CHAPTER III

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

3.1. STUDIES IN INTERNATIONAL SETTING

3.2. STUDIES IN PAN INDIA CONTEXT

3.3. STUDIES IN KERALA SETTING
In order to gain more insight on the research topic and to keep abreast of the gravity of the problems connected with the topic, a comprehensive review of various studies already conducted on the topic and related topics is indispensable. With scientific knowledge explosion, it is essential to have a grasp of what has been done before in the area of research. “The review of related literature involves the systematic identification, location, and analysis of documents containing information related to the research problem” (L.R. Gay 1996). A critical review of literature helps the research process as “a summary of the writings of recognized authorities and of previous research provides evidence that the researcher is familiar with what is already known and what is still unknown and untested. Since effective research is based upon past knowledge, this step helps to eliminate the duplication of what has been done and provides useful hypothesis and helpful suggestions for significant investigation” (Best & Kahn 2004). So a careful review of journals, dissertations and other sources of information is essential in planning research.

The present investigation attempts to study about the working and service conditions of teachers in government and private unaided schools of South Kerala. Though studies with direct link to the research problem are sparse, the investigator has made a fair attempt to review the studies germane to the scope of the present study.
For convenience the studies presented chronologically according to the year of publication of book referred are grouped into the following categories:(a) Studies in the Kerala setting,(b) Studies in pan- India context ,(c) Studies in Kerala setting and presented chronologically according to the year of publication of the book or article.

3.1. Studies in International Setting

3.1.1 Osella and Osella (2000) in their book on Kerala state how education has contributed to Kerala’s progress and social mobility, changes in identity and migration. They also mention Kerala education in a policy sense and gives some ethnography sketches of teachers.

3.1.2. Ronald D. Henderson’s (2004) study on ‘Teacher Unions :Continuity and Change’ states that the National Education Association (NEA) did not begin as a teachers’ organization. The organization began in 1870 as a federation of four organizations representing distinctly different perspectives: the American Normal School Association, the National Association of School Superintendents, the Central College Association, and the National Teachers Association. Discontent with public schools in general and teacher unions in particular has fuelled interest in a variety of reforms: vouchers, charter schools, teacher “pay for performance” plans, and a myriad of school accountability proposals and initiatives. Teacher associations and unions in the United States have a history of providing useful information about classroom instructional practices and school
reforms that dates back to the mid-19th century. The early 20th century saw the establishment of a Research Division that sought out unavailable data on teacher salaries and school finances. It is high time the Union/Association functionaries among our school teachers paid serious heed to Henderson’s observations.

3.1.3 Susan Moore Johnson (2004) in her paper ‘Paralysis Or Possibility: What Do Teacher Unions And Collective Bargaining Bring?’ reveals the factors leading to uniformity and inflexibility, factors promoting variety and flexibility, the introduction of reform unionism and conflicting views within unions. She concludes that the coordinated, concerted work of the national and state unions has fostered uniformity in educational labour relations. Since the 1960s, when teachers began to win collective bargaining rights, the National Education Association (NEA) and American Federation of Teachers (AFT), along with their state affiliates, have lobbied legislators effectively to pass laws favourable to unions and to assist local teachers in organizing, gaining recognition, and negotiating contracts. Well choreographed efforts of national and state unions to promote union practices, standardized procedures to implementing contracts etc. have promoted uniformity in labour practices across USA. Paralysis is not the outcome of teacher unionism. Teachers in an environment of labour management collaboration would see more flexibility and possibilities than limitations in the teacher unions and their collective bargaining. The condition of educational labour relations is more dynamic than it has ever been. Individuals shape the character and outcomes of collective bargaining. Union officials, teachers, principals and school board members should ensure that unionism serves both teachers and students. While some critics
say that collective bargaining in educational sector should be abolished the author concludes that there is little evidence to suggest that collective bargaining will be eliminated and on the other hand its role in the school reform will only continue to evolve.

3.1. 4 Wayne J. Urban (2004) in his article on Teacher Politics considers teachers unions through initiatives as the new unionism of the National Education Association (NEA). The NEA members are a unionized and professional workforce who justify the rigorous defence of public education in an increasingly difficult economic environment and often-hostile political climate. The NEA work by protecting and enhancing teachers’ compensation and benefits, and prepares teacher associations to work effectively and productively in enhancing the quality of education. Teachers’ organizations need to find a way to commit to public education without abandoning the legitimate aspirations of their members to occupational security and to teacher improvement.

3.1. 5 Christine Maitland, Rachel Hendrickson (2004) in “Teacher Unions and Higher Education: A Policy Impact Perspective” opines that during the NEA’s (National Education Association) early years in the late 19th and early 20th century, the higher education community formed the core of the NEA leadership, and higher education issues was a key area of NEA policymaking. After the first 100 years of the NEA’s existence the organization made an effective transition toward becoming a labour union, led by teachers and faculty members and focusing its primary energies on collective bargaining – first in the school arena and soon after in higher education. Most recently, the NEA has sought to synthesize the two roles – that of professional association and union.
3.1.6 Christine E. Murray (2004) in the work “Innovative Local Teacher Unions: What have they Accomplished?” states that many recent teacher quality reforms in USA began through the efforts of local National Education Association (NEA) and American Federation of Teachers (AFT) affiliates. Local unions lead the way in reshaping the work of teachers’ unions around the country and make up the teacher Union Reform Network (TURN) which have offered alternative models for teachers assessment, compensation and professional development. Teachers Unions Reform Network are becoming part of the governance process and is now planning to become a financially self-sustaining and continue to be an incubator of new ideas. With the enactment of the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001, the NEA and the AFT thus will need to find ways to preserve and promote new unionism in the context of the nationally legislated mandates for school accountability and the threats of privatization. Challenges to reform have come as frequently from inside the unions as they have from outside.

3.1.7 Charles Taylor Kerchner, Julia Koppich (2004), in the work “Organizing around Quality: The struggle to organize mind workers” reveals that fiercely individualistic, and protective of their classroom domains, public school teachers were a difficult target for unions. Thus, the successful creation of strong teacher unions in last third of the 20th century stands as a hallmark of organizing. At the end of the century, scholars could assert that no other group has had “increased influence on education policy in recent decades as much as have teachers. Gaining real bargaining and political power created a new era for teacher unions in which they became part of the educational establishment. The recognition that unions were strong created new expectations that they would solve educational problems
in addition to representing their members’ interests in wages and working conditions. If there are problems in the school system, and the union is strong, then the union is responsible either for the fact that the problems exist in the first place or at least responsible for the fact that they are not being addressed. The status and shape of teaching as an occupation and the definition of public education as an institution hangs in the balance. The path of labour relations – its beliefs, practices and policies – will decide the question of what kind of teachers we want. Institutional reorganization is virtually inevitable as there is struggle in which teachers are organized around the shortcomings of the existing institution of public education which has brought it under substantial attack. The AFT and NEA face the problem of organizing the institution of public education in which teaching jobs are organized as mind work rather than as industrial work.

3.1.8 Kideckel (2009) in his article on Kerala public and private spheres opines that there is intense competition between public and private spheres in Kerala. Kerala private education was always richly endowed with Christian schools. Since formation of the modern state, however, Christian schools provided an ideological counterweight and challenge to the (leftist) state sector. There is also an intermediate (“state-aided”) sector, where the state pays teacher salaries and school upkeep and private management, largely Christian, appoints teachers. Given this mixed structure, labour and control issues are especially prevalent in Kerala education.

3.2 Studies in pan India context

3.2.1 Upendra Nath Panda’s (1983) Study on Management, Organisational climate and teachers’ morale in Orissa schools derived from the opinion of
head masters, teachers and the managing committee members of thirteen revenue districts in the state of Orissa reveal that the enrolment of students in private schools is much less compared to those of government schools. No financial deficit has been shown in the government schools under survey as they are fully managed by the government. As regards the private schools all of them face difficulties in finance. There are cases where the private schools misappropriate the school funds. The main weakness of the private schools are their precarious financial position due to uncertainty of government grant and partly to their own increasing and continuing incapacity to raise funds.

As regards the government schools under survey, the teachers get the prescribed scale of pay and D.A. regularly. But in many private schools, the teachers do not get pay and D.A. at the prescribed rates. In some private schools, teachers even do not get their usual increments. Payment is always irregular. These problems are not faced by the teachers of government schools. Regarding financial benefit after service and other fringe benefits, the private school teachers are in a neglected position. Only the Government school teachers enjoy pension, gratuity and provident fund. Therefore, the private school teachers are not at all satisfied with their salary. Most of the teachers are not committed to the profession as they feel that they are denied what is due to them. Thus, financial wretchedness mostly stand on the way of the teachers’ professional integrity and competency. In comparison to government schools, the private schools devote more time on correction of written work and conducting coaching classes.

The scores obtained from the teachers of the schools show that the economic status, social status for government school teachers is distinctly
higher. But as regards the professional competency, the teachers of private schools are more efficient than the government school teachers. It is found that the teachers of government schools bear better morale than the teachers of private schools.

The quality of schooling depends largely on the availability of adequate teaching aids and equipment, teacher qualification and teacher – pupil ratio. The proportion of the better type of schools is greater among the government schools as compared to the private schools.

3.2.2 Kaushalya Saroha (1993) in her thesis on Self concept, Socio economic status and Social adjustment of school teachers in Haryana found that there was no discernible difference in the Socio Economic Status (SES) and social adjustment between male and female government high school teachers. She tries to substantiate that there is close association between female achieved socio economic status and female self concept, there is close association between male achieved socio economic status and male social adjustment and close association between female achieved socio economic status and female social adjustment.

3.2.3 B M Ramakrishna (2004) in his study on the Impact of Privatisation on Labour – special reference to Karnataka (Ramakrishna, 2004) states that the issue of privatisation has attracted much attention in recent years, in the wake of increasing globalisation and liberalisation of world trade. Governments around the world have embarked on privatisation of public enterprises to be better able to withstand competitive pressures and also to have more resources available for the social programmes. Privatisation has opened up the possibility of economic democracy with the widest possible
participation of the public in higher levels of economic return, employment and efficiency. However, the privatisation efforts have not been without adverse social consequences, particularly when they are rushed through without providing adequate measures for workers’ protection. This study examines the impact of privatisation on employment and social security measures with special reference to Karnataka and advocates for social safety provisions for labour affected by the privatisation process and seeks to formulate an effective policy framework for the same. The thesis states that as the global experience with privatisation reveals that there is no uniform or straight forward prescription for privatization there should be well defined labour laws for making public sector commercially viable. Hence more emphasis on job security measures and creation of social safety net to labour is essential in the privatisation process. Ramakrishna’s findings, by and large, have impact on private school education as well.

3.2.4 Mullikottuveettil Mukundan and Mark Bray (2004) examining the decentralisation of education in kerala states that the decentralisation of educational administration has been widely advocated as a strategy to promote local participation in education. However, the fact that this advocacy has a long history raises the question why decentralisation has not been achieved in more educational systems. The present study examines some of these difficulties in Kerala. It determines that although Kerala has a strong reputation for political participation, the rhetoric of decentralisation in the educational sector has not matched the reality there. The lessons to be learned in this context have wide implications for the theory and practice of decentralization in education.
3.2.5 Norms and Standards for a school laid down as per the schedule of sections 19, 25 of Right To Education 2009 (Sanjayan, 2012, p. 63) are as follows:

1. (a) Number of teachers for first class to fifth - above two hundred children the pupil teacher ratio (excluding head teacher) shall not exceed forty. Up to sixty children two teachers, between sixty one and ninety children three teachers; between ninety one and one hundred and twenty children four teachers; between one hundred and twenty one to two hundred children five teachers; above one hundred and fifty children five plus one Head teacher.

(b) Number of teachers for sixth class to eighth class - (1) At least one teacher per class so that there shall be at least one teacher each for – (i) Science and Mathematics; (ii) Social Studies; (c) Languages; (2) At least one teacher for every thirty five children. (3) Where admission of children is above one hundred- (i) a full time head teacher; (ii) part time instructors for-(A) Art Education; (B) Health and Physical Education; (C) Work Education.

2. All weather building consisting of:- (i) at least one class room for every teacher and an office—cum-store-cum Head teacher’s room. (ii) barrier free access. (iii) separate toilets for boys and girls. (iv) safe and adequate drinking water facility to all children. (v) a kitchen where mid day meal is cooked in the school. (vi) playground. (vii) arrangements for securing the school building by boundary wall or fencing.

3. (i) Minimum number working days / instructional hours in an academic year - two hundred working days for and (iii) eight hundred instructional hours for first class to fifth; (ii) two hundred and twenty
working days for sixth to eighth class and (iv) one thousand instructional hours for sixth class to eight class.

4. Minimum number of working hours per week for the teacher shall be forty five teaching including preparation hours.

5. Teaching learning equipments shall be provided to each class as required.

6. There shall be a library in each school providing newspaper, magazines and books on all subjects, including story books.

7. Play materials, games and sports equipment shall be provided to each class as required.

3.2.6. The Gazette of India Ministry of Law and Justice (Legislative Department) (Viswanathan T. K., 2009) lays down in part IV – Responsibilities of Schools and Teachers as follows: (12.) Extent of school’s responsibility for free and compulsory education-(1) For the purpose of the Act, a school - (a) shall provide free and compulsory elementary education to all children admitted therein.(13.) No capitation fee and screening procedure for admission

(18.) No school to be established without obtaining certificate of recognition

(19.) Norms and standards of schools are specified in the Schedule.

(23.) Qualifications for appointment and terms and conditions of service of teachers-(1) Any person possessing such qualification, as laid down by an academic authority, authorized by the Central Government, by notification, shall be eligible for appointment as a teacher. (2) Where a State
does not have adequate institutions offering courses or training in teacher education, or teachers possessing minimum qualification as laid down under sub section (1) are not available insufficient numbers - the Central government may, if it deems necessary, by notification, relax the minimum qualifications for appointment, not exceeding five years, as may be specified in that notification.

(24). Duties of teachers and Redressal of grievances –(1) Teachers appointed under sub section (1)of section 23 envisage the following duties on their part (a) maintain regularity and punctuality in attending school.(b) conduct and complete what is expected of them in the curriculum in accordance with the provisions of sub section (2) and of section 29. (c) complete entire curriculum within the specified time. (d) assess the learning ability of each child and accordingly supplement additional instructions , if any, as required. (e) hold regular meetings with parents and guardians and apprise them about the regularity in attendance , ability to learn, progress made in learning and any other relevant information about the child. (f) and perform such other duties as may be prescribed. (2) A teacher committing default in performance of duties specified in subsection (1),shall be liable to disciplinary action under the service rules applicable to him or her. (Provided that before taking such disciplinary action, reasonable opportunity of being heard shall be afforded to such teacher .(3) The grievance, if any, of the teacher shall be redressed in such manner as may be prescribed.)

(25) Pupil-Teacher Ratio - (1) Within six months from the date of commencement of this Act, the appropriate Government and local authority shall ensure that the Pupil –Teacher ratio, as specified in the schedule , is maintained in each school.(2)For the purpose of maintaining the Pupil – Teacher Ration under sub section (1), no teacher posted in a school shall be
made to serve in any other school or office or deployed for any non-educational purpose, other than those specified in section 27.

(26) Filling up vacancies of teacher- The appointment authority, in relation to a school established, owned, controlled or substantially financed by funds provided directly or indirectly by the appropriate government or local authority, shall ensure that vacancy of teacher in a school under its control shall not exceed ten per cent of the total sanctioned strength.

(27) Prohibition of deployment of teachers for non-educational purposes - No teachers shall be deployed for any non-educational purposes other than the decennial population census, disaster relief duties or duties relating to election to the local authority or State Legislatures or Parliament as the case may be.

(28) Prohibition of private tuition by teacher - No teachers shall engage himself or herself for private tuition or private teaching activities.

3.2.7. Right of children to Free and Compulsory Education Act and Kerala Rules (Sanjayan, 2012) with regards to minimum qualification of school teachers state the following: (1) The government shall provide adequate teacher education facilities to ensure than all teachers in schools who do not possess the minimum qualifications, as laid down by the Academic Authority at the time of commencement of the Act shall acquire such minimum qualifications within a period of five years from the commencement of the Act. (teachers referred to in sub clause (i), (ii),(iv) of clause (n)of section 2)

(2) If a teacher of a school referred who does not possess the minimum qualifications laid down by the academic authority at the time of commencement of the Act, the management of such school shall enable
each teacher to acquire the minimum qualification within a period of five years from the commencement of the Act. (Teacher referred to in sub clauses (ii) and (iv) of clause (n) of section 2)

Provisions related to the Salary, allowance and condition of service of teachers are as follows: (1) The salary, allowances and terms of conditions of teachers of schools referred to in sub clause (i) and (ii) of clause (n) of section 2, shall be fixed by government from time to time. In the case of teachers in unaided schools referred to in sub clause (iv) of clause (n) of section 2, the salary and allowances and terms of conditions of service shall be in accordance with the regulations and guidelines on service conditions and salary and allowances issued by the State Government from time to time

(2) In particular and without prejudice to sub rule(1), while laying down the terms and conditions of service the following matters shall be taken into account. (a) Adherence to the conduct rules and code of professional ethics for school teachers in force (b) Accountability of teachers to the School Management Committee (c ) Provisions enabling long term stake of teachers in the teaching profession.

The Act further lays down the mechanisms for grievance redressal of teachers as follows: (1)The Head Teacher shall examine and redress the grievance of teachers at the school level in the first instance. (2) Where a grievance remains unresolved, the School Management Committee with the Head Teacher as chairperson and four other members of the School Management shall be instituted to redress the grievance. ( provided that no service matters, order of suspension from service, and penalties under
disciplinary proceedings initiated by the education department or the school management shall be taken up before the sub committee)

3.3. Studies in Kerala setting

3.3.1 P. R. Gopinathan Nair (1976) in his work on Education and Socio-Economic Change in Kerala during the period between 1793-1947 finds that in contrast to the tardy growth of education elsewhere in the country, Kerala experienced a continuous process of educational expansion throughout the whole span. Accordingly, a large number of educational institutions emerged in the state both in public and private sector. The socio-economic and educational factors which favoured the changes in Kerala may be of help for regions with low levels of development in their formulation of educational and socio-economic policies.

3.3.2 Sreedhara Menon (1978) in his book ‘Cultural heritage of Kerala - An Introduction’, systematically reports that the Portuguese, Dutch and the British were outstanding contributors in the field of education of Travancore up to the post independence era. The enlightened royal families had always been more than willing to accept the advice and help of western missionaries who were instrumental in the spread of western education right from the beginning of the 19th century. Rani Gawri Parvathy Bai on the advice of Dewan Col. Monroe introduced free and compulsory education in 1817.

The establishment of professional colleges, for instance the Law College, (1874), Ayurveda College (1939) originally called Ayurveda
Patasala (1889), Sanskrit College – upgraded from Sanskrit School (1889), Engineering College (1939), Swathi Thirunal Music College (1931), Medical College (1951), Agricultural College (1951) all situated in Trivandrum, also finds detailed mention in the book.

3.3.3 A Sreedara Menon (1979) in his work on Social and Cultural history of Kerala mentions that a feature of the educational scene in Kerala is the predominance of the private sector. The Christian missionaries have contributed actively to the educational progress of the State, particularly in the Travancore-Cochin area. The result achieved by the Christian missions in the field of education provided the incentive to non-Christian organizations also to enter the field and start institutions of their own in recent times. Since the forties of the century organizations like the Nair Service Society, the Sri Narayana Trust and the Muslim Education Society entered the educational field in a big way and established educational institutions particularly arts and science colleges. Today two-thirds of the schools and eighty per cent of the arts and science colleges in Kerala are in the hands of private agencies.

The dominance of the private sector in the educational fields in Kerala led to certain undesirable results. There were complaints from all quarters that the conditions of service of teachers in private schools and colleges were unsatisfactory. The Government had ultimately to step in and introduce the system of direct payment of salaries to teachers was first introduced in private schools and later in 1972 in colleges on a par with their counterparts in Government service.
3.3.4. P K Micheal Tharakan (1984) while assessing the socio economic factors in educational development of the nineteenth century Travancore brings out the respective contributions of socio economic factors responsible for the establishment, development and diffusion of the school system in nineteenth century Travancore. The indigenous school system provided the base upon which the modern system was created. The demand for education provided by such schools was steady at least in the first half of the nineteenth century. Since the missionaries with their vernacular primary schools supplemented the work of indigenous schools in the early decades and since the government followed a policy of integrating such schools into the formal system later, there was no serious break in educational development in the state throughout the nineteenth century. The second half of the century saw an increase in both the private and government schools. The government school system that assured an emphasis in favour of vernacular and primary education evidently enhanced its contribution to mass literacy. The private schools operating in tune with the demand generated by the requirements of government service also conformed broadly to this pattern.

3.3.5 V. Nagam Aiya (1989) in the Travancore State Manual gives statistical information on the growth of educational institutions in Travancore. The author reveals that vernacular education was amalgamated with the English education in 1860. The role of European
missionaries who pioneered in the field of education are mentioned by citing words of the Dewan from the Travancore Administration Reports. The book reveals history of education by mentioning the role of the Asan (a hereditary village schoolmaster) before the creation of vernacular schools. In 1866 a central school was opened at the Thiruvananthapuram. The education in these schools was modelled on the system in English schools. In 1866-67 all the Vernacular Education Institutions were placed under a Director of Vernacular Education assisted by two Inspectors. The year 1871 saw the inauguration of the Proverty or village schools, one in each village in Travancore. The villagers were to provide the school building, while Government undertook for the payment of a small grant for each pupil to provide the requisite teaching machinery.

For making rules for giving government aid, regulating managements of aided schools etc. a new code of rules known as the “Travancore Educational Rules” of 1894 or Grant-in-aid Code of 1894 (1070 ME) was prescribed. It had conditions related to curricula, qualification of teachers, buildings, accommodation, sanitation, furniture and educational appliances, admission of pupils, inter-school rules and other miscellaneous matters which must be fulfilled before the grants are made. The Grant-in-aid Code of 1894 combined the two systems of grants-in-aid, one for Vernacular schools and the other for English schools and opened educational facilities to all people without distinction of caste or creed.

The introduction of these reforms was beneficial as it ensured an increase in general inspection. Aided schools have been subjected to a more rigorous supervision and this has contributed to their increased efficiency. In addition to the improvement in the already existing educational institutions,
government paid attention to the needs of particular educationally neglected localities. In 1902 a revised curriculum of studies was introduced, and the schools were classified as High, Middle, Upper Primary and Lower Primary. High and Middle Schools were further classified as ‘English’ and ‘Vernacular’ Schools.

The author presents statistics -comparing the increase in number of pupils between the years from 1894 to 1904, the number of colleges and schools for girls at the end of 1903-04, progress of female education between 1894-1904, number of primary schools between 1894 to 1904, number of schools for backward classes and number of pupils in 1903-04 etc.

3.3.6 Stany Thomas’(1993) doctoral thesis “Politics of Higher Education in Kerala: A study of politics of reform”, emphasizes that the progress in education in Kerala was due to the social initiatives of the last two centuries, spearheaded by social reformers, enlightened rulers and missionaries. Educational activities during the second phase was headed by community/caste based organizations who opened large number of schools under the support from the state. This period also saw the communalization and commercialization of education. These pioneers of education also developed into pressure groups who resented government control resulting in deterioration of quality of education. In early educational efforts most educational agencies irrespective of caste or creed received support from the government in setting up their institutions. The community leaders of those times showed commendable social commitment in this process of enlightenment. Though in terms of literacy and gender equality Kerala has been impressive, in terms of quality of education she has been lagging. This
has led to the emergence of private unaided educational institutions for providing quality English medium education. These private institutions have been flourishing in the liberal policy era.

School selection is household related and school related. The middle and upper middle income group consider education as a private good and a tool for better jobs and better lifestyle. Low income groups choose government schools due to the ease of access and affordability despite their lower quality. Physical infrastructure facilities of government schools are lower than private unaided schools but in terms of human resource, government and aided schools were better than private unaided schools. In teaching learning process, government schools, as opposed to private unaided schools, functioned on a routine basis. So students in such schools have lesser motivation. Unaided schools had regular evaluation and remedial classes. This results from the difference in accountability and monitoring in the two systems.

In government and aided schools tuition fee was nominal. The highest non-fee expenditure in the same sector was private tuition followed by uniform, books etc. Fee component in aided schools was 25 to 40 per cent higher than in government schools. The proportion of fee and non-fee component was almost equal in unaided schools. There was not much difference between fees between urban and rural unaided schools, though reputed schools charged very high fees. The role of education as a great leveller is under threat because there has been a change in the role of education as a public good to a private merit. This tended to create dual citizens, one set of citizens opting for cheap government education and the other opting for expensive private education.
3.3.7 S. Noorgehan (2000) in her thesis History of Education in the Princely state of Travancore in a socio economic and political perspective makes a historical analysis of the education of Travancore drawing from V. Nagam Aiya’s The Travancore State Manual, Travancore Administrative reports and A Sreedara Menon’s works – (a) Social and Cultural history of Kerala (b) Cultural heritage of Kerala An Introduction. The researcher at the outset acknowledges the untiring efforts of Christian missionaries before observing that the socio political conditions that existed in Travancore during the early 19th century provided a congenial atmosphere for the progress of education and culture. The researcher takes us through the Charter Act of 1813 of the British government and Rani Parvathi Bai proclamation, rescript of 1817, both of which enshrined upon the state government to take care of the entire cost of the education of its people. Further the author dwells exhaustively on private enterprise in education, establishment of rural schools (poverty schools), vernacular education, adult education etc besides introduction of Boys Scouts and Girls Guides Movements in 1917-18. Travancore Educational Reforms drafted by a committee with R M Statham as Chairman in 1932 and Travancore Primary School Education Act 19145 also find detailed mention in the thesis as also the introduction of Physical education, Health education, Teachers education etc. The contribution of NSS, SNDP to education in Kerala is also mentioned as well as the institution of the University of Kerala.

3.3.8 C P Chandrasekaran, V K Ramachandran and R Ramkumar (2001) in their study on Issues in School Education in Contemporary Kerala points out that government schools lack infrastructural deficiencies like insufficient number of classrooms, teachers rooms, playgrounds, toilets, library etc.
3.3.9 K S George (2002), in a study on the identification of certain factors influencing the optimum utilization of teacher effectiveness in primary schools of Kerala indicates that the most important factors in personal dimension of teacher effectiveness are – reading habit, teaching experience, academic achievement, heavy workload, involvement in teachers organizations, freedom in engaging classes, etc. Psychological dimension in teacher efficiency include – pupils’ interest in learning, love and respect from students, satisfaction with the profession, respect from parents, reputation of being an ideal teacher, supervision of teaching by head of the institutions etc. Factors under institutional dimension that affect teacher efficiency are – reputation of the school, discipline of the school, overall setup of the school, intervention by the head of the institution, service conditions, frequent transfer etc. Factors under sociological dimension affecting teacher efficiency include – respect from society for being a teacher, influence of media, encouragement and inspiration from society, suggestions from reputed local people and social workers, help from advisory committee etc. The study concluded that the factors which influence teacher effectiveness are – (a) in personal dimension – teacher performance, teacher competence and teacher commitment. (b) in psychological dimension – Job satisfaction and inducement to work, (c) in institutional dimension - school environment and school administration, (d) in the sociological dimension guidance, supervision and public relations.

3.3.10 M S James’(2004) study on political economy of educational initiatives in Kerala shows that the educational development in the state was the outcome of government and social initiatives in the last two centuries spearheaded by enlightened rulers, social reformers and missionaries. Self
financing unaided schools have come into existence avowedly to make good this lacunae and for providing quality education in English. In human infrastructure aided and government schools had better qualified and experienced teachers compared to unaided schools. In infrastructure facilities government schools were inferior to aided and unaided schools. In government schools regular assessment of students was found lacking in comparison to aided and unaided school. Unaided schools were superior to others in terms of school outcome based on students' performance in examination. Poor performance of state schools was partly because of absence of mechanism to monitor and supervise teaching learning process and make the system responsible. Unaided schools as investment projects generated substantial surplus income. Reputed unaided schools with high status recovered their initial investment within four years. This led to mushrooming of educational institutions in the unaided sector. In the present educational system education has become expensive and it is treated as a ‘private merit good’ leading to the emergence of unaided schools run by profit motivated entrepreneurs. This is likely to perpetuate social and economic inequality by creating dual citizens jeopardizing the role of education as a great equalizer.

3.3.11 C N Viswanathan (2007) in his doctoral thesis “Total Quality Management in Higher Education in Kerala” reveals that the concept of total quality management (TQM) envisages – zero waste and maximum quality. The author found that higher education in India and Kerala has seen sufficient growth but cannot be compared to other systems in the world because it lacks quality teaching, infrastructure and adequate government funding. Higher education in Kerala needs careful monitoring and our
degrees should maintain international quality. TQM according to the author is a panacea for ills of higher education in Kerala. School education is the bedrock for higher education. Rapid increase in enrolment has not decreased inequalities in education. Low budget provisions to cater to the increase in institutions have caused deterioration of infrastructure facilities. Over-politicization and commercialization of education sector are weakening quality of education. The author proposes that there should be a National Bank for Educational Development (NABED) on the lines of NABARD, an Indian Education Service, a Common Faculty Recruitment Board comprising of independent members should be in charge of recruitment and training of teachers.

3.3.12 A.A. Baby and K.G. Sukumara Pillai (2008) Report on Recognised Unaided Schools in Kerala reveals that the educational scenario in Kerala right from the time of the formation of the state in 1956 was beset with problems. The successive governments, which came to power, have been straining in their own ways to provide a balanced system of education by designing contents and revising teaching-learning methods drawing lessons from the best available results of experimentation in the field.

All across the spectrum of the new generation of parents and students, there is strong feeling that despite several aberrations in the functioning of the unaided recognized schools, these institutions are singularly responsible for producing the elitist class in our society. In Kerala, none has come forward against the rampant exploitation to which managements subject teachers and parents although they are sensitive to the objectionable practices in the field.
The study throws light on the composition of teaching community and their workload. Out of 433 teachers, 360 teachers are in the age group of 20 – 44 years. They account for more than 83 per cent of the total and more than 85 per cent of the teachers are women. Nearly 56 per cent of the teachers are Hindus, Christians and Muslims accounting for nearly 39 per cent and five per cent respectively. Unmarried teachers account for only less than 19 per cent of the total numbers. More than 78 per cent of them are married, more than 66 per cent of the total numbers of teachers of the recognized unaided schools in Kerala belong to general, unreserved caste groups; about 31 per cent is accounted for by OBC/OEC groups; and teachers belonging to SC/ST groups are only 1.15 per cent. More than 81 per cent of the total numbers of teachers have work between 3 – 5 hours per day and more than 12 per cent have work between 5-6 hours, and 14 have more than 6 hours per day. Thirty-five per cent of the teachers have extra duties other than teaching like office work, laboratory work, discipline duties etc. More than 94 per cent of the total teachers are seen to have refrained from joining any teachers associations, only a mere 2.5 per cent taking up membership in teachers’ associations. More than 42 per cent of the teachers reportedly have not got appointment orders at the time of joining. More than 77 per cent of the teachers have not availed of any leave other than casual leave, less than 18 per cent of them had leave other than casual leave. Only a little more than one per cent of the teachers are eligible for casual leave for 10 days a year. More than 19 per cent received promotions as and when they became eligible. Seventy-one per cent of the total teachers attended training courses conducted by the “Sahodaya”.
Regarding service conditions, the study reveals that: more than seventy per cent of the respondent teachers receive annual increments, but the amounts of annual increment vary widely from Rs. 100 to more than Rs. 500. More than 75 per cent of the teachers subscribe to the Provident Fund scheme and the monthly subscriptions vary widely from less than Rs. 100 to more than Rs.1000 per month. Slightly less than 53 per cent of the teachers do not enjoy maternity leave benefits. The teachers clearly suggest that no regular system of maintaining service book is followed in the majority of recognised unaided schools in Kerala. About 48 per cent of the respondents reported problems of low salary, high work load, job insecurity, discrimination in the cluster meetings, etc.

There does not exist any uniformity among these schools in the matter of retirement age of the teachers. In the case of distribution of basic facilities - most recognised unaided schools (39 out of 150) have hostels, libraries (144 out of 150), laboratory (129 out of 150), transportation facilities (131 out of 150), play grounds(147 out of 150), and computer facilities(145 out of 150). One-hundred and thirteen schools have internet facility, 27 schools with video conference facility, LCD, Projector etc. Eighteen per cent schools have less than 2 acres of land, 42per cent between two to four acres, 16% between four to six acres and 13 per cent between eight to ten acres and 9 per cent above ten acres.

Seventy-eight per cent private unaided schools grant regular annual increment to teachers while 14% schools do not pay annual increments regularly. While seventy per cent schools follow the system of granting maternity leave to teachers only 45% grant maternity leave with salary benefits. More than ninety-six per cent schools provide summer vacation to
teachers and students and 86.6% of these schools follow the system of payment of vacation salary to teachers. Further 84.67 per cent schools follow the practice of sending their teachers for refresher courses. While 65.3% schools have five working days per week, 32.6% schools work six days per week. Among the private schools 16.6% are under management of Hindus, 20.6% under Muslims, 49.4% under Christians and the remaining 12% schools under corporate and secular managements.

3.3.13 Nath, Baiju K (2008) identifies the problems of female school teachers of Kerala in very high pupil – teacher ratio, unnecessary emphasis on clerical works related to documentation of evaluation, evaluation of large number of students, loss of working days, lack of quality reference books etc.

3.3.14 The Kerala Education Act of 1958 (Department, 2011) was a unique legislation, the impact of which reverberated throughout the social life of the then nascent State. The aided schools were brought within the statutory ambit of the Department. Rules regarding opening of new schools, appointment of new teachers and their qualification at large, monitoring of various activities of schools, facilities to be made available to the students, responsibilities of various functionaries of schools etc. were framed. The Act and the Rules are thus deeply entwined with the contemporary history of State of Kerala. It is acclaimed as a model law even now by other States of the Country. Between 1987 and 2010 hundreds of amendments have been made compelling their codification.
The investigator does not claim that the survey of studies attempted is in anyway exhaustive in nature. All the same it has helped him get a sharper insight into the importance of the topic under study. This review has also made it clear that no systematic study has been done along this line, leaving and invitingly wide gap for serious research work. This has probably emboldened the researcher to embark on this study, because none of the works revived is seen to have explored a meaningful comparison of service and working conditions of teachers in government and private unaided schools, an area which calls for more focused light to be trained on.