CHAPTER-3
REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The importance of maintaining quality of education has been emphasized by several workers (Sato 1990; Fuller 1986; Adams 1997; Govinda and Verghese 1993; Hannaway and Talbert 1993; Aspin and Champan 1994). The impact of quality education on other cognitive achievements such as higher level of earning, productivity and economic growth has been studied by many economists (Tilak 1995; Adam 1997; Chatterji 1998). Many researchers have been working to find out the root causes of poor quality of education in India and several of them have attributed it to the poor quality of school infrastructure, facilities and quality of teachers and their efforts UNESCO (2005).

The infrastructure facilities available in majority of Indian schools are far from satisfactory (Jain 2004). A substantial number of Primary Schools are still without drinking water and toilet facilities, furniture, teaching aids and books, let alone more advanced resources such as fans, playground, musical instruments and computers. The Public Report on Basic Education (PROBE), was the first evidence-based study that documented the quality of primary school education in India based on the survey carried out during 1996 (PROBE 1999). It was based on a survey of facilities available in schools in 242 villages across five north Indian states viz., Bihar, Madhya Pradesh, Rajasthan, Uttar Pradesh and Himachal Pradesh. The study revealed that most schools had poor school infrastructure, e.g. 26% of schools did not have a blackboard in every classroom, 52% had no playground, 59% had no drinking water, 89% no toilet, 59% no maps or charts, 75% no toys, 77% no library and 85% no musical instruments. Nine years later in 2005, the ASER (Annual Status of Educational Report 2005) reported 66% of Primary Schools had water (up from 41% in 1996) and 42% had functioning toilets (up by 11% than in the PROBE survey of 1996). These improvements in school infrastructure were attributed partly to the massive educational intervention called the District Primary Education
Project (DPEP), which started with donor assistance in the mid-1990s in the districts with below national mean literacy rate. One of the explicit objectives of the DPEP was to construct and upgrade school infrastructure.

The other factor that is responsible for poor education was the evidence of negligence of teachers in schools. The absence rate of teachers in India in general is very high. Kremer et al. (2005) surveyed the absence of teachers in rural India in 2003 by making three unannounced visits to each one of 3700 schools in 20 major states of India. They found that, on an average, 25 percent of teachers in government primary schools were absent from school on a given day. More disturbing finding was that even among the teachers who were present, only about half were found engaged in teaching. The PROBE survey also had similar findings of low level of teaching activity in schools. PROBE (1999) stated that the extreme cases of teachers’ negligence were less devastating than the quiet inertia of the majority of teachers. In half of the sampled schools, there was no teaching activity at the time of the surprise visit. Inactive teachers were found engaged in a variety of wasteful activities such as sipping tea, reading comics, or eating peanuts. The teaching activity was reported to be reduced to a minimum in terms of both time and effort. Unfortunately, this pattern was not confined to a minority of irresponsible teachers. In fact, it had become a way of life for many in the profession. ASER (2005) report also found that the rate of teachers’ absence was 25%. Poorly resourced public schools which suffer from high rates of teacher absenteeism seem to have encouraged the rapid growth of private (unaided) schools in India, particularly in urban areas.

The above two factors, viz., poor infrastructure and absenteeism of teachers in public/government schools have led to mushrooming of private schools in the country. Private schools are divided into two types: recognized schools and unrecognized schools. Government recognition is an official stamp of approval and for this a private school is required to fulfill a number of conditions. However, in reality, many private schools fail to meet the requirements to
get the recognition from government. Schools run by private management without state aid are private schools, and these schools run entirely on fee-revenues. The state has no involvement in the management of these schools. The emergence of large numbers of unrecognized primary schools in recent years suggests that both schools and parents do not take government recognition as a stamp of quality.

In order to develop and implement a policy to improve the quality of education, analysis of the economics of quality education is a pre-requisite (Windham and Chapman 1990). Because, economics would determine which quality aspects are affordable in a resource constraint scenario, and accordingly implementation of specific quality parameters can be prioritized (Samah 1992). By enhancing students’ cognitive skills, improved schools directly influence their performance in the labour market. The improved performance is achieved through enhanced individual earnings, greater productivity and economic growth. UNESCO (2005) has given stress on the increased attainment by learners that results in higher completion rate at all levels of schooling and consequent reduction in rates of repetition and drop out. Schools are also instrumental in developing desirable non-cognitive outcomes among students such as honesty, reliability and determination that may contribute to economic success. There is also good evidence to suggest that the quality of education and acquisition of cognitive skills (especially literacy and numeracy) have important social pay offs being negatively related to fertility rates. This facilitates the making of informed choices regarding health behaviour (Reddy 2007).

Quality schooling may often play a crucial role in governing parental choices for sending children to school and in determining their attendance patterns. The findings from a few African studies conclude that in addition to the number of years of schooling, the attainment of cognitive skills is critical for determining earnings. The international organizations such as the UNICEF and UNESCO put adequate stress on quality education, that take into consideration the cognitive
development of learners, and the acquisition of values and attitudes. Equity is also considered important by these organizations as the discrimination against any group does not fulfill the objective (UNESCO 2005).

Tilak (1995) estimated that economic returns on education, both private and social, are high. They are higher or at least comparable to returns on physical capitals. Private returns on education are higher than social return and returns on primary education are higher than returns on other higher levels of education. Concern to improve the quality of education in schools has started receiving the highest priority in almost all countries throughout the world. Earlier, greater emphasis was being placed on ensuring access to complete and free primary education for all the children. However, with the tremendous growth in school enrolments throughout the world, priority given earlier to educational expansion and access is now being replaced by plans and policies that are calling for a higher quality of schooling. This concern has become universal in the developed as well as in the developing countries, particularly in those that have achieved total access. In fact it has now been established that access and quality are not sequential elements, and a number of international organizations have visualized the role of quality as being instrumental in improving access (UNESCO 2003; UNESCO 2005).

Lamar (2004) asserted, “definition of public school should be broadened to include any school that serves the public and is held accountable by the public authority. Public education may be minimally improved through innovative programmes but private education will be drastically downgraded to equalize opportunities”. A broad range of proposal is being suggested to remedy the disparity between public and private education. However, basic to each type of funding is the direct or indirect infusion of government money into private education with the result of making all schools public schools.

Hanushek and Kimko (2000) concluded that apart from influencing individual productivity and income, higher school quality also has a strong impact on economic growth of
countries. The quality of the labour force (as measured through mathematics and science test scores) could be regarded as an important determinant of economic growth and could have the potential to alleviate poverty. Although evidence is limited, some workers point out that the returns on school quality may be higher in developing countries than in industrialized countries.

A recent national level survey conducted in India by EI (Educational Initiatives) and WATIS (Wipro Applying Thought in Schools) on student learning in top schools found a dismal gap in learning in key subjects. Learning was mechanical and rote based. Moreover, Indian students of class 4 performed far below average in mathematics and science compared to their international counterparts in 43 other countries (Education World 2012).

Internationally comparable data are not available for very low income countries, but achievement of students on tests within many of these countries suggests that academic achievement is often very low. Reports suggest that while many countries such as Senegal, Bangladesh, India and Egypt are making impressive progress in access to primary education, learning achievements still continue to be a problem (UNESCO 2005). Reddy (2004) reviewed several research studies and achievement surveys in India, and found that the academic performance of primary school students was disappointingly low.

A compilation of various studies in Pakistan concluded that on an average, students do not achieve competency on more than half the curriculum in the 5th grade. In general, students performed better on rote learning skills than items requiring comprehension and problem solving skills (UNESCO 2003). In Ghana, the mean score of grade 6 students was a mere 25%. In Bangladesh, rural children aged 11 years had poor reading and comprehension skills (Glewwe and Kremer 2005).

The school quality differs widely within and between countries. Children in developing countries not only receive fewer years of education, but attain lower achievement levels compared to their western counterparts. This reflects the low school quality in developing
countries. In developed countries too, the stagnation of student performance on test scores represents a puzzling phenomenon (UNESCO 2005; Glewwe and Kremer 2005). Due to the current state of school quality in industrialized as well as developing countries, this issue has become the focus of attention world over and many international fora too have now begun to stress on improvement in the quality of education in schools. Dakar Framework of Action (2000) has emphasized the quality of education through its sixth goal. This includes commitments to improve all aspects of educational quality so that everyone can achieve better learning outcomes especially in literacy, numeracy and essential life skills. It affirmed that ‘quality’ was at the ‘heart of education, a fundamental determinant of enrolment, retention and achievement’ (UNESCO 2005). The European Union in its report on the Quality of School Education has highlighted that the quality of education is the concern of all member states and is of the highest political priority. “High levels of knowledge, competencies and skills are considered to be the very basic condition for active citizenship, employment and social cohesion” (European Commission 2000).

Adam (1997) stated that the conceptual perspectives of educational quality have multiple meanings. It may be assessed by qualitative or quantitative methods. It is dynamic i.e. it changes over time and by context. It is multi-dimensional, it may subsume equity and efficiency. Most importantly, the meaning of quality is grounded in values, cultures and traditions and is specific to a given nation, community, school or parent. Hence, it can only be defined by context. Because of the above mentioned characteristics, comparison of levels of educational quality is quite difficult. Adam (1997) went further and put forward a more optimistic list of characteristics of quality which includes the following: (i) quality is definable by context, (ii) it is not necessarily associated with high costs; given similar goals and contexts, (iii) it may be compared across settings, (iv) it often supplements, compliments or is integrated with efficiency and equity.
Govinda and Verghese (1993) studied the quality of primary education in Madhya Pradesh. The study was based on a comprehensive model of effectiveness comprising the human input factors, process factors, their interplay and their impact on student learning (output). The quality of the school was dependent on the socio-developmental context, in which it was functioning. The study explored the interaction between physical facilities and resources, and the teaching-learning process, and how this influenced the third factor i.e. learner achievement, which was taken as an indicator of quality. The study based on empirical evidence of 5 selected localities in Madhya Pradesh found that the factors that appeared to be critical and were having a detrimental impact on student achievement were:

1. Lack of material and human resources especially proper classrooms, lack of toilets, teacher absenteeism, and poor provision of teachers, particularly in rural areas.
2. Lack of effective leadership where the Head master’s role was limited to routine administrative tasks.
3. Non-usage of instructional materials, by the teachers even when present and outdated instructional practices consisting of drill based procedures and rote learning resulted in poor quality of learning.
4. Although community and parental participation in school management did exist, there was no adequate accountability and monitoring of school performance.

Grover and Singh (2002) assessed the students’ learning level and found that most students were not learning. They also attributed the above mentioned factors to poor learning. Kingdon (2005) examined the effect of 5 variables relating to teachers and 3 variables relating to schools on the achievements of class VIII students. The study revealed that:

1. Teacher’s years of education had positive impacts on mathematics and reading scores of students. An additional year of education raised the students’ reading scores.
The conclusions drawn from all these 3 studies concur with the findings of studies in other developing countries on the factors that are pivotal for learners’ achievement. The crucial elements for achieving quality education are therefore:

1. The provision of physical facilities and inputs which were necessary, but not sufficient conditions for achievement;
2. Teachers’ year of education and training;
3. The provision of text books in classrooms;
4. The amount of instructional time spent by students in teaching – learning activities.

One extensive study on this aspect in developing countries was conducted by Dahlin (1992) entitled, ‘How schools improve’. The study examined the reforms in 31 rural primary schools of Bangladesh, Columbia and Ethiopia. This qualitative study, categorized schools on the basis of their outcomes, in three areas:

1. degree of implementation of key aspects of reform;
2. degree of effect on students, teachers and the school as an organization; and
3. degree of institutionalization of reform.

The findings of this study were consistent with those in industrialized countries and some of the characteristics of excellent schools that were identified from the study are:

1. A regular and well-implemented in-service training process;
2. Motivation of the Headmaster;
3. Regular supervision;
4. Parental and community support for the school activities; and
5. Team spirit and a positive attitude to reform.
The study also identified common elements outside the school that make reform successful in the countries (Henevald and Craig 1996; Riddell 1997). These included:

1. Rural primary education was a political priority and hence there was commitment to reform.
2. A focus on changing classroom teaching practice and teaching mastery necessary to make reform successful.
3. Providing necessary supervision and other staff development assistance necessary to change teaching practices.

Another World Bank Study conducted in Madagascar corroborates the findings of the above mentioned study. The significant factors identified were: community participation, school leadership, and teacher guides and text books (Henevald and Craig 1996).

UNESCO (2005) argued that the school improvement approach has limited applicability in the context of developing countries. Its key message was to help people think through the actions required to make schools part of the process of change. School improvement studies have also been limited in the context of developing countries. Hence, more qualitative research of this type that focuses on the implementation of change is urgently required.

Sato (1990) and Hannaway and Talbert (1993) stated that education quality should be concerned with processes of teaching, learning, testing, managing and resourcing. They undertook an in-depth qualitative investigation of such processes. The investigation on how input factors are utilized as teachers and children engage each other in the classroom learning environment is an important area to assess the quality of education.

While working on school education in Ghana, Jansen (1995) observed that there was an emerging paradigm of quality as school- and classroom-level processes. He found that there was a dedication by the Government of Ghana to the improvement in the quality of education especially in public schools.
In this knowledge age, nothing counts more for economic success than the educational qualifications of the workforce (Anonymous 2000). A country with a high percentage of tertiary education graduates is generally credited with greater innovative potential and a higher ability to move into high value-added sectors of the economy than a country featuring a lower share of graduates.

Beeby (1966) stated that economists should be involved only on those aspects of education that may be considered to be outside the classroom and into the market place, where as the quality of education is measured by its productivity. The economics of education is usually discussed from two perspectives. The first relates to human capital theory which sees education as a factor which improves the ability of workers so that they are able to work more productively in the economy.

Hanushek (2011) studied the economic value of higher teacher quality in which he found that the teacher effectiveness could bring the economic impact of higher achievement. A teacher, having good quality might change the impact on economic outcomes what was known about the relationship between teacher quality and student achievement. Alternative evaluation 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.

Dawood (2012) analyzed the relationship between the 'average years of schooling' (Barro and Lee 2001) with income inequality, wage inequality, and income deciles and income percentiles for the sample of developed and developing countries. The results indicated that countries where students completed higher numbers of years of schooling on an average earned more than those countries where the number of years of schooling was comparatively less. In other words, increased in average income came from the improvement in the earning capacity of the lower income groups or unskilled labour. The author also observed that an educated
population was producing a distribution of income from the rich to the poor creating thriving middle class.

Rao (2011) studied the quality of education, education levels and pattern of education programmes in Malaysia and India. According to this study, the quality and types of human competencies contributed a lot to the economic development of the country. This was reflected in accelerating the growth of industrial, agricultural, service and knowledge sectors. The findings of the study guided the formulation of education strategies for economic development of the country.

Shahbaz et al. (2009) studied the cause and effect relationship between human resource development and economic growth in Pakistan. The results based on “panel homogeneous causality hypothesis” show that economic growth does not cause human resource development, while human resource development causes economic growth. However, “panel non-homogeneous hypothesis” suggests that there exist bi-directional cause and effect relationship between human resource development and economic growth in Pakistan. The empirical evidence of heterogeneous causality hypothesis confirms the existence of bi-directional casual relationship between human resource development and economic growth in Punjab, while human resource development causes economic activity in Sind.

Khan (2012) investigated the instructional management of a private and a government Secondary School in the Gigit-Baltistan region of Northern Pakistan. The study examined the instructional behaviour of the two principals through assessing supervisory techniques, professional development activities, curriculum enrichment, and the availability of instructional resources. He compared between the levels of engagement of the private and public school principals for the promotion of instructional matter and concluded that the private school principal spent more time than the government principal on the development of instructional practices in his school. The study also concluded that variables, such as structural processes,
personal disposition of principals, and staff characteristics, led the two subjects to deal with their instructional responsibility differently.

Tooley (2003) wrote about the remarkable success of the private education in Africa and India. He was not referring to the schooling for the elite. These were schools for people who by all standards are very poor. Apparently, 45% of Ghananian children go to private school and in Hyderabad the Figure was 61%. According to the author, this is happening in many parts of Africa and India, as a response to the failure of the state education system. The relatively poor growth rate of private education system is due to cost. It is too expensive for most people to send their children to private schools. The reason for charging high fees in private schools is not justified. Teachers are not highly paid and one does not need much space to start a small school. Nevertheless, there is now a growing recognition of the system of private schooling as an alternative to state-run schooling system and a perspective has emerged in which they may be compared and evaluated i.e. Government vs. private schools.

Wadhwa (2003) remarked, “the great Indian School bazar is booming as never before. In a country where demand for good school has traditionally outstripped supply, and a new generation of upwardly mobile parents want to give their children only the best. The businessmen, traders, hoteliers, industrialists, NRIs and franchise are setting up schools” and “people have realized that in these times of recession, private schools make a regular and stable income”.

Dasgupta (2000) studied the methods of teaching in India’s schools and colleges, and commented that “…for the teacher to go on speaking incessantly for the whole period and then without caring for his pupil’s response to his work and the teacher’s routine of work for the day is so tied that he has no time to come close to his student, and this is what obliges them to have private tutors or coaching classes”. Education has therefore been commercialized and learning is on sale. The best students scoring high marks in their examination may not be very imaginative
students capable of being creative in our societies’ intellectual life. To have true creativity in the traditional institution, redesigning of courses and adoption of innovative methods of teaching are two necessities.

Chittaattukalam (1999) observed that it is paradoxical to note that most of the privately managed schools are much in demand for admission than those funded by the Government, and managed and controlled directly or indirectly by it. Clearly, the apathy or rather indignation shown by the parents to the government-run schools finds its origin in the poor services offered by these schools.

Elsemon (1992) studied private initiatives in higher education in Kenya and observed that Africa’s higher education crisis had prompted the growth of private institutions. Enrolments were very low and most African countries did not account for a significant proportion of university enrolments. The largest number of private institutions was in Kenya. The private institutions not only provide professional training in the fields of employment opportunity but also offer an education that emphasizes character-building, an essential function of higher studies. According to the author, private higher education was expensive and many private institutions were caught in a dilemma. They could not achieve significant efficiencies by reducing instructional costs without damage to the quality of their programmes, and they were reluctant to raise tuitions and accommodation charges because of the distorting effects on student’s recruitment. He concluded that as long as public higher education is provided at a low or no cost and private higher education is entirely self-supporting, the private sector will have a peripheral role in higher education in Kenya and other African countries.

Chitty (1997) wrote on privatization and marketization of education. He elucidates that the term ‘privatization’ is subjected to many different interpretations in the context of education. It embraces all those measures designed to work towards a situation where, eventually, all schools will be in private ownership and parents will be supplied with educational vouchers or
credits to spend in the schools of their choice. Yet, it can also be broadened to cover all those initiatives but blur the boundaries between the private and state sectors.

Thompson and Zumeta (2001) brought out the relationship between the key state policies variables such as, (1) relative (private-public) tuition prices, (2) state student-aid funding, and (3) public institution density. They also examined the competitive position of private colleges and universities. Elite private schools were found to be nearly impervious to state policy. Large and moderately selective private institutions are adversely affected by public institutions’ density and low public prices. Such prices divert students who would otherwise prefer these private institutions to similar public schools. State student’s aid funding most affects the enrolment market shares of the small, low-selectivity private colleges enrolling the greatest proportions of minority and modest-income students. The strong demand for higher education and constrained public sector capacity do encourage students to consider seriously whether private higher education can serve their needs better than public institutions.

Konwar (2002) discussed the reasons of dropouts in schools of the north-eastern India. He observed that the majority of children who were enrolled, could not continue their primary school mostly due to: (1) poverty and ignorance, (2) child labour, (3) lack of lustre school and lack of minimum infrastructure in the schools, (4) curriculum load, (5) traditional teaching mode, (6) lack of instructional material, (7) faulty examination system, (8) gender gap, (9) parent’s ignorance, social stigma and illiteracy of parents, (10) first generation gap, (11) causes of tribal gap in education, (12) lack of early childhood care and educational facilities, (13) dearth of qualified teachers, (14) lack of job opportunities, (15) efficiency and learning achievement, (16) migratory population, and (17) difficulties in picking up the language of instruction.

Glewwe and Kremer (2005), TIMSS (Third International Mathematics and Science Study), PIRLS (Progress in International Literacy Study) and PISA (Programme for
International Assessment) stated that the status of educational quality across various countries can be gauged from internationally comparable data on academic performance and test scores which have often served as a proxy for educational quality. There are international surveys of cognitive achievement mainly from developed countries, but also include a few middle income developing countries. The TIMSS math test for grade 7 and 8 students showed that Japan, USA, South Korea and Malaysia performed well with high scores compared to generally lower scores in developing countries such as South Africa and Thailand. The PISA tests in math and reading administered to 15 year olds revealed that while South Korea outperformed many developed countries, the other 7 developing countries (Argentina, Belize, Columbia, Iran, Kuwait, Morocco and Turkey) lagged far behind. The percentage of students with lower skills was much higher in these 7 countries than in the developed countries. Results from PIRLS allowed comparisons of changes in reading comprehension between 1991 and 2001 for 9 year olds. It indicated that while achievement levels increased in Greece, Slovenia, Iceland and Hungary, it changed insignificantly in Italy, New Zealand, Singapore and US, and fell in Sweden (UNESCO 2005).

In developing countries, the EFA Global monitoring report (2005) states that there are grounds to believe that many African countries included in SACMEQ (Southern and Eastern African Consortium for Monitoring Education Quality) had much poorer reading skills than IEA (International Association for Evaluation of Educational Achievement) countries. Moreover, a comparison of SACMEQ I (1995-1996) and II (2000-01) showed that 5 of the 6 countries had declines in literacy achievement scores though these were significant only in Malawi, Namibia and Zambia (UNESCO, 2005).

Hanushek (2005), after studying international test scores in mathematics and science, found that one standard deviation difference on test performance was related to an one percent difference in annual GDP per capita growth rates.
Coulombe et al. (2004) conducted a study into literacy scores across 14 OECD countries. They used data from 1960 to 1995, and tested people aged between 16 and 65 for their document and prose skills. The average level of literacy skills for each year was estimated by taking respondents in 8 year age ranges and assigning them to particular years on a time scale according to when they would have been in the 17 to 25 year old age bracket. The advantage of this approach is that information for historical period can be derived from a single year’s survey results. However the reliability of the results depends upon the assumption that the individual literacy levels of individuals remain consistent through time. They found that a country which achieves literacy scores one percent higher than the average, will have an approximately two percent higher labour productivity and GDP than those countries which have lower test scores.

Tikly and Barrett (2011) discussed the two dominant approaches that currently frame the debate about education quality, namely, the human capital and human rights approaches. Drawing principally on the ideas of Nancy Fraser and Sen et al. (2010), an alternative approach to enhance quality of education has been suggested by Tikly and Barrett (2007), based on a theory of social justice and of capabilities. They developed an overall understanding of how education quality can be understood in relation to the extent to which it fosters key capabilities that individuals, communities and society in general have reason to value. Then the authors analyzed three inter-related dimensions of the quality of education from a social justice perspective. Each dimension is considered in relation to contemporary policy debates and research including the work of educational quality. The first dimension, i.e. inclusiveness draws attention to the access of different groups of learners to quality inputs that facilitate the development of their capabilities, the cultural and institutional barriers that impact on the learning of different groups and priorities for overcoming these. The second dimension, that of relevance, is concerned with the extent to which the outcomes of education are meaningful for all learners, valued by their communities and consistent with national development priorities in
a changing global context, whilst the third dimension, that of democracy considers how decisions about education quality are governed and the nature of participation in debates at the local, national and global levels. It is argued that a social justice framework can provide an alternative rationale for a policy emphasis on quality that encompasses but goes beyond that provided by human capital and rights approaches. Through emphasizing the importance of context and through providing a normative basis for thinking about quality in relation to development, it provides a useful starting point for re-conceptualizing education quality and how it can be evaluated; and, that it draws attention to the central importance of public dialogue and debate at the local, national and global levels about the nature of a quality education and quality frameworks at these levels.

Grossman and Sands (2008) examined the effectiveness of recent reforms in teacher education in Turkey, specifically the restructuring of programmes in university faculties of education. They considered the national need for the restructuring of teacher education and the issues involved. Wedgwood (2007) reviewed research on the returns on education in Tanzania, both financial and non-financial, and considered whether these returns translate into poverty reduction. It looks at reasons why achievement of high primary enrolment rates in the past did not lead to the realization of the associated developmental outcomes, considering factors both within and beyond the education system. Achieving mass access at the expense of quality appears to have had a negative impact on equality. The poverty reduction potential of current programmes to develop the primary and secondary education systems were discussed in the light of past experience. This study reports an investigation of classroom interaction and discourse practices in Nigerian Primary Schools. Its purpose was to identify key issues affecting patterns of teacher-pupil interaction and discourse as research suggests managing the quality of classroom interaction will play a central role in improving the quality of teaching and learning, particularly in contexts where learning resources and teacher training are limited. The study was
based on the interaction and discourse analysis of video recordings of 42 lessons and 59 teacher questionnaires from 10 States, drawn mainly from the north of Nigeria. The findings revealed the prevalence of teacher explanation, recitation and rote in the classroom discourse with little attention being paid to securing pupil understanding. The wider implications of the findings for improving the quality of classroom interaction in Nigerian Primary Schools through more effective school-based training are considered.

Hardman et al. (2008) examined education policy in Chile after the return to democracy in 1990 from an equity perspective. Since then, policies have aimed for continuity, coherence and complementarity with the aim of furthering national development, promoting social mobility, and equitable access to quality education at all levels. However, Chile faced the challenge of implementing equity-oriented policies within the legal confines of an education system constructed under the neoliberal model which was introduced by the military government (1973-1990). This resulted in tension between policy and practice, which constrained the role of the state in a highly marketised system in its efforts to distribute quality education more equitably.

Japan and the East Asian tiger economies, particularly South Korea and Taiwan have been uniquely successful in the last half century in achieving both rapid economic growth over long periods and relative income equality and social cohesion. A host of factors have been responsible for this, including fortuitous geo-political circumstances and good timing. However, education has also played a major role (Little and Green 2009). Based on the review of international and national literature, the authors analyzed how far China, India, Kenya and Sri Lanka have managed to develop their own forms of successful engagement with the global economy and what part education policy has played. The authors have also related the concept of successful globalisation with the parallel discourses of sustainable development and education for sustainable development. The authors found that students typically chose to enrol
with the Australian university to receive an international education. Reasons offered for seeking an international education effectively delineated two groups of students. For Malaysian nationals, an international education was valued largely as a passport to employment with (Western) multinational corporations operating in Malaysia. Generally the Malaysian students made positional investments in Australian offshore higher education. For non-Malaysian students an international education was typically selected as an aid to procuring a new identity. These students chose an international education with the hope of expunging provincial outlooks. From international education, they wanted new ways of viewing the world, new habits of thinking and new skills and approaches. They sought a personal metamorphosis. These students, therefore, typically made self-transformative investments in international education. Of the two populations distinguished by investment type, students who made self-transformative investments were more likely to respond positively to challenging education experiences associated with studying at the campus.

In developing countries, the agenda of skill development was largely neglected. Skill development does not appear in the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) or in many poverty reduction strategies and has been side-lined in favour of investment in primary education. However, discussion of skills development in the 2005 Global Monitoring Report and the World Summit in September, 2005 has refocused the attention on skills (World Summit for Children 1990). Skills development interventions follow a top-down strategy, with programmes having little labour market relevance, and post-training support that is either absent or weak. Support for skills development in the informal economy, which is by far the largest destination for school leavers, is virtually non-existent.

Lubienski (2006) highlighted the relevance of school choice and privatization in American education. He also analyzed the school reform movements around the globe. While reforms in education were parallel to market-based reforms in other sectors, the extent to which
public education was suited for market-style organization is being hotly contested. Some analysts argue that essential aspects of public education make it unique and therefore inappropriate for direct control by market forces (Belfield and Levin 2005). Others contend that it is required to harness these economic principles for education just as done with more explicitly market-based goods and services (Walberg and Bast 2003). Consequently, reformers advance market mechanisms to organize the production and reformers argue that consumer choice and school competition can lead to more effective and efficient public education systems.

Debates over education policy have highlighted the question of whether or not parental choice of schools represents a form of privatization- a question reflecting the tension over the extent to which schools should be directly subject to market forces. Most of these debates in education are argued largely around supply-side issues important in other sectors undergoing privatization. However, this thinking, drawing from other sectors, neglects the counter-dynamic in education i.e. the way education is provided can determine its nature as a public or private good. This dynamic is most apparent not in ownership, but in modes of control, where educational decision-making is privatized, and the purposes of education are individualized. This characterizes the growing influence of private interests in education.

Many workers claim that any move toward "privatization" undercuts the commitment to public education. Consequently, Republican pollster warns politicians to "Dump the word ‘privatize’ forever". While many US reformers advocate for market mechanisms of consumer choice and competition between providers (Billingsley and Riley 1999; Payne 2000), there is still a pronounced antipathy to the terminology, to the degree that some reformers attempt to emulate the substance of privatization while avoiding the semantics. Thus, reformers in the US are much more likely to talk of "choice," "parental control, “or "parents’ rights" rather than to use economic terminology of "markets," "products," or "privatization." With few exceptions, the term is relegated to contentious use as a polarizing tool in debating the provision of education.
Such a politicized lexicon discourages consideration of the degree to which dynamics of school choice do or do not parallel privatization reforms in other sectors.

The above review of literature clearly reveals that no research work has been undertaken in any of the states of India to analyze the quality of education and its economics in public and private school education system. Such a work can provide important policy implications to improve the quality of education in India.