Chapter - II

INVESTING IN EDUCATION
Few economists would probably disagree that it is the country’s human resources, not only its capital or its natural resources that ultimately determine the characteristics and pace of its economic and social development. However, resources constitute the ultimate basis for wealth of nations. Capital and natural resources are passive factors of production; human beings are the active agents who accumulate capital, exploit natural resources, build social, economic and political organizations and carry forward national development. Clearly, a country which is unable to develop the skills and knowledge of its people and to utilize them effectively in the national economy will be unable to develop anything else.¹

The serious setbacks which economic progress in the developing countries has suffered since the early eighties, have added fuel to the discussion about suitable development strategies and whether it is useful at all to elaborate such strategies. Basically the question is whether and to what extent the political, social, economic and cultural tasks of the developing countries - task that are bound to be very complex - can be reduced to a concise formula.

The debate on the formulation of new socio-economic development strategies figures high on the agenda of various institutions and organizations of the UN system. This is mainly due to the serious setbacks which economic progress has suffered in the developing countries; it is due to the fact that the majority of the developing countries are

even more intensively brought under the sway of the laws of the world capital economy, that the TNCs are advancing in international economic relations, and that the imperialist powers are pursuing a policy designed to cement the economic dependence of the developing countries.

2.1 Investing in Human Resources

Human resources are recognised to be both the instrument for and object of development. At the same time, a trained labour force is an indispensable factor of production. Recognition of this fact is at the root of the so called "human-resource-led-development strategy" in which human beings are the focus of development, both as producers and consumers. A human-resource-led development strategy would, therefore, involve a systematic effort to raise the skills, productive capacities, creative abilities and enterprising spirit of the nation's population through training, education and research. Ultimately, the self reliance of the developing countries and the soundness of their production strategies can only be achieved by developing human resources.²

In response to the colonial nation's retardation, deformation and destruction of human productive forces, the anticolonial movements in African and Asian countries came to regard the struggle for the liberation of the millions of people from this yoke and the promotion of their creative powers as a major objective. These issues gained in

² UNIDO, Background Paper, Accelerated Development of Human Resources for Industrial Development, ID/Conf 5/9, 12 Jan, 1984, p.3.
significance after the imperialist colonial system had been finally smashed because now the task is to find adequate ways of developing and promoting human productive forces, to put them into programme of action and to translate the latter into social changes.

The programme varied from country to country and in the course of time the main features contained in them were mostly the ideas of social justice, a reorientation towards national cultural values and experience and the task of mobilizing the people's forces. Social problems seemed to be gradually soluble by providing education. The educational system was often considered an independent variable in social development. It was ascribed the role of a kind of initial ignition to the process of social development.

The specific problems of the developing countries' educational systems did not only become a topic of heated discussion among these countries, but provoked much comment internationally. This was due to the fact that many leading figures, particularly from Asian and African countries, had been trained in their former "mother countries" and continued to be in intellectual contact with theoreticians, practical men and scientific institutes of such countries. Participation of the developing countries in the activities of the UN and various international fora contributed considerably to internationalize the discussion of the developing countries' social and educational issues.

The claims and programmes of Marxist forces have stressed that social progress for the masses of people can only be gained by transforming the material conditions i.e., the productive forces and the relations of production - in the direction of socialism. Most official programmes of the developing countries, however, have been marked by
reformism and the dissemination of education has been regarded as the key to social progress.

Western education economists intensified their efforts to prepare the introduction of manpower and educational planning to developing countries. A group of experts from the Federal Republic of Germany defined their objective as follows: "The point was to build "strategic human capital" for the developing countries' human resources development strategy. This had to be planned. National, mainly economic development planning was to go along with manpower and educational planning. The latter, in consent with economic planning, was to help provide the labour force educational qualifications needed for the implementation of the development programmes. Hence, it was logical that development planning, economic planning, manpower planning and educational planning had to go together. 3

If, however, an attempt is made to apply the results obtained from research in education economics to societies which are not only marked by a comparatively low stage of development of their productive forces but also by the simultaneous existence of differing relations of production, then something is expected of the system of education and training which it cannot accomplish on its own - to shake off the strong chains of the various outdated relations of production. Similarly, the more or less democratic educational system reaching the majority of the people in today's developed capitalist

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countries could be established only by opposition to the feudal forces. This struggle was political in character.

Attempts to apply findings of bourgeois economics of education to developing countries disregard the fact that influential and mostly well-to-do classes and strata have their material basis of existence exactly in the backward socio-economic strategies. Qualitative changes in the production and an improvement of the working population's situation cannot be achieved by the supply of education alone, because there is not enough room for such changes within the given social condition. In other words, the social conditions themselves need to be changed. This process cannot be thrust upon these countries "from the top" and much less "from outside". The aims mentioned above can be reached only when the masses of the working people are actively involved in this process.

Practical experience even shows that if educational institutions are established and extended without simultaneously changing the social conditions, this may be counterproductive. It is particularly in rural areas of developing countries that large numbers of adolescent school-learners tend to leave their rural home for a town or city to find an "appropriate" job there. As a rule, this is due to combination of two problems. First, no significant changes in the productive forces are possible without changes in the rural relations of production, with their structures of ownership and interest and the strong influence exerted by traditional ideologies. The second problem which can often be observed consists of the fact that curricula are not sufficiently adapted to rural production
and living conditions.

Since they ignored the class interests produced by the given social structures, bourgeois theoreticians maintained that the educational system had initiated a movement leading to more social justice. In view of the social distinctions which are apparent in the educational system too, and particularly so, between the educational institutions for the masses on the one hand and those for the upper classes on the other, they were unable to maintain this connection. That is why it was altered to the effect that it is the development of primary education in the first place that creates more social equity.

In the context of commenting on criteria for spending priorities, the World Development Report 1980 notes in respect of primary education: "There are also favourable effects on equity. As primary education becomes more widespread, additional spending will be increasingly concentrated on backward areas, girls and the poorest urban boys. In general, primary education tends to be redistributive towards the poor. In contrast, public expenditure on secondary and higher education tends to redistribute income from poor to rich, since children of the poor parents have comparatively little opportunity to benefit from it."

When trying to assess the effects that can be produced by shifting spending priorities in favour of primary education, the existing differences in the levels of public expenditure on primary education and that on higher education should not be ignored. According to the data gathered by the World Bank, spending on the latter in developing

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countries was eight to a hundred times that on primary education.\textsuperscript{5} This goes to show that even a considerable increase in the spending on primary education does not bring about a fundamental change in the proportion of the sum spent on the education of a poor to that spent for the upper classes. As it has been rightly suggested by Adam Curle that "countries are underdeveloped because most of their people are underdeveloped, having no opportunity of expanding their potential capacities in the service of the society".\textsuperscript{6}

Now analysing the development models followed in the developed and the developing countries, it is clear that the developed countries have followed a particular model of development in which they have given priority to both economic growth and investment in the social sectors. In contrast to this, the developing countries have followed the model in which priority was given to the economic growth and the investment in the basic needs was believed to occur automatically as the spillover effect of the high economic growth. However, the failure of automatic investment in the social sectors, has put these countries in the vicious circle of underdevelopment.

In the developed countries, the first and foremost objective was to universalise primary education and after doing so they have shifted to secondary education giving emphasis to vocational training and developing the skill of the masses according to the needs of the mode of production. Then only, they have shifted to professional and

\textsuperscript{5} Ibid, p.46.

technical education in order to have a smooth functioning of the economy. Following this model, they have become able to provide a wide base to the existing educational systems.

In the case of developing countries during the colonial period the existing indigenous form of education system was completely spoiled and the colonial rulers followed a typical model in all the Afro-Asian countries to the need of their rule. Neglecting the universal access to primary education, they went for creating a low level bureaucracy in which they give emphasis to secondary education. Besides the drainage of resources from this region during the colonial period brought in a stagnating economy and the policy of deindustrialisation followed during the colonial period, made the economy weak. Along with this, the imposition of the western educational system and values, proved to be fatal to the existing indigenous educational system. In order to have short-term benefits, the colonial rulers followed the policies to their benefit which ultimately brought in an unbalanced educational system in these societies.

2.2 Pattern of Development in South Asia

In the 1940s and 1950s, amidst the process of decolonialization in South Asia, a number of ideas caught the imagination of South Asian scholars and ruling elites. These includes the instant creation of new nation states (with the illusion of transfer of political powers), and ground vision of progress through modernisation and industrialization and the action of a single interdependent economic system. Taken together, these ideas
appeared to provide a coherent paradigm that was to mould the destiny of the South Asian region for the next half century. Few hard critical reviews were made of the processes - economic, social and political - that followed the adoption of this paradigm. This uncritical acceptance was also extended to the more specific economic development intervention that was an integral part of the paradigm.  

South Asia is predominantly a rural society, but the dominant development model adopted is both indifferent and inimical to rural development. The chosen model has three major components: central planning, industrialisation and expansion of modern sectors as a means of rapid economic growth and take off and assistance from developed countries to bridge the savings, foreign exchange and technological gap. It is assumed that the rural South Asia would be carried on the back of a modern urban industrial sector until a new society is created. With the benefit of hindsight, it is now evident that the working of the model has not only failed in its own terms, but has also caused fundamental damage to the possibility of these new nations mobilizing their own resources - peoples, natural and financial - to sustain the process.  

Therefore, the need for an alternative approach has initiated a debate and discussion in which the definition of development in narrow economic terms is insufficient and the concept of development they presented in the late 1970s was in terms

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8 Ibid, p.5.
of fundamental humanistic values and is people centered rather than narrowly techno-economic, as in the old model. The core of the objective they seek is the de-alienation of man vis-a-vis the material forces of production and society and a purposeful growth of human personality. The study further seeks to understand how the creative initiative of the people of South Asia may be realised and mobilized for the all round development of these lives. In short, the objective is to achieve a sustainable relationship between man, nature and growth.

The need of the hour is to redefine the objectives of development in human terms, structural shifts and a total mobilization effort suitable to the ecological and technological reality, as well as potential. Redistributive justice cannot be the only issue. The new framework must reflect an integration of available knowledge and sense of purpose which goes beyond the narrow view of development. In this respect the focus should be given to the human development index.

The "human development index" gives a new way of measuring human development - by combining indicators of life-expectancy at birth, educational attainment and income. The ideal would be to reflect all aspects of human experience. It enables people and their government to evaluate progress over time - and to determine priorities for policy intervention.

Now analysing the ranks of the South Asian countries, the values of the GNP (Gross National Product) per capita varies from 128 to 165 and the range is of 37, whereas in case of human development index the range is of 72; which means nearly the
**Table No.1**

Human Development Indices of the South Asian Countries

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>COUNTRIES</th>
<th>HDI VALUE</th>
<th>HDI RANKGNP</th>
<th>PER CAPITA RANK</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sri Lanka</td>
<td>0.665</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>128</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maldives</td>
<td>0.511</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>132</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pakistan</td>
<td>0.393</td>
<td>132</td>
<td>140</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>0.382</td>
<td>135</td>
<td>147</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bangladesh</td>
<td>0.309</td>
<td>146</td>
<td>159</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nepal</td>
<td>0.289</td>
<td>149</td>
<td>166</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bhutan</td>
<td>0.247</td>
<td>162</td>
<td>165</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


double of the earlier one. Primarily this variation has been due to the social development in Sri Lanka and Maldives exclusively in primary education and the corresponding effect on the life expectancy which could help them in achieving a good rank in the HDI value.

In the rest of the South Asian countries even though there is not much of difference in the per capita income, the neglected social sector has put them in a very humiliating position in the HDI value. In this context the negligence of the governments of the South Asian countries, especially failing to invest in the social sector and rethinking of the priorities.
The paradigm of sustainable human development values, human life for itself does not value life merely because people can produce material goods - important though that might be. Nor does it value one person's life more than another's. No new born child should be doomed to a short life or a miserable one merely because that child happens to be born in the "wrong class" or in the "wrong country" or to be of "wrong sex".

Development must enable all individuals to develop their human capabilities to the fullest and to put those capabilities to the best use in all fields - economic, social, cultural and political.

Human development and sustainability are the two essential components of the ethic of universalism. The ethic of universalism clearly demands both intragenerational and intergenerational equity.9

This universalism of life claims - a powerful idea that provides the philosophical foundations for many contemporary policies and underlies the search for meeting basic human needs. It demands a world where no child goes without an education, where no human being is denied health care and where all people can develop their potential capabilities. Universalism implies the empowerment of people. It protects all basic human rights - economic and social as well as civil and political - and it holds that the right to food is as sacrosanct as the right to vote. It demands non-discrimination between all people, irrespective of gender, religion, race or ethnic origin.10

In order to address the growing challenge of human security, a new development paradigm is needed so that the people remain at the centre of development and economic growth is viewed as a means and not an end. Further development needs to protect the life opportunities of future generations as well as the present generations and respect the natural system on which all life depends.

A human-resource-led development strategy would therefore involve a systematic effort to raise the skills, productive capacities, creative abilities and enterprising spirit of the nations' work force through training, education and research. Ultimately, the self-reliance of the developing countries and the soundness of their production structures can only be achieved by developing human resources.

2.3 Education: An Instrument of Investment:

Even though the concept of "inequality in Education" appears to be a concern of the present century, its origin can be traced back to the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries in the west. Some of the mercantilists like Hales and Malynes who were essentially feudalistic in their outlook, wanted education to be confined to specific privileged groups of society. While Edward Misselden and Thomas Mun wanted education to be extended to industrial workers besides merchants, it was William Petty who first advocated equitable distribution of education. Nehenia Green and James Stewart also of the Mercantalist period, advocated mass education so as to increase agricultural
productivity in particular and society's progress in general. Lord Palmerston favoured the spread of literacy and Hovace Mann, a typical example of these reformers, viewed the School as an effective instrument to achieve justice and equality of opportunity and remove poverty.\textsuperscript{11}

However, the early classical economists San Little place education as a strictly economic investment - except as it might contribute indirectly through its effects on population and civic order. Nevertheless, most of them from Adam Smith to Alfred Marshall, including David Ricardo, Thomas Robert Malthus, John Stuart Mill and Nassu William Senior recognised the importance of education. In fact the classical, neo-classical and Marxian economists paid relatively more attention to the micro relationship between education and personal efficiency.\textsuperscript{12}

It was only since the mid-fifties of the present century that economists began paying serious attention to education. Specifically the Presidential Address of Theodore Schultz noted:

"Although it is obvious that people acquire useful skills and knowledge, it is not obvious that skills and knowledge are a form of capital, that this capital is in substantial part a product of deliberate investment, that it has grown in western societies at a much faster rate than conventional (non-human) capital, and that its growth may well be the most distinctive feature of the economic system. It has been widely observed that increases in national output have been large compared with the increases of land,"

\begin{thebibliography}{10}
\bibitem{11} J.B.G. Tilak, \textit{The Economics of Inequality in Education}, (New Delhi, 1987), p.17.
\end{thebibliography}
man hours and physical reproducible capital. Investment in human capital is probably, the major explanation for the differences.\textsuperscript{13}

Schultz then proposed that investment in education be looked upon on a major forum of investment in human capital. Even since, the great analogy between investment in education and investment in physical capital has continued. Many studies have appeared attempting to measure in specific situations the marginal efficiency of this very special kind of investment and have established it as a new species of investment made for economic returns as in all other sectors of the economy. The returns from investment in education following the analogy, become comparable to returns from investment in physical capital for the allocation of resources by investment decision makers.\textsuperscript{14}

Concern for education by economists started some years ago when empirical investigations in the United States revealed that output was growing much faster than inputs as conventionally measured. The part of the growth of output unaccounted for by conventional inputs came to be known as the "residual" or the "co-efficient of our ignorance". Original explanations of the residual such as "technical change" or "shifts of the production function" were of little help analytically.

This led researchers to try open the black box of technical change and reduce the unexplained residual. The main initial development was the quantification of the increase

\textsuperscript{13} T.W. Schultz, "Investment in Human Capital", \textit{American Economic Review}, 51/1 (March), 1-17.

in the quality of labour inputs and this led to creation of a new field in economics known as the "economics of human capital" or more narrowly the "economics of education".

Our education is seen as an investment. The next question would be to know the monetary pay-off from this investment. If the objective is an efficient allocation of resources between different uses, the yield on investment in men has to be compared with that on investment in other forms of capital. Suppose for the moment that the returns to investment in capital can be satisfactorily measured. Thus, if the returns to investment in a particular educational level are higher than the returns to physical capital, we would conclude that there is under investment at this level of education. Conversely, if the returns to human capital are lower than the returns to physical capital, then investment in the second form of capital should be given priority. Therefore at the centre of any discussion of optimal resource allocation lies the concept of a profitability measure of investment in education.15

2.4 The Returns by Educational Level Across Countries

According to investment theory, the rate of return on a project is a summary statistic describing the relationship between the costs and benefits associated with the project. It is defined as the rate of interest which will equate to zero the discounted net benefits. Then if the project’s expected net benefits are $B_t$ per year, extending once a

period of \( n \) years, the internal rate of return \((r)\) of this project is defined by solving equation

\[
\frac{B_1}{(1 + r)^t} = 0
\]

By analogy, the rate of return to a given educational level can be defined by comparing the costs and benefits associated with it.

One of the first distinctions made in the literature of rate of return analysis is that between the private and social rate. The private rate relates to the costs of education or incurred by the individual to the benefits of education as realised by the same individual. In order to calculate the social rate of return to higher education we have to add taxes to the net earnings.\(^{16}\)

Looking first at the social rates of return, the average for primary education is 19.4 per cent, for secondary 13.5 per cent and for higher 11.3 per cent. Private rates show a similar pattern between the primary and secondary (23.7 per cent and 16.3 per cent, respectively) while the rate of return to the university level is 17.5 per cent. This shows the private returns to investment in education is higher than the social returns.\(^{17}\)

On the question of whether investment in the education of men is more profitable than in the education of women, the examination of 8 case studies where the returns for

\(^{16}\) Ibid, p.21

\(^{17}\) Ibid, p.5.
males and females are reported separately shows that on an average, males show higher returns by about 3 percentage points at both higher and secondary levels. The average return for males for primary schooling is 16.3 per cent while that for females is 9.8 per cent. Differences for secondary and higher education are much less pronounced (17.2 versus 15.5 per cent for secondary and 9.6 versus 7.2 per cent for higher respectively). 18

2.5 Primary School Education and Development

Among contemporary development theorists the case for compulsory mass education has rested on four sets of findings. The first is the link between mass education and economic growth, the recognition that the skills, knowledge, beliefs, values and attitudes acquired in the early years of schooling are valuable to those engaged in even relatively low shifted occupations. The capacity of an entire population to acquire new knowledge, skills, values and attitudes is now regarded by development theorists as fundamental to economic growth and material well being. The evidence for this conclusion lies primarily in a variety of studies calculating rates of return from education. 19 These studies demonstrate that the returns for primary education are the highest among all educational levels. Of special interests are the findings that schooling correlates with increases in agricultural production, especially when the opportunity exists


to introduce new technologies. In a survey of eighteen developing countries it was found that farmers with four or more years of primary education produced 13 percent more crops than uneducated farmers. A review of the various studies concluded that four years of schooling usually of the male members of the family, is a threshold for productivity effects.\textsuperscript{20} Each year schooling is estimated to raise output by an additional 2 to 3 percent.\textsuperscript{21} However, education and increased literacy do not lead to agricultural growth in the absence of appropriate agricultural policies.

The second finding is the linkage between female education and fertility rates and the related linkage between education and public health. A reduction in fertility, morbidity and mortality depends in large part upon having a population that is educated to understand causal relationships. A review of fertility studied by S.H. Cochrane at the World Bank found that female education influences the number of children mothers have.\textsuperscript{22} A review of studies on the impact of maternal education on child mortality by John Caldwell concluded that maternal education was the single most significant determinant of differences in child mortality.\textsuperscript{23} A World Bank review found that an


additional year of school for a mother results in a reduction of 9 per 1000 in the mortality of her offspring. Schools may also contribute directly to the health of children when the schools provide free lunches, subsidized milk, immunizations and other health services. Moreover, schooling by removing children from physical drudgery and hazardous risk associated with child labour indirectly improves their physical well-being.

The third finding is the link between education and individual modernity. In a series of well-known cross-natural surveys Alex Inkeles reported that schooling had a greater impact on the development of "modern" attitudes and behaviour than factory experience, urbanization, or media exposure. These and others studies have found that literacy enables individuals to make greater use of new technologies, prepares individuals to enter into new institutions and establish new social networks, increases a sense of being able to control one's future and stimulates interest and participation in politics and civic affairs. These studies note that numeracy and literacy are essential for factioning in a modern society.

The relationship between primary education, mass literacy and political behaviour is the fourth linkage, but the one in which the cause-effect relationships are the most problematic. Mass education has been variously described as a requisite for a democratic political system, a factor in the development of citizen efficacy and political participation.


25 Alex Inkeles and David Smith, Becoming Modern (Cambridge, Harvard University Press, 1974).
and a means of enhancing rationality, increasing norms of tolerance, reducing crime and facilitating national integration. James S. Coleman in his review of the studies, concluded that education can also perpetuate the gap between the elite and the masses and sharpen ethnic divisions, prepare individuals for political participation in either a radical or conservative direction and reinforce as well as weaken prejudices. Nor does education ensure rationality in political behaviour. Education can increase social mobility or can reinforce the existing system of social stratification and when education expands significantly faster than employment the result can be the creation of a class of unemployed school dropouts, whose political orientation towards the polity is marked by disaffection and alienation and whose behavioural disposition is basically aromatic.²⁶

By providing some shared knowledge, values and experiences among as entire population, schooling can enhance the sense of national identity. A common school education with equal educational facilities across regions and classes can facilitate social mobility. Education can break down ascriptive relations and strengthen achievement criteria.²⁷ Primary school education can contribute to political equality at the local level by reducing the powers that those who are educated have had over the illiterate. Illiterates are all too often dependent and subordinate to those who are literate in dealing with laws and with officials. To exercise rights provided by the law, individual must be


FIGURE 1
EDUCATION AND BASIC NEEDS

For society: Raises ability to provide more services

For Individual raises consumption

Basic education

Food and nutrition

Water and Sanitation

Health

Shelter

For Individual: Influences learning ability and stimulates desire for increased knowledge

For society: Raises demand for complex skills necessary beyond individual needs

Productivity

Fertility

Longevity

Leads to more integrated or sectoral developmental activities

able to read.

Besides it is well noted by educational planners and researchers that education is an important basic need, the fulfillment of which has multiplier effects in fulfilling other basic needs, apart from its direct and indirect effects on economic gains. The impact of education is felt not only because education helps in the use of one's personal means to buy food and medicine in a more informed way but also leads to greater utilisation of public health services. This is shown in Fig. 1, which depicts the impact of basic education on other basic needs. In the Fig. 1, when the basic education is provided to the masses, the effect is felt both at individual and societal level. The universal provision of basic education brings in further improvement in food and nutritional status, water and sanitary condition of the people. This brings in a greater demand for health and shelter in the society. The relationship between the subsequent basic needs are shown with the help of arrow marks. Once these conditions are satisfied, the change in the physical quality of life index takes place. It increases productivity, reduces fertility and improves longevity of the people and further leads to more integrated developmental activities.

2.6 Model for Effective Schooling

In this respect there is a need to evolve an effective schooling system which can ensure the overall development of the society by taking the existing structural and operational constraints in the society into considerations. However, in many developing countries, the existing education systems have not been able to meet their objectives.
FIGURE 2

A Model of Effective Schooling

First, they have been ineffective in teaching students the core skills contained in their national curriculum; second, they have not provided all school age children, particularly girls, with the opportunity to attend school. As a result, these primary education systems have jeopardized national efforts to build a human capital base for development.

To address these short-comings, the study undertaken by Marlaine E. Lockheed for World Bank in 1990 came out with a model (Fig. 2). In this model the emphasis is given to the learning system. In order to develop the learning system, there has to be certain changes in the existing curriculum, reading materials, instructional times and teaching pattern at the primary level. For all these, the necessary condition is to provide good pre school training to the students and to maintain the good health and nutritional status of the children.

In order to bring an effective schooling system, family has to play an important role. Because of the poverty, there is a demand for child labour in these developing countries. In order to overcome these inhibiting factors, the parents should be taught to invest in the education of their children. At this level, there is a need on the part of the Government to intervene and invest in its human resources. Besides, the existing education management system should be provided with necessary financial grants and autonomy to initiate effective schooling system by bringing necessary changes in the existing system.

Along with this, there is a greater need to recruit good and well-trained trachers, so that they ensure hundred percent retention. By maintaining a student-friendly
atmosphere in the school, there will be proper participation on the part of the students. This will ultimately result in promotion and completion of the primary education cycle rather than bringing repetition and drop-out.

What is needed at this point of time, is to bring the necessary changes in the existing educational systems to have universalization of primary education. In this respect there has to be a greater cooperation among the parents and the government machineries to ensure an effective primary schooling system in any country without which it is impossible to bring economic development in any society.