REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE.

Research takes advantage of the knowledge which has accumulated in the past as a result of constant human behaviour. Past gives birth to the present and decides about the future. This is the reason why review of past literature is important for research work. Research can never be undertaken in isolation of the work which has already been done on the problem which is directly or indirectly related to the study proposed by the researcher. There exists a continuum between the old theories and the new ones. A careful review of research journals, books, dissertations, thesis and other sources of information on the problem to be investigated is one of the important steps in the planning of the research work. The past is to be discussed to view a problem in a proper perspective so that the researcher may streamline the efforts to solve the problem. Through the review of related literature new thoughts and curiosities arise, misconceptions are removed and possibility of repetition is removed. After becoming aware of the strengths and weaknesses of various researches, the researcher does not repeat those mistakes (Helan, 1996). According to Ramal (1996), any research related written work is not considered appropriate unless and until it includes discussion of review of research of related works. Keeping in view the objectives of the present study, numerous studies pertaining to evaluation of different educational programmes and projects were reviewed. Since the researcher came across very few studies pertaining to the evaluation of teacher education programme especially pre service teacher education programme at secondary stage with reference to not only quantitative analysis but also qualitative aspect. The researcher has reviewed researches on both the aspects qualitative benefits regarding attitude towards teaching, teaching self-efficacy and job satisfaction of pre service teacher education programme at secondary stage.

The researcher has organised the studies related to cost benefit analysis in the following heads: 1.) Studies Abroad; and 2.) Studies in India.
2.1. STUDIES ABROAD

Musa and Bichhi (2015) investigated the Northwest University Kano prospective teachers’ attitudes towards profession of teaching. Field of study, gender and level of study’s’ influenced on their attitude was also examined. A descriptive survey design was adopted with a sample of 220 prospective teachers selected using a stratified random sampling technique. Professional Attitude Scale for Prospective Teachers (PASPT) constructed and validated by the researchers was used to collect data. The data collected were analysed using descriptive statistics and independent sample t-test to test the hypotheses at 0.05 level of significance. Findings revealed that prospective teachers had positive teachers’ attitudes the profession in relation to field of study and level of study.

Akbaba (2013) studied the attitudes of the pre-service social studies teachers to their teaching professions and their own perceptions towards the use of instruction materials had been determined; the relation between their attitude and own perception of self-sufficiency had been examined and the parameters such as university, gender and studying varieties had also been tried to be determined. The working group of this research that handled in survey model was consisted of 352 pre-service social studies teachers who have already taken “Instruction technologies and material Design” course. While analyzing the received data two way MANCOVA and correlation analysis technique were used. As a result of the research it was determined that the attitudes of the pre-service social studies teachers towards the teaching profession were positive; their perceptions towards the use of instruction materials were high and there was an intermediate positive relation between their attitudes towards the teaching profession and their perception of self-sufficiency towards teaching. It had been stated that the role of the gender was significant towards the attitude to teaching profession and teachers’ own perception of self-sufficiency about the use of instruction materials; the role of studying varieties and university was insignificant.

Jabnoun and Fook (2013) identified factors affecting job satisfaction among teachers at three selected secondary schools in Selangor. Both the researcher also sought to determine the relationships between the factors of job satisfaction and certain demographic variables. The instrument used in this study was an adapted
version of the job satisfaction questionnaire used by Yu (1989). The questionnaire was administered to 135 teachers from three secondary schools in Ampang, Selangor. The data was analysed using percentages, ANOVA (one-way analyses of variance), t-tests, and Pearson correlation coefficient analysis.

Usman, Akbar and Ramza (2013) studied the effect of salary and stress on Job satisfaction of Teachers in district Sialkot. The objective of the study was to check which factors contribute to job satisfaction of teachers in various colleges of Sialkot. Data were analysed with descriptive statistics and correlation and regression was also applied. From two independent variables only salary of the teachers was significantly affecting the job satisfaction of teachers. It could be concluded that management of these colleges should pay attention to salary of the teachers to increase job satisfaction of the teachers.

Usop, Askandar and Kadong (2013) found out the relationship of work performance and job satisfaction among teachers of Division of Cotabato City. Results stated that majority of them are females, married, earned a college degree and further master’s unit. 64% of them had 11-15 years of service. Therefore, the findings concluded that the teachers of Division of Cotabato City displayed a high level of performance. They were contend with their job satisfaction facet such as schools policies, supervision, pay, interpersonal relations, opportunities for promotion and growth, working conditions, work itself, achievement, recognition and responsibility.

Zembylas and Papanastasiou (2013) examined job satisfaction and motivation among teachers in Cyprus – a small developing country in the Eastern Mediterranean. An adapted version of the questionnaire developed by the “Teacher 2000 Project” was translated into Greek and used for purposes of this study that had a sample of 461 K-12 teachers and administrators. The findings showed that, unlike other countries in which this questionnaire was used, Cypriot teachers chose this career because of the salary, the hours, and the holidays associated with this profession. The study analyzed how this motive influenced the level of satisfaction held by the Cypriot teachers.

Dickson and Smith (2011) in his article “What Determines the Return to Education: An Extra Year or a hurdle Cleared?” identified the returns to extra years’
schooling with the objective whether the returns reflect the extra length of schooling or the increase in qualifications. They found sizeable returns to academic qualifications-increasing the probability of employment by 40% points and their results suggest that qualifications drive most of the returns to education.

Hanushek (2011) analysed the economic value of higher teacher quality. The valuation methods were based on the impact of increased achievement on individual earnings and on the impact of low teacher effectiveness on economic growth through aggregate achievement. A teacher one standard deviation above the mean effectiveness annually generates marginal gains of over $400,000 in present value of student future earnings with a class size of 20 and proportionately higher with larger class sizes.

Walker and Zhu (2011) estimated the impact of higher education qualifications on the earnings of graduate in the U.K. The data were used from the recent U.K. labor Force Surveys which provide a sufficiently large sample to consider the effects of subject studied, class of first degree and post graduate qualifications. Ordinary least squares estimates show high average returns for women that does not differ by subject. The findings revealed that for men there were large returns for law, Economics and management but not for other subjects. Degree class had large effects in all subjects suggesting the possibility of large returns to effort. Postgraduate study had large effects independently of first degree class.

Kelly, O’Connell and Smyth (2010) analysed the economic returns to different fields of study in Ireland in 2004 and also the value placed on various job-related competencies, accumulated on completion of higher education, in the Irish labor market. In examining these issues, the researcher, through quantile regression, also analysed how the returns vary across the earning distribution. The impact that education-job mismatch, both education level and field, had no earnings is also taken into consideration. The results derived indicate that relative to the base case, there are higher returns to Medicine & Veterinary, Education, Engineering & architecture, Science and Computers & IT. Small but significant returns were found for some of the competencies analysed, in particular technical skills. Controlling for a range of pre-work and personal characteristics, the general pattern regarding the field returns
that emerged from specifications suggested that relative to the base case (Arts and Humanities) the returns were higher to medicine and Veterinary (38.0%), Education (36.3%), Social Science (14.7%), Engineering & Architecture (13.4%), Science (12.7%) and Computers & IT (7.5%).

Skaalvik and Skaalvik (2010) studied partly to test the factor structure of a recently developed Norwegian scale for measuring teacher self-efficacy and partly to explore relations between teachers’ perception of the school context, teacher self-efficacy, collective teacher efficacy, teacher burnout, teacher job satisfaction, and teachers’ belief that factors external to teaching puts limitations to what they could accomplish. Participants were 2249 Norwegian teachers in elementary school and middle school. The data were analysed by means of structural equation modelling using the AMOS 7 program. Teacher self-efficacy, collective and two dimensions of burnout were differently related both to school context variables and to teacher job satisfaction.

Kim (2009) examined roles that perceived English fluency and social-cultural adaptation difficulty play in predicting self-efficacy beliefs for teaching in a sample of 119 international teaching assistants (ITAs) from East Asian Countries of China, Japan, Korea and Taiwan. Results showed that a positive relationship between perceived English fluency and teaching self-efficacy was not apparent until the moderating influence of social cultural adaptation difficulty was examined. More specifically, at high levels of adaptation difficulty, positive relations between English fluency and teaching self-efficacy were found; however, as social-cultural adaptation difficulty decreased the effect of perceived fluency in English on efficacy decrease.

Player (2009) in his study “Monetary returns to academic ability in the public teacher labor market” calculated the returns to academic ability in the teacher labor market. Using a nationally representative sample of public school teachers, the researcher found that teachers who graduate from the most selective undergraduate institutions had salaries that are between 7% and 14% higher than those who graduate from the least selective colleges.
Leigh and Ryan (2008) analysed the rate of return to schooling in Australia using two different instruments for schooling: month of birth and changes in compulsory schooling laws. With annual pre-tax income as measure of income, the researcher found that the naive ordinary least square (OLS) returns to an additional year of schooling is 13%. The month of birth IV approach gave an 8% rate of return to schooling, while using changes in compulsory schooling laws as an IV products a 12% rate of return. The researcher then compared results with a third natural experiment: studies of Australian twins that had been conducted by other researchers. Australian twins’ studies were consistent with findings insofar as they found little evidence of ability bias in the OLS rate of return to schooling. Together, the estimates suggested that between one-tenth and two-fifths of the OLS return to schooling was due to ability bias. The rate of return to education in Australia, corrected for ability bias, was around 10%, which was similar to the rate in Britain, Canada, the Netherlands, Norway and the United States.

Savas, Bozgeyik and Eser (2008) examined the relationship between teacher self-efficacy and burnout. In order to collect the related data, “Maslach Burnout Inventory” and “Teacher Sense of efficacy Scale” were used. The sample of the study consisted of 163 randomly chosen teachers who worked in various primary and secondary state schools in 2014-15 academic years. The results of the data analysis put forward that there was significant, medium and negative correlation between teacher self efficacy and burnout levels of the participants. Hierarchal multiple regression analysis results, which were run to assess the relationship between the two variables better, indicated that teacher self efficacy predicted burnout negatively.

Schwarzer and Hallum (2008) examined the relationship between self-efficacy, job stress, and burnout, focusing on mediation. The researcher with two samples of teachers (N=1,203), examined this putative mechanism cross-sectional and found such an effect, in particular for younger teachers and those with low general self-efficacy. Study II with 458 teachers, replicated the results longitudinally over a period of one year by employing structural equation models. In a cross-lagged panel design, low self-efficacy preceded burnout.
Pastore and Verashchagina (2006) calculated the private returns to human capital over transition as a case study of Belarus. However, the first available estimates of Mincerian earnings equation based on the Belarusian Household Survey on Incomes and Expenditure suggest that the skill payoff was high in 1996, at about 10.1% per year, and stable. The return to 1 year of work experience is also high at 5%. This result maintained also after controlling for sample selection bias, despite a general reduction in the annual rate of return to education by about 20-30%.

Gibbs (2002) explained and discussed that the influence of teachers’ self-efficacy on teaching, and how this related specifically to exercising though control in teaching. Teachers’ personal sense of control, and their beliefs in their capability to exercise personal control of their thinking during teaching, is suggested as impacting on how teachers think, feel and teach.

Tsang (2002) reviewed the conceptual and methodological issues in the comparison of the costs of public and private schools. Based on empirical studies on primary and secondary education in developing countries, the review found that many comparative cost studies were problematic in that they omit or underestimate important education costs, did not provide appropriate comparison of public and private schools, or are plagued by a lack of information. The problems could result in a significant underestimation of the costs of private schools and consequently a significant overestimation of their efficiency relative to public schools. Improper cost comparison could also lead to a failure to uncover inequities in, limitations in reaching marginalized populations through, and the role in socio-economic segregation of, alternative forms of schooling. The research highlighted the need for further and better research on comparative cost analysis and indicated the technical and non-technical impediments for such research.

Carvajal, Bendana, Bozorgmanesh, Castillo, Pourmasiha, Rao and Torres (2000) studied the inter-gender differentials between college students’ earnings expectations and the experience of recent graduates. Earnings reported by 219 recent college graduates and earnings expected by 248 college seniors were estimated separately for men and women as functions of labor input, grade point average, age, type of employer, type of job, location and ethnicity. The empirical evidence revealed
that, while students’ expectations generally accord with the prevalent trends of recent graduates’ marketplace experiences, they were only partially aware of what the market bear.

Monks (2000) examined earnings differentials across both individual and institutional characteristics. Using data from the National Longitudinal Survey of Youth, it could be seen that graduates from highly or most selective colleges and universities earn significantly more than graduates from less selective institutions. Additionally, graduates from graduate degree granting and research universities, and private universities earned approximately 14% more than their counterparts from liberal arts colleges and public institutions. There was, however, variation across racial and gender groups in the returns to individual and college characteristics. Males earned significantly higher earnings than females, and there appears to be no significant difference in earnings among white and non-white college graduates. Additionally, graduates from publicly controlled institutions earned 4.5% less than graduates from privately controlled institutions. Graduates from non or less competitive institutions earned approximately 5% less than graduates from competitive institutions earned 8% more; graduates from highly or most competitive colleges and universities earned 15% more than competitive college graduates.

Siphambe (2000) calculated the rates of return to education in Botswana by using the data from a household income and expenditure survey. The empirical fitness of the Mincerian Earnings function was also tested. The major results were: 1) rates of return rise by level of education; 2) the empirical fitness of the human capital mode was quite robust; 3) education was not income equalising; 4) women were paid less than men despite being on average more highly educated than men.

Landon (1999) studied the educational costs and institutional structure of schools in Canada. An empirical comparison was made of the impact on disaggregated education costs of three types of education spending control regimes—state level control of education spending; local school board control of spending with non-overlapping jurisdictions; and local school board control with overlapping jurisdictions. A model was specified which described the determination of teacher wages, the teacher student ratio, administrative costs, and other operating costs under
each regime. The results indicated that centralized state or provincial control of spending leads to the lowest teacher costs and the local control regime with non-overlapping jurisdictions was the most successful at controlling administrative and other operating costs.

Grubb (1997) analyzed the returns to education in the Sub-Baccalaureate labor market from 1984-1990 and found that the benefits of sub- Baccalaureate credentials—associate degrees and certificates were generally positive and statistically significant contrary to the critics of two year institutions. However, the benefits of completing some post secondary education but failing to earn credentials were much lower, especially for women; there were substantial variations in returns among fields of study; and individuals who did not find employment related to their field of study also had lower returns.

Menon (1997) estimated the perceived rates of return to higher education in Cyprus and used them in logistic regression analysis in order to study the effect of economic considerations on the decision of secondary school pupils to pursue higher education. The results were supportive of human capital theory: the mean rate of return to higher education estimated by higher education candidates was considerably higher than that perceived by labor market entrants.

Weisberg (1995) calculated the returns to education in Israel: 1974 and 1983. In a comparison of the Israel labor market between 1974 and 1983, it was found that both higher wages and age-earning profiles were related to higher educational levels, and that for higher educational levels at later ages was fund only for 1974, while the difference between corresponding estimates from the two years increases with the rise in level of education. Segundo and Alfonso (1995) estimated the microeconomic returns to education in Spain. The results obtained were consistent with those of the literature for other countries: an additional year of education yields about 8.4% increase in earnings. When distinguishing by class of worker, the rate of return to education is higher for self-employed than for wage and salary workers particularly so for the rate of return to higher education. By sector of employment, the results indicated that secondary education was better compensated in the private sector, whereas a university degree receives a greater rate of return in the public sector. The
return to university education was higher among women than among men regardless of the class of worker and the sector of employment.

Groot (1995) in his study “Type Specific Returns to Enterprise-Related Training” developed an empirical model for heterogeneous human capital investment decisions. He applied this model to the investment in enterprise-related training. Three types of training investments are distinguished: technical training, economic-administrative training, and other enterprise related training. The empirical results showed that technical training yields relatively the lowest wage gain, while other enterprise-related training yields the highest wage gain. Groot also found evidence to indicate underinvestment in enterprise related training.

Cohn and Hughes (1994) studied the internal rates of return (IRORs) to college education for the years 1969, 1874, 1978, 1982 and 1985, based on the Panel study of Income Dynamics. Results indicated that the IROR declined from 1969 to 1974, as claimed by Richard Freeman, but that by 1978 the IROR was nearly equal to what it was in 1969. From 1978 to 1982 the IROR increased, according to one estimation method, and slightly decreased, according to another. From 1982 to 1985 the IROR remained essentially unchanged, according to one method, and increased drastically, according to an alternative method. Results also indicated that the IROR may be sensitive to econometric techniques employed to estimate earnings functions, as well as to other assumptions invoked to derive age-earnings profiles.

Schneider and Verdugo (1994) examined earnings differentials between male and teachers. Data are from the 1987 schools and staffing survey by the US Dept. of Education. Results indicated that substantial earnings differences were due to factors such as years of teaching experience, education level taught, marital status, and subject taught. Nevertheless, there appears to be a cost associated with being a female teacher. Indeed, after regression standardization procedures, the cost of being a female teacher is estimated to be approximately 5% of their annual average contract salaries.

Bevc (1993) measured rates of return to investment in education in former Yugoslavia by region- former federal units (republics and autonomous provinces) by level of education, by gender, and for the society and the individual. It had shown
some similarities and some differences regarding the observed pattern of the economic efficiency of investment in education in other countries. The important difference in the calculated economic efficiency of investment in education in former Yugoslavia: the rates of return were lower than in other countries this was most likely to have been caused by weakness in the functioning of the labor market and deliberate limitations on earning differentials. The empirical analysis indicated that overall returns to education were higher 1) in regions with a greater relative scarcity of human capital and 2) in almost all regions in comparison with the returns to physical capital, since educational capital was in almost all regions, a more scarce production factor than physical capital.

Griffin and Edwards (1993) in their study estimated of rates of return to education for Brazil in 1989. The rate of return to an additional year of schooling was estimated to range between 12.8 and 15.1%. The customary Mincerian methodology used to estimate the rate of return from schooling was modified to capture the wage effects of changes in the educational structure of the labor force. This was accomplished by including labor market condition controls in earning equations. The results suggested that workers with less than university education compete with each other (are substitutes) while workers at the upper end of the educational spectrum are complements to those with less education.

Rumberger and Thomos (1993) in their study “The Economic Returns to college major, Quality and performance: A Multilevel Analysis of Recent Graduates” estimated the impact of three types of qualitative differences in college experiences on the earnings of recent college graduates-college major, school quality and educational performance. The analysis was based on a new statistical technique, known as hierarchical linear modelling (HLM), which distinguished more precisely between the effects of individual factors and institutional factors on earnings. The results showed that all three types of qualitative factors influence initial earnings, but the effects of institutional quality and educational performance are not uniform for graduates with different college majors.

Hinchliffe (1990) calculated the returns to vocational training in Botswana. Using data from a labor force census plus specifically conducted surveys of qualified
manual workers the impact training on earnings was analyzed and rates of return to both general schooling and the appropriate alternative levels of pre-employment vocational training were calculated. The returns showed a similar structure for both types of instruction. All exceed 20%.

Kostakis (1990) compared both the public and private costs of technical-vocational and academic upper secondary education in Greece. For the Greek case, the private costs of education were much higher for academic than for vocational education while the public costs were similar. In terms of monetary outlays, total private yearly private costs amounted to $735 for students enrolled in General Lycea and to $208 for students enrolled in Technical-Vocational Lycea. Frontisteria tuition constituted the largest category of direct education expenditure: 93% for academic students and 54% for vocational students. The yearly expenditures of General Lycea students for tutorials averaged at $688, while the yearly average for Technical-Vocational Lysea students was $113. Non-tutorial costs were higher for vocational students ($95 vs $47). However, since 73% of academic students attend tutorial schools in contrast to 18% of vocational students, the resulting level of total private costs ended up much higher for academic students.

Paul (1990) evaluated the technical secondary education in Togo and Cameroon from the labor perspective using tracer study data. Individuals face great difficulties in finding a job following training and the most common strategy used to avoid unemployment is to secure work in the informal sector. However, informal sector jobs provide low earnings and there appeared to be a large discrepancy between an individual’s expected earnings and actual earnings.

Riveros (1990) estimated the internal rates of return on schooling in Chile in the period 1960-1985. The estimates consisted of private and social marginal rates of return for the primary, secondary and university levels. On the costs side the researcher had accounted for direct (public and private) outlays in education, plus the opportunity represented by additional schooling. The monetary benefits had been measured using the income differentials associated with additional years of schooling. Social rates had declined in general, faster than the private rates, thus suggesting an
increase in the level of subsidization, particularly for primary and secondary schooling.

Psacharopoulos, Velez and Patrions used data from the 1990 household survey to analyze the relationship between education and earnings and to calculate rates of return to investment in education at different levels in Paraguay. The results were consistent with what had been found in other countries with similar socio economic characteristics. Human capital characteristics accounted for about 40% of individual earning variance; each extra year of schooling yield a private rate of return of 11.5%. Social and private rate of return were highest for primary education, followed by secondary education, and females experienced a higher rate of return to schooling than do males. Additionally, private sector employees had a 3.6% earning advantages over public sector employees. Once more, the self employed, mostly working in the informal sector, realize returns similar to, or even higher than, those engaged in more conventional employment.

Al-Qudsi (1989) used a human capital model to estimate sectoral earnings functions for three groups of workers in Kuwait using data from the 1983 national labor survey. These earning functions were employed to ascertain the existence of a wage differential between workers in the public and private sectors. In general, the result derived from the analysis suggested i) that public sector employees enjoyed superior wages to those of measurably equivalent workers in the private sector, ii) the returns to education and years of job tenure were higher in the private sector of economy, iii) that nationals received pure economic rent particularly in the public sector relative to non-national workers.

Psacharopoulos (1989) in his study “Time Trends of the Returns to Education: Cross-National Evidence” investigated the over time behaviour of the rate of return to investment in education in a large number of countries. The emerging pattern was one of declining returns through time, a fact that was interpreted in the context of alternative theories on the relationship between education and earnings, such as human capital, screening, labor market segmentation and the maintenance of the status quo from generation to generation. The evidence largely supported to a human capital view of the world. Also, the slow rate of decline of the returns to education
over time dispelled fears that education might have expanded, especially in developing countries.

Berger (1988) measured the effect of cohort size on the starting salaries of college graduates from different background of study. Increased in the size of graduating classes relative to the population depress their starting salaries relative to other workers. The smallest negative cohort size effects were found for engineering and business graduates, while the largest estimated for science and liberal arts graduates. Science and liberal arts graduates were more complementary with other workers or increase their human capital investments more than business and engineering graduates do in response to increase in cohort size. Either of these differences generates larger negative cohort size effects on relative earnings.

Jamison and Gaag (1987) studied the education and earnings in The Republic of China. Data from a household survey conducted in a relatively poor country in northwestern China allow assessment of the impact of education on the employment status and earnings of urban dwellers and on the value output of small farms. The Mincerian rate of return to schooling was 4.5% for urban males and 5.5% for urban females; these are among the lowest levels got reported. The effect of experience on earning was also usually low for males and negligible for females. Findings from rural areas, where market forces play a central role were more consistent with findings from other countries. The education levels of adults in farm households had a strong impact on total farm earning, mostly through its impact on ‘sideline’ production rather than grain output.

Guisinger, Henderson and Scully (1984) estimated the rate of return to schooling and differences in these rates of return by schooling level and sector of employment in Pakistan. The major finding reported was that the rate of return on physical capital and in relation to the rates of return to schooling in other developing countries. These low rates of return appeared to be a result of a conscious government policy which drastically compressed the skill-wage structure.

Hartog (1984) in his study “On the Private Benefits of Subsidies to Education” imputed the benefits of government expenditure on education to individual
households by using the method of compensating variation. A distinction was made between the student and the parents as decision makers. Theory then indicated under what conditions benefits should be imputed to the student and to the parents. The sum of direct private benefits may deviate substantially from total expenditures.

Rumberger (1984) measured the changing economic benefits for white male college graduates in 1971 and 1976. It focused on two factors that may account for some of the observed differences in the economic value of college: different indicators of economic benefits and variations in benefits by college degree and major. The results suggested that the relative economic benefits for white male college graduates changed little in the first half of the 1970s in both years relative benefits do depend, however, on the area and type of college degree as well as the particular economic measure being considered.

Woodhall (1977) measured the rate of return to women’s education and evidence was presented for nine countries which showed that the returns to secondary and higher education are on average two percentage points lower for women than for men but in some countries they are actually higher. Education increases the earning capacity of women and also increases their propensity to remain in the labor market. It was shown that a large part of the observed differential between male and female earnings was due to the concentration of women in low-income occupations.

2.2. STUDIES IN INDIA

Bhargava and Pathy (2015) studied the attitude of student teachers towards teaching profession. What bearing the gender and stream of education has on the attitude of student teachers towards teaching profession to throw light on this a study was conducted using a readymade tool. Study of different categories like Non-tribal male and female science stream, nontribal male and female social science stream, tribal male and female science stream, Tribal male and female social science stream was undertaken. In a sample of hundred students ninety six students responded. The mean scores were considered and t-value was calculated to find the difference in the attitude of different categories towards teaching profession.
Babu Prasad and Raju (2013) conducted a study to examine the attitude of student teachers towards their profession in Vizianagaram of Andhra Pradesh, India. The study was conducted on a sample of 437 student teachers studying in 7 colleges of education in the same city among them 239 were male and 198 females and methodology wise 143 were mathematics, 48 Physical Sciences, 134 Biological sciences and 112 Social studies subject student teachers. They were administered self constructed tool developed by the present study investigators. The collected data were analysed with mean, standard deviations and t-values for testing various hypotheses framed. Significant differences observed in gender and subjects of study.

Chamundeshwari (2013) investigated the job satisfaction and performance of teachers in different categories of schools following different systems of education. From the total population, a sample of 196 teachers from state board schools, 198 teachers from matriculation board schools and 194 teachers from central board schools were drawn. The results of the study indicated that teachers in central board schools were significantly better in their job satisfaction and performance compared to their counterparts in matriculation and state board schools.

Ghosh (2013) studied the job satisfaction of teachers working at the primary school in relation to nature of job, gender, locale, management and educational qualification variation. Dixit’s job satisfaction scale (1998), developed by Panda (2007) was administered over a sample of 100 primary school teachers of Dakshin Dinajpur district of West Bengal. The findings of the study revealed that para-teachers, female, government school and under graduate teachers were more satisfied on their job than the regular, male, and private school and graduate teachers.

Gupta and Gehlawat (2013) compared the job satisfaction and work motivation of secondary school teachers with respect to some demographic variables. For the purpose of investigation, descriptive survey method was employed. The sample comprised of 400 secondary school teachers working in schools located in Rohtak Division affiliated to HBSE and was selected by Multi-Stage Random Sampling technique. Personal Data Sheet prepared by the investigators, Job Satisfaction Scale (JSS) by Dixit (1993) and Employees Motivation Schedule (EMS) by Srivastava (1988) were used for the collection of data. The obtained data was
analyzed using means, S.D’s and t-test. The findings of the study revealed: i) No significant difference was found in the job satisfaction and work motivation of male and female teachers ii) There were significant differences among teachers working in government and private schools; more experienced and less experienced teachers with respect to job satisfaction and work motivation iii) Significant difference was reported in the work motivation of teachers having graduate and post-graduate qualifications.

Raj and Lalita (2013) investigated the present level of job satisfaction among the private and govt. school teachers. In this study, 50 Govt. and 50 Private teachers, 100 in total, working in different govt. and private schools were examined. The obtained data were analysed based on the descriptive statistics using SPSS version 16. Independent sample t-test has been used in this study to analyse the job satisfaction level among male and female teachers and govt. and private school teachers. The study revealed that there is no significant difference in the level of satisfaction of male and female teachers. Furthermore, it was again revealed that there is no significant difference in the level of satisfaction of govt. and private school teachers.

Shaheen (2013) assessed the attitude of secondary school working teachers’ towards teaching profession belonging to early adulthood and late adulthood stage. The sample of working teachers (N=100) was taken from Secondary Schools of Aligarh Muslim University. The investigator used the “Attitude Scale” developed by S.P. Ahluwalia to measure the attitude of 100 individuals. Mean, standard deviation and t-value were calculated. Results revealed that teachers’ belonging to early adulthood stage had better and positive attitude towards teaching profession as compared to teachers belonging to late adulthood stage.

Singh and Kumar (2013) studied the influence of job satisfaction of teacher educators on their teaching competence. Using convenient sampling technique, 180 teacher educators working in self-financing B.Ed. colleges were selected for study. One newly constructed tool entitled ‘teaching competence scale’ and other modified tool ‘job satisfaction scale ‘were administered on the sample for the collection of data. Statistical Techniques used for the study include descriptive statistics, Karl Pearson’s Product Moment Co-efficient of correlation and test of significance of difference between two correlations was also calculated. Findings of the study show significant
relationship between the variables under the study for the total sample and for sub-samples. The study also explored the significance of difference in correlation for sub-samples based on sex, locale and educational qualification.

Rajathi and Begum (2012) studied the difference between the job satisfaction, teaching competency and classroom climate of secondary grade school teachers. The data was collected by using classroom climate inventory, classroom teaching competency scale and the teacher job satisfaction questionnaire. The findings revealed that classroom climate, teaching competency and job satisfaction do not differ according to their age or educational qualification or locality but they differ only with salary and type of school.

Sharma (2012) studied the attitude of secondary class teachers of Ambala district towards job satisfaction and compared the attitude level of male and female among different category of schools recognition. Self prepared questionnaire was used to collect the data. The results indicated that there was significant difference in attitude of secondary school teachers among male and female of Government Schools, Government Funded Schools and Public Schools.

Kumar and Papaiah (2012) has studied the self-efficacy of high school teachers and found that the high school teachers possess self-efficacy. There was no variation in self-efficacy of high school teachers due to the variations in age, gender, teaching experience, qualification of teachers and subjects taught. However, there was significant variation between the self-efficacy in the respect of high school teachers working in Zila Parishad high schools and those working in private un-funded high schools.

Kaur (2012) investigated the professional attitude of secondary school teachers in relation to their adjustment. The study found adjusted and maladjusted teachers differ significantly in their attitude towards teaching. It further revealed that adjusted teachers had high attitude as compared to maladjusted teachers.

Klassen and Chiu (2010) examined the relationships among teachers’ years of experience, teacher characteristics (gender and teaching level), three domains of self-efficacy (instructional strategies, classroom management, and student engagement),
two types of job stress (workload and classroom stress), and job satisfaction with a sample of 1,430 practicing teachers using factor analysis, item response modeling, systems of equations, and a structural equation model. Teachers’ years of experience showed nonlinear relationships with all three self-efficacy factors, increasing from early career to mid-career and then falling afterwards. Female teachers had greater workload stress, greater classroom stress from student behaviors, and lower classroom management self-efficacy. Teachers with greater workload stress had greater classroom management self-efficacy, whereas teachers with greater classroom stress had lower self-efficacy and lower job satisfaction. Those teaching young children (in elementary grades and kindergarten) had higher levels of self-efficacy for classroom management and student engagement. Lastly, teachers with greater classroom management self-efficacy or greater instructional strategies self-efficacy had greater job satisfaction.

Ganihar (2011) compared the job satisfaction and teacher efficacy of secondary school teachers by age wise and gender. The sample of the study included 200 teachers selected from the secondary schools in Dharwad district. The job satisfaction scale by Meera Dixit (1993) and Role Efficacy Scale by Udai Pareek (2002) was used to collect the data. It was found that the job satisfaction and teacher efficacy was increased by the age wise and become stagnant in the long run. There was no significant difference found in the male and female regarding job satisfaction and teacher efficacy.

Mani and Vij (2011) compared the occupational self efficacy of private and government school teachers. Causal comparative method of descriptive research had been used for the study. The sample consisted of a total of 103 teachers of Faridabad. Occupational self efficacy scale (OSES) by Sanjyot Pethe, Sushma Chaudhary and Upindar Dharwas used for the collection of data. Findings of the study indicated that the private school teachers teaching at primary level do not differ from each other in their occupational self efficacy whereas the private school teachers teaching at the secondary level have a better occupational self efficacy as compared to the Government school teachers.
Rokade (2011) measured teaching attitude among pre-service and in-service B.Ed trainees of Amravati district of Maharashtra state. The study found that pre-service B.Ed. trainees have more favourable teaching attitude than in-service B.Ed. trainees.

Mary and Samuel (2011) had studied the attitude of B.Ed. students towards teaching and academic achievement, the investigator find among other things that the students’ attitude towards teaching and academic achievement falls under the average category with a significant difference between the male and female students-teachers.

Sumbul and Sajid (2011) investigated the job satisfaction levels of college teachers of private management institutions in Delhi and a college of Delhi University. A total of 40 college teachers, ranging in teaching experience from 2 – 43 years, were selected for the study. The data was obtained Paula Lester’s Teachers Job Satisfaction questionnaire which was administered personally. The purpose of the research was to determine the overall levels of job satisfaction of college teachers, compare them according to institution and gender, and examined the individual job dimensions affecting job satisfaction. The methods of data analysis included descriptive statistics, Mann-Whitney test and Kruskal –Wallis test to analyse the responses to the research questions about demographic and work profile of teachers, their perceptions of supervision, and teachers’ job satisfaction. The study found the job satisfaction levels to be average with a significant difference between job satisfaction of male and female college teachers, though no such difference was found between institutions.

Demirtau (2010) identified the primary school teachers’ job satisfaction levels. The research had been designed with the survey model. In accordance with this approach, the primary school teachers’ job satisfaction levels had been measured. In the research, Teaching Satisfaction Survey (TSS) was used. According to results, teachers’ job satisfaction levels were pretty high. In terms of age difference there was a meaningful difference in averages. The group of 36-40 age have the highest averages. On the other hand, the group of 41 and above age has the lowest averages. There were no meaningful differences in terms of the professional seniority and the branch of teaching variables. That the level of job satisfaction of teachers is very high.
affects positively the educational aims come true. It is expected that a school which had teachers with high level of job satisfaction gave qualified education and brings up successful students.

Basu (2009) evaluated the job satisfaction of secondary school teachers and investigated the impact of gender and marital status on the teacher job satisfaction. A sample of 225 secondary school teachers from Rohilkhand region was selected through multi-stage random sampling technique. A self-developed Teacher Job Satisfaction Scale (TJSS) was employed to collect the data. The analysis of data using means, S.D. and t-test was developed that both gender and marital status had a significant bearing on the job satisfaction of the teachers. While female teachers scored higher on TJSS as compared to the male teachers, mean scores of the unmarried teachers on the TJSS was lower than those of the married teachers.

Basu (2009) studied job satisfaction and mental health among teachers: A survey. The researcher found that job satisfaction had a significant relationship with mental health in case of primary school teachers. When gender, marital status and locality of the primary school teachers were taken into consideration, satisfied teachers evinced significantly better mental health than their unsatisfied counterparts.

Jhamb, R. K. and Pahuja, R.K. (2008) had done the Cost Benefit Analysis of ICT in Libraries. This study gave brief introduction about cost benefit analysis, its needs, importance as well as meaning of ICT and its importance in the current scenario.

Paranjape (2008) made a quantitative analysis of the rate of return approach within the confines of certain macro level assumptions about the economy and about lifetime earnings of the sample units. Both, private and social, group-wise short and long-term rates of return were estimated for graduates of University of Mumbai. The findings showed that the short term rates of return, seven years from joining graduation followed the classic macro level pattern of higher private rate of return for lower income groups in case of gender and faculty based groups of sample units. The present income for females and non-engineering sample units were significantly lower than their respective counterparts. The private and social rates for different groups, at
this stage, did not differ by more than one percent. When an estimate of foregone earnings was included in the total private cost and future incomes were projected at the same rate as average rate of growth of state per capita income, both private and social long-term rates remain negative in the early years i.e. until the age of about 27/28 years.

Bindu (2007) studied relationship between job satisfaction and stress coping skills of primary school teachers and it was revealed that job satisfaction differentiates male and female primary school teachers and there was a positive correlation between job satisfaction and stress coping skills among primary school teachers.

Jain (2007) studied the teaching effectiveness of teachers and their attitude towards teaching profession with the objective to compare the teaching effectiveness of teachers and their attitudes towards teaching profession with respect to sex, type of school and teaching experience. The present study revealed that the teaching effectiveness and attitudes of teachers towards teaching profession with respect to sex, type of school and teaching experience were found to be significant. The study revealed that less experienced female teacher teaching in private school exhibits better classroom teaching. A significant negative relationship exists between the attitudes and teaching effectiveness of teachers.

Panda (2007) concluded a study to find out the level of job satisfaction of Para teachers in comparison with the primary teachers and observed that the Para teachers were highly dissatisfied.

Ramachandran and Pal (2005) have done an International Research Project on Teacher Motivation in India and job satisfaction particular in Tonk district of Rajasthan. They found that not even one teacher said that the level of job satisfaction was poor or very poor and twenty-eight out of the forty-five teachers said it was good. This response was not in sync with the rest of the interview when they talked about their work as a teacher and their own expectations. Only eight out of the 45 teachers said they wanted a transfer even though the transfer rate was quite high. Teachers cited a few reasons for being “satisfied”. They spoke about examination results and their ability to help children memorise or learn the expected
lesson or master a skill (maths). On the other hand, those who were dissatisfied invariably referred to their physical work environment and pressures of the job (including behaviour of superiors and colleagues). The analysis of teachers’ responses threw up five reasons for dissatisfaction: (a) High teacher-student ratio (b) Infrastructure problems (c) Erratic disbursement of salaries (d) ‘Forced’ to teach children of poor communities and specific social groups who are ‘dirty’ (reflecting the class bias and social gap between the children and teachers) (e) Irregular attendance of children (because of migration or work-related reasons) and illiterate parents, which adds to the work of the teacher. They also complained about non-teaching duties and how they had been given family planning targets, asked to manage women’s self-help groups, distribute drought relief and identify beneficiaries for a range of government welfare programmes for the poor. Another interesting disconnect among teachers visible was between “satisfaction with our job” and “satisfaction with life”. Teachers in India are government servants with assured lifetime tenure, pension benefits and medical and other benefits. Nearly all the teachers in the district said they were satisfied with their job. But life – well, that was another story.

Dixit (2005) aimed to analyze the effect of sex on different factors intrinsic (physical and psychological) and extrinsic (salary etc. benefits) of job satisfaction among primary teachers. It was observed that gender differences had more effect on extrinsic factors rather than the intrinsic factors.

Gill and Saini (2005) studied the effect teacher education on attitude of students-teachers towards the teaching profession. The present study was conducted on 40 student teachers of Punjab agricultural University, Ludhiana, and Punjab to evaluate the effect of teacher education programme on their attitude towards the teaching profession. The result revealed that respondents developed a favourable attitude towards the teaching profession after the completion of the programme. However, qualification and marital status had no significant relationship with the change in attitude towards the teaching profession.

A study done by Ghuman, Singh and Brar (2005) measured per unit recurring cost of higher education (general and professional) for Punjab. It measured the unit cost, financing and recovery of colleges and university level higher education. The
study showed that there had been a strong growth of private initiative in higher
education particularly in the professional higher education. It found that overall per
unit recurring cost in the case of general higher education was Rs. 13,508 during
2004-05. Per unit recurring cost was higher in the urban areas colleges (Rs. 13,506)
compared to the rural areas colleges (Rs. 10,118). However, ownership-wise, its level
was the highest in the funded private colleges (Rs. 14,600), followed by the
government colleges (Rs. 12,053), and the lowest in the unfunded private colleges
(Rs. 10,118). Component-wise, teachers’ cost dominates across the ownership and
location categories. However, administrative cost was the second highest component
of recurring cost, where it constituted between 18.16 per cent and 33.22 per cent of
unit recurring cost. In professional education, per unit overall recurring cost was Rs.
1,17,555. Out of this, teachers’ cost was Rs. 56,967 (48.50 per cent) and other costs
Rs. 60,488 (51.49 per cent). Thus, like the general education, teachers’ cost and
administrative cost constituted the substantial proportion of recurring cost across all
the trades/courses of professional education in Punjab. The analysis of cost recovery
of general and professional education in Punjab showed that its level was quite higher
in the professional education than that of the general education. The share of total
receipts in recurring cost was 95.72 per cent in general education, and 134.27 per cent
in professional education. Moreover, fees and funds alone constituted 77.38 per cent
of recurring cost of general education, and 97.34 per cent in professional education.

Agarwal (2004) in a study of job satisfaction of primary and secondary school
teachers conducted that caste, place of work and mother tongue were significantly
related to job satisfaction. Male graduate trained teachers, single family teachers,
more experienced and government school teachers were more satisfied than other; age
and marital status however had no relationship with job satisfaction.

Raj and Mary (2004) attempted a study on Pondicherry region and fond that
job satisfaction was not high. Overall job satisfaction level showed that 39 percent of
the Government school teachers had low (40% had average and 21% high) level of
job satisfaction. No significant difference was found in job satisfaction between
gender, medium of instruction, place of work, educational qualification, salary and
There was no significant difference among teachers irrespective of experience, age, subjects and type of schools.

Abbasi (2003) conducted a comparative study of job satisfaction among primary school teachers in Iran and India. It was revealed that in both countries, Iran and India, (a) More than 50% of teachers have medium level of job satisfaction, which showed that both countries had serious problems about situation of teachers in their societies and educational system, (b) In both countries, teachers had more satisfaction about social status aspect of their job. (c) In both countries, teachers had less satisfaction about economic sufficiency aspect of their job. (d) Female teachers in both countries had more economic sufficiency and interpersonal cooperation than male teachers, (e) Male and female teachers in this study did not have the same level of job satisfaction and gender was a factor, which affects their job satisfaction. (f) There was no significant difference between teachers with varied groups of age and their job satisfaction.

Bokadiya (2002) studied that private cost of teacher education programme and relevance of its results comparatively Dayalbagh and Aligarh Muslim University and found that 68.23% pupil teachers were passed by first division, 28.92% were second class and only 4.00% students were passed by third class division. After doing B.Ed mostly teachers 58.57% were get employment, presently only 15.19 % teachers were having permanent job and the remaining were teaching under temporary conditions.

Singh (1999) measured the private cost of teacher training at B.Ed level and found that average private cost of pupil teachers were Rs.19,880/- . It was revealed that there was no significant difference on the basis of gender while there is significant difference among rural and urban pupil teachers regarding private cost.

Heggade (1998) studied the resource allocation and pattern of expenditure on education in Karnataka state during 1981-90. It also measured the institutional cost of higher education and studied the management as well organizational problem of higher education in the state. Sood (2003), while estimating recurring cost of education, concluded that teachers cost account more than 90 per cent of recurring cost of school level education in India. In his study, Kumar (2004) measured the
private cost of MBBS course in Kerala in 2000. It showed that pre-admission expenditure was Rs. 8,817 per student and the average post-admission annual private expenditure Rs. 13,703 including the hostel expenses. Further, the study showed that, the share of private cost was just 12.3 per cent in the total cost. However, institutional cost shared a whooping proportion of 87.70 per cent. The study also showed that major section of the students comes from the high income strata. And fees charged from students form only a minor component of private educational expenses of medical and Para-medical courses in Kerala. Nearly, 90 per cent of the cost was incurred on nonfee expenses.

Suryanarayana & Himabindu (1998) had a study on Teaching competency and job satisfaction, among primary and secondary school teachers, in Vizianagaram District. the results of the study revealed that the Teaching Competency in terms of all demographic variables like Sex, Locality, Qualification, experience, type of Management and Type of institution do differ significantly, whereas the Job Satisfaction in terms of all demographic variables like Sex, Locality, Qualification, Marital Status, Experience, Type of Management and Type of Institution categories also do differ significantly.

Regarding the public, private and social costs of higher education on per unit basis, Salim’s study (1997) was of worth quoting. This revealed very interesting results regarding the cost estimates of higher education courses. The results showed that during 1989-90, per student capital cost of engineering education was more than two-and-a half times higher than that of the general education. During 1976-90, per student capital cost had declined marginally in the case of engineering education, while it increased in the case of general education, in spite of the steady rise in enrolment of students. Further, unit capital cost of government engineering college was higher than that of the private engineering college whereas that of the government art and science college is low in relation to its counterpart in the private sector. Among the various components of the unit capital cost, during 1989-90, the buildings and equipments together constituted almost 75 per cent of the cost of engineering colleges and 65 per cent of arts and science colleges. Over the period of fourteen years, per student share of equipments and books had increased in the
engineering colleges, while it was the share of buildings and books which rose in the general education colleges. Over this period, salary remained as the major component in pushing up the recurring cost of education. Almost 66 per cent of the recurring cost of technical education and 61 per cent of general education was taken by this item. Regarding the estimation of private cost, according to the socio-economic background of the students, it was found that total private cost of engineering education was 21 per cent higher than that of general education. Interestingly, out of the total private cost, almost 50 per cent in the technical education and 61 per cent in the general education was allocated to incidental items of expenditure. Across the different components of academic costs, the college fee, private tuition and books expenditure played a significant role. In the case of incidental expenses, the largest share was earmarked for hostel expenses, travel and clothing. Surprisingly, the net private cost of engineering education, which gives larger private benefits, was considerably lower than that of the general education. Finally, a regression analysis of factors influencing private cost of higher education showed household income as the major determinant. The estimates of social cost revealed that only about one-fifth of the social cost of engineering education was borne by the students, while nearly one-half of the social cost of general education was incurred by them. The remaining part of the social cost was borne by the government/institution.

Acharya (1996) assessed the access to and benefits of education, using data from Maharashtra. More explicitly, it identified demand and supply variables that determine access to literacy and education. Attempt was then made to establish thinks of education with labor markets with a view to observing the relationships between the quality of jobs and education. Lastly, rates of return to education were worked out. The whole exercise was based on the unit record data of the National Sample Survey (NSS), for the year 1987-88. The earnings behaviour showed that the rates of return to education were higher in rural than in urban areas, and higher for women than men.

Bishay (1996) were measured the levels of job satisfaction and motivation by survey in a sample of 50 teachers. A sample of 12 teachers was then studied using the Experience Sampling Method (ESM). Teachers were randomly beeped by special pagers 5 times a day for 5 days and completed surveys on mood and activity for each
beep, resulting in 190 reports of teachers’ daily experiences. Conventional survey data corresponded with ESM data. Job satisfaction and motivation correlated significantly with responsibility levels, gender, subject, age, years of teaching experience, and activity. For this group of teachers who work in a school with a selective student body, overall motivation and job satisfaction levels were high. Based upon the findings, it appeared that gratification of higher-order needs was most important for job satisfaction.

Unni (1996) estimated earnings functions for urban wage workers in two states of India for Tamil Nadu and Madhya Pradesh. Private rates of return to education were computed separately for men and women. Returns to education were found to increase with the level of education for both men and women. The relative gap in rates of return to different levels of education was high and so was the relative wage gap between workers at different level of education. The returns to education were also found higher for women as compared to men with and without the selectivity correction, except for graduates in Madhya Pradesh.

Dutt (1995) analyzed the cost of education of 12 colleges affiliated to the Delhi University for the period 1976-77 and 1987-88. It was found that educational expenditure as a proportion to income has risen from 1.26 per cent in 1950-51 to 3.30 per cent in 1992-93, but in total plan outlay, it declined from 7.8 per cent in the First Five Year Plan (1951-56) to 4.5 per cent during the Sixth Five Year Plan (1980-85), while the plan-wise expenditure on the university education rose from 9 per cent in the First Five Year Plan to 19 per cent in Sixth Five Year Plan (1980-85). The average cost per student was worked out to be Rs. 4,994. Christo’ study (1996) held that the cost of medical education in a self-financing college, without any government subsidy, was about Rs.2.25 lac per annum. Similarly, the average cost of medical education at the Manipal Academy of Higher Education, for the year 1993-94 to 1996-97, was about Rs. 1.60 lac per annum for the post-graduate degrees and diplomas.

Sharma (1994) examined the determinants of educational cost and output at graduate level in sampled 26 graduate and post-graduate government as well as funded colleges of Rajasthan. Keeping all other variable constant, results for the year
1988-89 showed that the average cost curve was found U-shaped, and thus there was ‘optimality’ at the graduate level. Teaching staff, teacher quality and standard were the significant determinants of educational output.

Shrinivasan (1993) estimated the earnings functions with the help of the methodology suggested by Mincer. The data for this purpose were generated through an urban household survey from the Madras city region. The present study made use of the Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) technique, for estimating the earnings functions. This study had also computed the approximate earnings premium associated with the different levels of education. The results of this study suggested that the credentialism hypothesis was less powerful than the human capital hypothesis when the relationship between education and earnings had been established. Finally, there were evidences to show that a higher premium to schooling for urban males was associated with secondary, higher secondary or pre-university course and university education. The returns to education for urban males were found to be 9%.

Sharma (1992) gave the state-wise detailed analysis of recurring and nonrecurring expenditure of the central, deemed and state universities for higher general institutions from the period 1982-85. The study revealed the income pattern, budgeting and accounting of finances of the university level institutions in India. And, the researcher suggested following recommendations: (i) the universities should be given financial autonomy; (ii), the heads of departments should be delegated adequate financial powers; and (iii) the universities must prepare an accounts for themselves.

Sahoo (1990) studied the private costs of P.G. students of Arts and Commerce disciplines of Himachal University keeping in view the independent variables like nature of courses and residential background of students. Mean average and chi-square tests were used for analysis of data. Total private cost for M.A. and M. Com. Students were Rs. 3757 and Rs. 5873 respectively. While around 90% of students’ expenditure was incurred as non tuition costs, the remaining 10% was spent for tuition cost. Commerce students’ expenditure was significantly higher than those of their Arts counterparts with regard to boarding, lodging and travelling and miscellaneous heads. While there did not exist significant difference between day scholars and residential students with regard to tuition costs and expenditures on books and
stationeries, total private costs of residential students were almost seven times higher than that of day scholars. Certainly economically poor parents found it difficult to bear high rate of expenditure on higher education of their off springs.

Chusmin and Koberg (1990) studied ethnic differences in the relationship between job satisfaction and sex role conflict among Hispanic and Non-Hispanic white individuals. Finding of the study showed that the HPs sex role conflict was not correlated with any facts of job satisfaction. For whites, sex role conflict was correlated with satisfaction with work, pay, promotion and supervision.

Kumar, Anand and Furukawa (1989) tested the hypotheses that supportive supervision and co-workers social support positively affected the employees’ satisfaction with the work climate and that the correspondence of such supervision and social support on employee satisfaction with the job climate was highly valuable in the case of low job awareness. (i.e. level of acceptance and perceived pleasantness of job). Questionnaire from 126 employees were analysed. In addition to the significant main effects of supportive supervision and co-workers social support, a significant interaction effect between supportive supervision and job awareness was obtained. This interaction suggested that supervision was very important in increasing job satisfaction when workers had low level of job awareness.

Dube (1987) has done a cost Benefit Analysis: A case study of the employees of Educational Institution of Allahabad city. The researcher found that Higher education took more time and money but gave more benefits as well as monetary and non monetary benefits. The researcher made a comparison between male and female employees.

Ramachandran (1987) attempted to analyze the problems of higher education in India with special reference to the Kerala state for the period 1952-75. The study revealed huge growth in students’ enrolment, number of institutions and expenditures during the study period. But the growth of expenditure was found to be higher as compared to enrolment and institutions. The bulk of public expenditure on higher education was spent on development and maintenance of arts and science colleges in Kerala, and the salary constituted the largest component in the total cost of education.
While analyzing the cost of education, Kiranmayi (1989) studies the role of organizational structure, financial management and their weaknesses in the universities. It discussed the pattern of income and expenditure of the universities and suggested that there was an urgent need to evaluate their financial management. Ramamurthy (1989), in his study, tried to analyze in the case of Delhi University the impact of introducing computer system on its financial management. For this, the study take into account the financial performance, resource allocation, per student cost of different departments and percentage of expenditure of different heads.

Tilak (1987) while analysing the economic returns to investment in education of the weaker sections as compared to others, estimated the costs by levels of education, sex and caste groups. He found that while total social cost increased with the level of education, institutional cost formed only a relatively small part of total social cost, its major component being private cost. The total social cost of women’s education was higher than that of men at school level while at the intermediate and higher levels, the two costs are almost equal. But the private cost per pupil was higher for men than for women except at secondary and higher professional levels whereas the institutional cost was larger for women than for men at all levels. The private and social costs of education of the backward castes were lower than those of non-backward castes. The study also showed that in spite of the existing discrimination in employment and wages against the weaker sections of society, investment in education of the weaker sections pays higher dividends. The findings provide an economic rationale for allocating more funds for the education of weaker sections.

Marar, R. P. and Eraser, S. E. (1986) studied A Cost-benefit Analysis of the Harijan education program of Kerala, India. This study examined various aspects of a special program of education called the Harijan Education Program operated by the Kerala state Government (India) for the education and advancement of a severely disadvantaged group of people called the Harijans of Kerala. An evaluation through CBA showed that the net present value of the program and its redistribution benefits in favour of the Harijans were both negative and hence the HEP was not directly an economically viable program.
Rajkumari (1986) presented the vital points in the theoretical reconstruction of cost and benefit analysis of college education. In cost analysis, the three main components were student cost, institutional cost and opportunity cost. In the institutional cost (excluding value of college buildings), mainly three headings were undertaken. They were: (i) maintenance expenditure; (ii) non-recurring expenditure; and (iii) students-fund expenditure. After detailed analysis of cost of college education, it was noted that average cost of all the three attributes were different. The behaviour of cost per institution for all the colleges on different attributes was also in different order. Taking all colleges together, the institutional cost has increased by 47 per cent during the study period. The study also showed that among the total cost, opportunity cost has made a big contribution, followed by student cost, and institutional cost.

Sekaran (1986) compared the difference in three quality of life (OOL) variables – job satisfaction, life satisfaction and mental health. Findings indicated that:

- Career orientation had a greater influence on the perceived OOL and other factors than gender difference.
- There was no strong support that the factors based on the gender or on the career orientations, and
- The multiple role stress experienced made a significant difference in how job satisfaction was predicted for the professionals as opposed to the non-professional women.

Todaro (1985) discussed the issues of demand for and supply of education and concluded that private costs of education were inversely related to the demand for education. Private costs were high at low level of education because of the low government subsidies. Nair (1990), in his study, described the various types of costs and their return in the case of higher education. In the case of private cost of education, the study estimated the average per year expenditure on higher education in Kerala and showed that tuition fees accounted for minor proportion in the postgraduate courses during 1985-86.
Garg (1985) argued that the unit cost was most often expressed in terms of per student enrolled, but these can be expressed in other definable units such as per student graduated. The main classification of educational costs by the incidence of burden was (a) institutional costs which is sum of (i) current or recurring or operating costs and (ii) capital costs; (b) household or private costs which include (i) net tuition costs, i.e. fee paid minus financial aid received by a student and (ii) non-tuition costs; (c) social costs which is sum of (i) institutional costs (current costs and capital costs), (ii) private costs (non-tuition costs) and (iii) earning foregone. This was the first study which calculated per unit cost of higher education both at the institutional and private levels in Punjab. The main conclusions of study were: (i) unit cost of education both at current and capital level had shown an upward trend; (ii) science departments had higher unit cost than that of others; (iii) salary component constituted the major proportion of recurring cost in each department; (iv) subsidization of unit costs from public funds had increased over a periods of time; (v) economic status of university students was better than that of affiliated colleges; and (vi) demand for higher education was high from the households belonged to the administrative and professional services.

Ram, S. (1984) has evaluated the correspondence education in terms of academic performance as an indicator of benefit. The findings were: 1. Total cost per unit of correspondence education in different Indian universities differed from university to university. 2. The quantitative output of correspondence education in different Indian universities differed significantly but the quantitative output of Meerut University was very near to the average quantitative output of Indian universities. 3. The quality of academic performance of students of correspondence education in different Indian universities differed significantly but the quality of academic performance of students of correspondence education in Meerut University was slightly superior to the average quality in Indian universities as a whole. 4. In respect of Meerut University, the total cost per unit of correspondence education was lower than the total cost per unit of regular university education; institutional cost per unit of correspondence education was less than the institutional cost per unit of regular education. Student cost per unit of correspondence education was lower than the student cost per unit of regular education though the difference was not
significant. Teacher cost per unit of correspondence education was significantly less than the teacher cost per unit of regular education. The non-teacher cost per unit of correspondence education was significantly lower than the non-teacher cost per unit of regular education. The total cost per unit of correspondence education was significantly higher than the total cost per unit of private education, and student cost per unit of correspondence education was higher than the student cost per unit of private education. 5. Academic performance of correspondence education was not higher than the academic performance of regular education both in quantity and quality. 6. The academic performance of correspondence education was better than the academic performance of private education both in quantity and quality. There was significant difference between academic performance of correspondence and private education. 7. The academic performance of regular education was significantly higher than the academic performance of private education. 8. The system of education having higher cost per unit was found to give better academic performance. 9. Students and teachers of correspondence education had a favourable attitude towards it. The attitude of teachers was more favourable than that of students but the difference was not significant. 10. The male students of correspondence education had a favourable attitude and female students had an unfavourable attitude towards correspondence education. 11. Employed students had a favourable attitude and unemployed students had an unfavourable attitude towards correspondence education.

Yadav (1984) analysed the rate of return of the B.Ed students of Dayalbagh Teaching Institution enrolled in the session 1982-83 and found that only 32 % pupil teachers were employed in which percentage of males are higher than females and 66 % were trying for employment among those percentage of females were high.

Debi (1983) had done the Cost- benefit analysis of Higher education: A case study of Orissa. The main findings of the study were: 1. The cost of higher education in Orissa was relatively low in comparison with that in other states of the country, excepting the professional graduate courses. 2. The earning structure of educated persons in Orissa varied from sector to sector. 3. The age-earnings profiles (social and private) also had the general characteristics of 'well-behaved' profiles, with few
exceptions. 4. The effect of educated people in Orissa increased as one moved upward to higher levels of education. 5. The effect of education on earnings was 23.2 per cent for general undergraduates, while the corresponding figures for general graduates and for general postgraduates were 30.43 and 35.69 per cent respectively. 6. The rates of return to professional undergraduates were highest among all other levels of higher education. 7. The unadjusted social rate of return to professional undergraduate was 26.25 per cent and the private rate of return was 32.95 per cent. 8. The rates of return to general graduates were highest among all other levels and types of education. 9. The adjusted private rate of return to general graduates was 11.50 per cent and the social return was 9.52 per cent. 10. The rates of return decreased as people moved upward to higher levels of higher education. 11. The private rates of return were always higher than the social rates of return. 12. The rates of return to professional graduates were lower than the rates of return to general graduates, general undergraduates and general postgraduates. 13. The private rates of return to all levels and types of higher education were higher than the alternative rates. 14. The adjusted rates of return were very low due to the pronounced influence of other socioeconomic variables on earnings of individuals. 15. Investment in different levels and types of education was not socially profitable since the estimated social rates of return were lower than the alternative rates. 16. The rates of return estimated for Orissa were higher than the rates of return for other states as calculated in other studies.

The study done by George (1982) measured the private and social costs of higher education in Tamil Nadu for the period 1960-76. He found that private expenditure on professional education was higher than that of general education. He also points out that the poor communities lagged behind than the urban based families who were enjoying the maximum benefits of higher education. Gupta (1982) and Shah (1987) estimated private costs of college education and found that among the main components of private cost, fee consisted of a very small proportion of the total private cost.

Kumaran (1982) had studied the cost of education in Annamalai University during the post independent Era. The main findings were: 1. The revenue at current rates increased from Rs 12.03 lac in 1947-48 to Rs 114.66 lac in 1978-79; at 1961-62
prices the increase was from Rs 18.90 lac in 1947-48 to Rs 34.55 lac in 1978-79. 2. At 1961-62 prices, the per student revenue was Rs 1040.42 in 1947-48 and Rs 486.44 in 1978-79. 3. Academic fees (51.8 per cent) and income from other sources (endowments and grants-36.6 per cent) formed the major sources of revenue. 4. At current prices, the total cost of education in the university in the year 1947-48 was Rs 11.80 lac and in 1978-79 Rs 114.02 lac, and per student cost was Rs 649 in 1947-48 and Rs 1605 in 1978-79; at 1961-62 prices the total costs for the two years were Rs 18.54 lac and Rs 34.36 lac and the per student cost Rs 1020 and Rs 484. 5. The administration cost and miscellaneous cost had fallen and academic cost had increased during the period. 6. The salary of the teachers formed 38.3 per cent of the total cost and the salary of the non-teaching staff 19.5 per cent. 7. The per student total cost was high for the agriculture faculty (Rs 2004.50) and low (Rs 763.53) for the education faculty. 8. The per student teaching cost in the humanities was high (Rs 1734.70) for the Department of Linguistics and low (Rs 31.94) for the Department of Tamil; in the sciences it was high (Rs 1527.54) for the Marine Biology Department and low (Rs 148.00) for Mathematics; in the professional courses it was high (Rs 1191.32) for the Department of Agriculture and low (Rs 252.78) for the Department of Education.

Madi (1982) highlights the efficiency of public Expenditure on Social Service: A Cost-Benefit Analysis of General Higher Education in Karnataka. The major findings were: 1. Of the three, age, schooling and family income, number of years of schooling appeared to be the least important variable for determining returns (earnings). 2. Family income was a significant variable in explaining the earnings of a general double graduate. 3. For all the three types of education (science, arts and double graduation), all the three factors- schooling, family income and age-together explained 61 per cent of the earnings. 4. The investment in general undergraduate courses was most profitable in Karnataka. Next to that was the investment in general postgraduate courses and general double-graduation courses. 5. The opportunity for higher education was confined largely to better-off classes. 6. On the cost side, the cost of higher education (up to double-graduate level) in Karnataka was much less subsidized as com- pared to the subsidy in India as a whole. 7. On the benefit side, large variations were found in the earning patterns of educated people in public and
private sectors. Pay scales in general did not bear any exact relationship with academic qualification.

Pandey (1980) tried to measure The Economics of Correspondence Education in Indian Universities. The following were the major findings of the study: 1. There was a significant difference between correspondence courses and regular courses with respect to recurring income. 2. Correspondence courses supported themselves without government subsidy and mostly depended on students' contributions. 3. No difference was marked with regard to non-recurring income between regular and correspondence courses. 4. On total income, there existed differences between the two streams. 5. The differences in recurring and non-recurring expenditures of regular and correspondence education were not significant, although their heads of expenditure were not similar. 6. Significant differences existed between per student expenditure on direct cost, indirect cost and total cost at enrolled and appeared level, whereas no significant difference was marked with regard to direct cost per student for pass level. 7. There existed differences between per student expenditure on indirect cost and total cost at pass level. 8. There was no difference in terms of wastage cost per student at direct, indirect and total levels of regular and correspondence streams. 9. The difference of direct cost per student (failure) of two streams was not significant, but the differences of indirect cost and total cost per student (failure) of the two streams were significant. 10. For all enrolled, appeared, passed students of graduation courses, correspondence education was found to be more economical, as the total cost-benefit per student was Rs 2823 in 1978 current prices.

Sharma (1980) in order to assess the cost and efficiency in Indian university system, made a unit cost study of the universities located in Delhi. The study also compared per unit cost of general and professional courses for the period 1974-75 to 1976-77. The per unit current cost was estimated under the four heads: teaching; student welfare; supporting services; and examination, and the capital cost were classified into four categories: buildings; equipments; libraries; and others. The study concluded that operating cost per student in affiliating universities was higher compared to that of residential universities. Subrahmanyam (1982) by studying the expenditure and financing pattern of Andhra University, showed that on the
expenditure side, major proportion was consumed by the teaching departments (between 40 per cent and 69 per cent). Further, in per student cost, larger differences were found in the non-tuition components of the cost (general administration 20 per cent to 30 per cent, library 2.58 per cent to 9.12 per cent) rather than in the tuition cost among the students belonging to the different income strata of the society.

Tilak (1979) on the basis of data on higher education in India relating to the year 1975-76, computed the unit cost of education by various components for the different states/union territories in India. The researcher was also attempted to formulate a cost function with an objective of explaining differences in unit cost between different states/union territories. The wide differences had been found in unit cost of different type of higher education such as general, professional and other types. Similar differences were also found in the analysis of component-wise unit cost among different states/union territories as well as for different types of education. In the general education, the average salary of the teacher varies between Rs. 19,546 in Lakshadweep and Rs.975.64 in Tamil Nadu. The student-teacher ratio ranges from 61 in U.P. to 6 in Sikkim and Pondicherry. The size of institution varies between 64 in Tamil Nadu and 2,387 in U.P. Similar picture emerged in the case of professional education. The average salary of the teacher in Chandigarh was more than Rs. 30,000 and Rs. 3,871 in Mizoram. The student-teacher ratio varies between 6 in Mizoram and Pondicherry compared to 35 in Meghalaya. The range in size is also quite big the lowest figure was 30 in Mizoram with 803 in Chandigarh. Wider inequalities persist in the case of other education. In West Bengal, average salary of the teacher was Rs.1990.50 while Rs. 716 in Manipal.

Chalam (1978) analyzed the cost of education in colleges of Andhra University. The study calculated the institutional and private cost in the colleges. And, it was observed that institutional cost per student was almost double in the science faculty as compare to the arts. The comparative study of cost in both faculties has proved that major component of costs in science faculty was related with the common services. In arts, however, the teaching cost was the major component of unit cost. Similarly, private cost of former is less and social cost is more and private expenditure of the students was mostly influenced by socio-economic background of
the students. Ramanujan (1979), while making a comparative study of the per student
cost in the institution of Jammu and Kashmir found that more than 80 per cent of the
total expenditure of university was consumed by salaries and very less was spent on
library and laboratories.

Prakash (1978) had developed a detailed methodology for the calculation of the unit cost of education. Moreover, the researcher had developed input-output models of education with an application to the Indian data. The researcher had made estimates of cost of higher education in the country. He had tried to develop the educational deflators by using various inputs and their prices over the time. In the case of education, no separate educational deflators were available and most of the time the consumer price index or income implicit deflators were used. The researcher identified various determinates of cost of education and developed the cost of education function. Among others, the major determinants were the academic costs, particularly the salary level, structure of providing basic instructions, research guidance and supervision.

Verry and Layared (1975) estimated the unit cost for all U.K. universities (except Oxford and Cambridge). The results showed the high marginal cost of post graduates and fixed cost of university central facilities was about $310 in Arts and Social Sciences to $115,000 a year. Undergraduate costs ranged from $710 in Arts to $2100 in Physical Sciences.

Kamat (1973) made a detailed study of arts, science, commerce and technical education. It also compared the unit recurring cost of education at various levels in the University of Poona and found that unit recurring cost of science education was more than the arts and commerce education. In commerce, arts and science degree courses the unit costs were about Rs 1200, Rs. 1500 and Rs. 1800 respectively. The cost of science courses was higher due to the cost of laboratories and equipments. Similarly, cost of PG courses was four or five times more than degree courses. The cost of technical and professional education like the engineering and medicine at the degree level was four or five times higher than that of the general higher education. Kamat made a very good attempt of comparing the cost of general higher and professional education.
Mehrotra, R. N. (1973) had studied the effect of teacher education programmes on the attitude of teachers towards the teaching profession with the objective to compare the attitudes of full time and correspondence course students, men and women students, students of science and humanities, among different age groups and among different groups according to the length of teaching experience. The finding of the study are: i) In all cases the attitude scores were less as the time passes, that is, the attitude of the teacher-trainees had gone down instead of improving as the course proceeded. ii) The attitude of women students was better than that of men and the attitude of male students of the correspondence course was better than that of the full-time course men, both at the beginning and the end of the course. iii) The attitude of full time science students was better than that of the Humanities students, while in the correspondence course group, the attitude of humanities students was better than that of science students. iv) The attitude was better with higher age group. It increased as the age increases except a decrease in between for the age group 32-26. Probably, it was by this time that initial enthusiasm in the profession wears off and disillusionment and frustration sets in. But by the end of this period, the person, as if, gives in and accepts his fate as a teacher. V) The attitude improved with more teaching experience except for the group with 13-17 years of experience.

Pandit (1972), in his study, described the social and private cost of the resources used in the educational process. This was the first study in India where the capital cost of education has been measured by calculating the stock of physical capital. The study also analyzed the share of direct cost and opportunity cost in the total private cost, and found that the share of direct cost (tuition and non-tuition) in the total private cost had declined, while the share of opportunity (income foregone) cost had risen. It showed that the students’ contribution was becoming more and more prominent in the private cost of education. As far as institutional cost was concerned, per unit current cost had risen while the capital cost remained constant. Thus, increase in the social cost and that of the share of private cost in the social cost indicated the increasing participation of private sector in education.
Chaudhry and Rao (1970) measured the private and social returns of Delhi Graduates. The objective of this study was to measure the private and social rates of return to investment in various degrees offered at Delhi University. The study corresponds to the graduates of 1954 (GOI 1962). The findings of the study were: all the students from Delhi University did not succeed in getting employment immediately after graduation, and the rest were absorbed gradually. The private rates of return on all the degrees were, as expected, considerably higher than the all-India average (8.1 percent) for bachelor’s and master’s degrees as reported by Nalla Gounden (1967). What comes as a surprise to us was that these private internal rates of return were even higher than what could be obtained from investment in the industrial sector of the Indian economy (16-20 percent) (Herberger 1965).

Dutt (1969) tried to measure the recurring unit cost of education in Haryana on the basis of sampled 28 colleges of which 24 colleges were private and four were government owned. It found main factors affecting the unit cost of education: age of the college; student enrolments; average pay of teacher; and ratio of non-teacher to total teachers. Among all the four component of unit cost of education, salary emerged as the main component. For measuring of all the four variables, regression and correlation analysis were carried out. Regression analysis revealed separate results both for the private and all colleges together. In the case of private colleges, only enrolment and age of the college had a negative impact on unit cost, and average pay of the teacher and ratio of non-teacher to total cost had a positive impact. On the other hand, correlation analysis of all colleges suggested that, if other variables remain constant, student enrolment was found to be significantly correlated with unit cost followed by average pay of teacher. Neither age of the college nor ratio of nonteacher to total cost have significant impact. One thing which was very much clear in the study was that the cost of education of state and private women colleges was more than their income from all sources. However, in other private colleges, their total income from all sources was more than that of their cost of education.

The study by Shah (1969) analyzed the unit cost of higher education. The study had divided the cost of education into two main components: (a) social cost, (b) opportunity cost. Social cost is again divided into student cost and institutional cost.
In student cost, the researcher pointed out the possibility of double counting in fee and scholarship because at one time it is the income of the institution and at the same time it is also the part of institutional cost. Further, the researcher also felt that there was different unit cost of education of hostellers and day-scholars. Institutional cost could be divided into two parts, recurring cost and non-recurring cost. In non-recurring cost, the main components of cost were capital (land on rent and building) and equipment and in recurring cost they were divisible and non-divisible.

Sharma (1969) highlighted the significance of unit costs in the planning process. The study took into account the nature and different types of unit costs required at different levels of education with special reference to Indian conditions, the nature of available statistics, their coverage gap and their limitations. A method has been developed to measure the cost per student at different levels. Various suggestions were available for improvements in the methodology for the estimation of costs, etc.

Rao (1969) put the main attention on the analysis of the various concept of the cost of education, particularly the higher education, in the developing countries like India. In order to study the cost of education, the researcher adopted several approaches. In one approach, the main component was the cost borne by the students. In other approach it is divided into three parts: (i) institutional cost, (ii) student’s cost and (iii) opportunity cost. Kulkarni’s study (1969) also estimated the unit cost of education from the period 1962-66 at current prices. It showed that the change in pupil-teacher ratio affected the unit cost of education. The decline in pupil-teacher ratio increased the work load of the teachers during the period which also lead the teachers to leave the profession.

Another study by Shah (1969) analyzed the unit cost of elementary education under two components: tuition and non-tuition expenditure. It was found that nontuition expenditure of poor students was low as compared to the rich students. This study pointed out that there were disparities in the educational standard of private and municipal schools. It suggested that this gap could be reduced only either by reducing the burden of tuition cost or improving the quality of teaching.
Panchamukhi (1965) measured the public expenditure on education in India. The study estimated the total cost of education for the period 1950-51 to 1959-60 and concluded that total cost of education constituted 6.2 per cent of GNP in 1959-60. The study also calculated the various components of private and institutional costs of education, foregone earnings for males and females, village and town student separately. The study estimated that foregone earnings constituted major proportion of total factor cost of education. The total cost of education was found to stand between 5 per cent and 6.5 per cent of national income in 1960-61 and not 2.5 per cent of institutional cost alone. Pandit (1969) measured the unit cost of education and efficiency of educational expenditure. The study divided the total cost of education into three categories such as institutional cost, students’ cost and opportunity cost.

Day’s study (1963) focused mainly on the costs of education. For this, the researcher prepared a detailed list of items of expenditure on education and grouped these into six categories: (i) direct expenditure; (ii) meals and tiffin; (iii) students’ health service; (iv) training of teachers; (v) administration and inspections; and (vi) transport services. During the pilot enquiry on the provision of public education, the planning division of the Indian Statistical Institution collected some data on the cost of education for the period 1963 in Madhya gram, an urbanized village in the district of 24 Pargans (West Bengal); ten km away from the Calcutta city. The study presented data on the cost of secondary education, which was collected from five schools in the area. It gave the detailed analysis of receipts and payments, income and expenditure, etc. A consolidated list of assets has been prepared for estimating the depreciation.

**Analysis of the Review**

The foregoing review of available literature revealed that the most of studies revolve around the cost- benefit analysis of education. Adequate attention was not given to the analysis of teacher education which is an extremely important area in the process of education. Moreover, the estimation of institutional cost of education is one of the areas which remained as most neglected in the studies of educational costing. In most of studies, it was evident that even with regard to the estimation of recurring expenditure, maximum attention was paid to salary (teaching and non-teaching),
stationary, consumables, repair and maintenance, communication, sports, etc. However, certain items like the cost of examination, scholarship and stipends, fee concession and publicity, etc., were excluded from the calculation of cost. Similarly, in private cost main focus of the attention was on the tuition cost, however, non-tuition components of private cost of education are still waiting for proper attention. Beside this benefit aspect is still neglected area of concern specifically with reference to returns to teacher education programme. To some extent monetary benefits of education is calculated but regarding the teacher education qualitative benefits are very important also which is almost ignored. As far as qualitative benefits are concerned, the researcher found very few studies with reference to CBA. This statement is true not only for the various states, but also in all India contexts as well. Overall, no full-fledged study was available which evaluated the cost benefit analysis of education in a comprehensive manner. Thus the present study the researcher made an attempt to measure the cost benefit analysis of pre service teacher education programme quantitatively along with qualitative benefits also.