly, political and fiscal imperatives dominate research agenda in universities; and so on As Naidoo summed up, the various strategies adopted by different counties result in "the mimicry, recontextualization and displacement of global templates as well as convergences and divergences across nation-states." (p. 171). The dangers of globalisation are indeed serious. As Terri Kim notes, "we should be mindful of global commercialization leading to homogeneity and commodification of knowledge by means of nominally multicultural and intercultural higher education marketing" (p. 302).

The seven chapters in Part III focus on global governance and higher education in the global era. Governance of research, quality, divergences, and standardization require different kinds of approaches. The diversity of approaches adopted by different countries is really impressive. The various global strategies adopted in higher education in different societies tell us about space-making, global imaginings and global effects. In the "glonacal' (global plus national plus local) organisations, as Marginson argues, three key world imaginaries 'global market economy,' 'global status competition' and 'knowledge and networks' increasingly influence policy makers and university leaders everywhere.

With 29 well-researched articles written by 31 erudite scholars of high repute drawn from various parts of the world, specifically for the book, the *Handbook* filled with intellectual ammunition provides an excellent reading on a multiplicity of issues relating to globalisation and higher education. The volume provides diversity of interpretation of several trends. Unlike many other books, the issues are studied not just from the point of view of a few advanced countries; the *Handbook* includes experiences of many developing countries. After all, globalisation cannot be studied in the second decade of the 21st century focusing narrowly on the west. The *Handbook* would certainly be a great resource material for students, teachers and policy makers engaged in higher education.

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