CHAPTER I

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1.1 Introduction

The need for human resources planning in the third world, particularly in India tends to have a crucial place in the process of economic reforms. In the emerging scenario, the need for manpower planning gets prioritised due to the availability of very limited resources. Further, the flow of young people joining the active population remains to be very high due to the higher population growth rate. The young people account for a significantly higher proportion of recruitment. Hence, the planning for the young people warrants higher priority. In addition, the rate of growth of school enrolment often outstrips the population growth rate, for the less developed countries seem to make up for the lost time. More so, while the size of the modern sector (which recruits young people holding formal qualifications) is usually very limited, the job prospects in the public sector are restricted by the shortage of budgetary resources and the privatisation measures in the economic reform process. The combined effect of all these phenomena envisages a serious risk of imbalance in countries like India. A concerted effort on planning the manpower is therefore essential to anticipate and avoid these risks.
A normative perspective of planning consists of conceiving a desired future and also mobilising the means of achieving it. In planning, it is *sine qua non* to make an initial distinction between the situations in which education is mainly public and where private institutions play an important role. When education and training are largely in private hands, planning has lower priority. But the state cannot completely neglect to give directions. (Bertrand, 1992) Particularly, directions are much needed in the primary education.

In most of the underdeveloped countries like India, the poor quality of primary education is more striking than its meager quantity. In addition, good number of the primary school teachers is unqualified. Harbinson and Myers (1964) underscored that primary school teachers who have completed secondary school education or its equivalent are rare and the pressure for the rapid expansion in the number of schools and the pupils at the primary level makes it difficult to maintain, let alone improve quality in most of the underdeveloped countries. The drop out or wastage rates in primary education are also very high. Only a small fraction of those who enter the first grade even complete the fourth, fifth or sixth grades.

Some schools in rural areas offer only one or two primary grades, because of lack of teachers capable of teaching the upper grades (Harbinson
and Myers 1964). In most schools, the teaching fails to inspire the pupils. Further, unless the parents see a clear cut economic incentive for keeping the children in school, they will either allow or force them to dropout. As a result, there is a tremendous waste of time and effort and money in primary education in the underdeveloped countries like India. A great majority of those who drop out after three or four years in schools barely learn to read and write, and most of them lapse into illiteracy after a few years. This also precipitates a total monetary loss. Hence there is a strong case for a thorough planning in primary education to avoid these waste of investment in human resource development.

Amartya Sen (1998) maintains rightly that growth should be judged for its instrumental role i.e. in broadening and strengthening peoples’ capabilities. According to Sen (1999), development means increasing these capabilities. Increasing capabilities are also taken as an index of freedom. In line with these, the structure of thinking on education underwent a radical change in the 1980s with the emergence and increasing acceptance of the new political economy based on the primacy of productivity, efficiency and competition (Patel, 1998). The intrinsic value of education i.e. education *per se* as desirable - has been put on the backburner. Its instrumental importance, i.e. judging education in terms of its contribution to economic growth has been brought to the centre stage. According to Sen and Dreeze(1995),
"while India has a highly developed - if over extended - higher education sector, it remains one of the most backward countries in the world in terms of elementary education. Thus, Sen emphasised that the primary focus of India’s education policy has to be on primary education.

1.2 Primary Education and Manpower planning in India

With the aid of the World Bank, India launched with all fanfare the new scheme of education for all by 2010. In addition to the dissemination of elementary education in the states, the package scheme provides for the basic economic needs of the pupils. Though India has the largest number of illiterates, (about 281 million) adult illiterates (30 percent) and out of the school children (20 percent) in the world, the importance attached to primary education remains to be cursory. Excessive importance was given to higher education due to various metaphysical reasons. UNESCO ranked India in 50th place among a total of 87 developing countries on the basis of the conditions prevailing for primary education in the year 1999. It really causes concern for the pathetic condition of primary education in India, which is the largest democratic country in the world and a large supplier of technical labour force to the developed countries.

With the advent of World Bank aided education for all by 2010 package scheme, District Primary Education Programmes, the primary education in India is expected to receive greater attention and financial
allocation. This is also expected to transform the approach from the elitist to the masses. In addition, the centrally sponsored scheme “Operation Black Board” also made inroads in enrolling the rural children in the late eighties and in the nineties. Moreover, the state Governments also provided special emphasis on total literacy programmes like Vidyasikha, Akshaya, Arvind, Iyakham and so on. As a result, there has been a constant increase both in the number of primary schools and in the student enrolment over the years. In most of the states, the enrolment has increased by 10 to 20 times of that of the 1950s enrolment. This puts heavy pressure on the existing infrastructure of primary and secondary schools.

As Bertrand (1992) espoused, the rate of growth of school attendance outstripped the population growth rate. But in absolute terms, it is still insufficient to cover the total population. The growth rate of schools and staff in most of the states do not commensurate with the increased enrolment. This impinges on the quality of education. Thus, the inadequacy in quality and quantity of primary education persuade the states to have a perspective look at the condition of primary education. Hence, the social demand for primary education could be evaluated in relation to the number of children of school age and to the flow of pupils from one level to another. But the educational supply in underdeveloped countries is fairly independent of educational demand as the Government was the monopoly provider of education till the
liberalisation process started. This widening gap between supply and demand has been occupied of late by the private, missionary and other voluntary sector organised schools.

Though the conditionalities of Structural Adjustment programme encourage the privatisation of education and downsizing the State machinery, the risk involved in the market mediated growth cannot be sidelined. Hence the desideratum of human resource planning with clear directions and fixation of norms to maintain standards tend to occupy the prime of place in the emerging scenario. Thus manpower planning begins to play a cardinal role in the educational planning process due to increase in size and intake of the schools.

Margerism and Ashton (1974) expounded that “manpower planning is an organised flow of information feeding a continuously updated picture of future manpower needs and availabilities through which the various activities of manpower management and recruitment, selection, training, promotion, career development, remuneration, remuneration oriented productivity can be integrated together in terms of a cohesive strategy which in turn is linked to the overall economic and ethical objectives of the organisation.” Hence in the prevailing situation manpower planning is necessary for the educational
system to make appropriate projections for the future so that a planned and systematic expansion of the education system may be possible.

Practically, in India the relevance of it is increasingly felt due to the rapid increase in overall population, sizeable increase in the age group of 6 to 11 years and increase in enrolment. Rajesh (1994) established that even without all the above nearly 8 crore additional students need to be enrolled in primary schools every year. This precipitates a pressure on the existing institution which in turn would lead to deterioration of quality of primary education unless enabling environment is created for increasing the number of schools. Hence the planning of manpower requirements cannot be brushed aside in the process of downsizing the state machinery.

1.3 Statement of the problem

In India, nearly 100 million children were enrolled in primary schools in 1993 against 85 million children in 1987. But the school attendance and dropouts do not indicate a positive achievement. NIEPA and NCERT studies revealed that nearly 35 percent of the children dropout before completing the primary school cycle. This manifests the poor learning achievements in India. The dropouts in the primary schools amount to mean waste of education and resources, for whatever little learnt in the primary school will be forgotten in the same speed. Hence it underscores the need for improving the quality of primary education and utilising the limited resources in a
socially and economically desirable way. One of the factors influencing this phenomenon remains to be the poor quality of primary education.

Fuller (1986) stated that educational expenditures per student, availability of didactic materials, existence of an active school library, teacher training, time on task and social origin of the teacher tend to influence the learning of children. A plethora of studies have observed that quality of the school, curriculum contents, child's length of stay in the classroom and most significantly teacher factor play a cardinal role in the achievement rate of primary education. Hordes of studies proved that teachers' beliefs, perceptions, attitudes and working conditions of teachers significantly influence the quality of school education (Avalos 1986). Similarly World Bank (1990) found that the school administration and the role of supervisor or school inspector holds the key for improving and monitoring the educational quality.

All the above studies and issues point to the lack of proper manpower planning as a single factor hindering the achievements of primary education. Teachers have a pivotal role in the educational development process. In addition satisfactory progress in education from the qualitative point of view can be ascertained only when the educational institutions are sufficiently equipped with trained and qualified labour force. Hence appropriate
Manpower Planning remains to be the prerequisite for improving the quality of teaching and primary education as well. Moreover to meet the socio-economic demand for quality education, it is *sine qua non* to have a detailed assessment of the demand for and supply of teaching manpower in primary schools. Any imbalance in the demand for and supply of qualified and trained teaching manpower could have a direct bearing on the quality of education.

In this backdrop, the present study seeks to assess the demand for teaching personnel arising due to the revived progress and expansion of the educational system. This situation is not common in all types of schools. While the Government primary schools encounter certain difficulties which are characteristic of a Governmental machinery in underdeveloped countries, the private schools both aided and unaided as well as other schools run by the voluntary agencies have to deal with a different set of problems. Thus the present study makes an attempt to analyse all these concomitant issues in various types of schools in Karnataka.

1.4 Theoretical Framework

Sen (1992) expounded that human beings differ from each other not only in external characteristics (For example in inherited fortunes, in the natural and social environment in which they live) but also in their personal
characteristics (For example age, sex, vulnerability to illness, physical and mental abilities). The assessment of the claims of equality has to come to terms with the existence of pervasive human diversity. The demands of substantive equality thus can be particularly exacting and complex when there is a good deal of an antecedent inequality to counter. As Rawls (1971) underscores in his “Difference Principle”, any change that improves the position of all - including the worst off group - only can be regarded as improvement or equality. Hence overall improvement could be ascertained only by making primary goods equally available to the least advantaged groups in the country. In a country like India, where antecedent inequality remains to be a major stumbling block in the overall improvement, the distribution of primary goods could be made effective only by making the human capabilities stronger through investment in building up of human capital or basic education to all. In this broader framework, theoretical framework for the study is developed.

Panchamukhi (1996) grouped the prevalent theories of educational change into two on the basis of social change paradigms as

1. Equilibrium paradigm wherein social change is said to be oriented towards equilibrium and

\footnote{Difference principle is concerned with the distribution of primary goods (income, wealth, opportunities, social bases or self-respect etc.) with the Rawlsian principles of Justice as fairness. It deals with not only distributive consideration but also efficiency.}
2. Conflict paradigm where social change is born in and oriented towards the conflict.

In the equilibrium paradigm theories, Panchamukhi (1996) traced three versions of theories namely,

1. Evolutionary theory of educational change
2. Structural or functional theory of educational change
3. Systems approach to educational change.

While the evolutionary theories provided intellectual insights into the nature of change, the structural and functionalist approaches espoused the view that concern for the rate of return of human capital places a responsibility on the private sector and the Government to contribute to human resource development. Inequalities in access to education or non-utilisation of educational opportunities or the phenomena of wastage and stagnation are treated as parts of the response process in the structuralist approach (Panchamukhi 1996).

Similarly in their stage theory of educational development, Harbinson and Myers (1964) posited a relationship between the stages of educational development and economic development in different countries. For instance, in the underdeveloped countries, the first level education or primary

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2. Detailed discussion can be found in Panchamukhi 1996 p.p. 65-70
education should deserve higher priority, in the developing countries it is the secondary school education and in the developed countries the higher education should receive the highest importance. It underscores the pertinence of primary education as an agent of social change in the underdeveloped countries. In other words, the countries with poor primary educational facilities could be labelled as underdeveloped countries. Furthermore when a developing country characterises poor primary educational facilities, it also indicates the diversities in the society both social and economic diversities among her people. Though the conflict paradigm points to the role of dominant political and economic duties for this state of affairs, the educational reforms should aim at distribution of primary goods under Rawl’s difference principle to achieve socially desirable results.

Over and above schooling is more than a consumption activity, in the sense that it is not undertaken solely to obtain satisfactions or utility while attending school (Schultz 1981). On the contrary, Schultz envisioned that public and private costs of schooling are incurred deliberately to acquire a productive stock, embodied in human beings, that provided future services. These services consist of future earnings, future ability in self-employment and household activity and future consumer satisfactions. Schultz (1981) also elucidated that as an investment schooling adds appreciably to the savings of
low income countries but it is omitted in the conventional national economics accounts because the reported savings are confined to the formation of physical capital. Schultz (1981) observed that the favourable effects of schooling could be noticed in the ability to deal with disequilibrium associated with economic modernisation. He also underscored that it is a serious error to treat educational outlay as current consumption, for it is an investment in future earnings and future satisfactions. Hence, the relevance of manpower planning in underdeveloped countries like India, where the population growth and illiteracy rates remain high for long time cannot be set aside. Particularly, it points to the relevance of primary education in the process of economic modernisation.

Manpower planning has been optimistically practiced in many countries to forecast the manpower needs for the future. Still unemployment among school leavers has become worse over the years. According to Psacharopoulos (1987), it could be attributed to the inability of human beings to anticipate future developments accurately. But planners, both economic and manpower forget that economic progress and societal well being come from unanticipated changes in the way we do things. Manpower planning typically starts with a classification of the labour force by occupational category. The archetypal manpower planner is obsessed with production
efficiency (Psacharopoulos, 1987). The manpower planner fails to take note of the situation in underdeveloped countries where it is poverty and equity considerations that dominate in the manpower planning. Further the male - female dissimilarities in employment or gender discrimination tend to have a bearing on the manpower planning. In a developing country like India, interlocking of manpower planning with labour market does not seem to be in the right direction. Rather it is to improve the quality of life of the people. The substantive issue being, improving the physical capital by providing equal importance to both boys and girls in the distribution of basic primary goods. Following Rawl's difference principle would ascertain fair justice to both economic and gender equity.

In most of the developing countries the education of women lags far behind that of men. This could come about from a lack of parental desire for educating daughters or from a perception by the parents that there is a lower net return to education for girls (Gestler and Glewe, 1992). They also perceived that in all developing countries, the Government is the main provider of education, but in recent years, funds for education have been constrained as many developing countries have experienced economic stagnation. In times of tighter educational opportunities the educational position of women relative to men may suffer. The gap between girls' and boys' enrolment rates is the largest for the poorest countries at least in the
primary and secondary education level. From the parents' perspective the net return to educating boys is higher than that to educating girls. In countries like India, social customs place more responsibility on sons than on daughters to support their parents due to the patriarchal practices. Hence, the parents may have stronger incentive to educate their sons, even if the overall net returns are the same for boys and girls (Fernandez, 1986 and Stein, 1972). It was established that many rural and urban families of the lower and middle classes prefer to send their sons to school and give their daughters bare minimum of education and then put them in charge of domestic tasks. Sen (1992) also espoused the same in the context of India.

Thus, the formal educational system in India and the stratification of Indian society lent support to the perpetuation of elite needs and patriarchal values. Since the elites command social, political and economic power in the society, the need and interests of lower class and gender are relegated to the back benches. Hence a thorough educational change with concerted effort on primary education only would ensure the fair distribution of primary goods to all both class and gender in conformity with the difference principle. This necessitates a detailed manpower planning to ascertain a qualitative primary education to all.

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3 The net return to education is the gross return minus the cost (both in terms of discounted value)
4 All these studies observed the parental discrimination against girls in Latin American countries due to the prevailing social customs.
1.5 Review of literature

Review of literature is an integral part of a study as it helps to understand the various concepts used and variables studied in the similar type of studies. It also assists to project the importance of the present study by highlighting the gaps in the existing studies and the issues neglected in the previous studies. It also facilitates to get acquaintance with various methodological approaches followed in the similar type of existing studies, statistical tools used, variables analysed and the various research designs in the present area of study. Hence, a comprehensive review of past studies has been attempted in this section. The studies are grouped into studies on international context and studies on Indian context.

1.5.1 Studies on International context

Margerison and Ashton (1974) established by studying manpower planning in a corporate company that manpower of the right kind and quality was a scarce resource owing to the relative immobility of labour. Manpower planning is primarily concerned with the estimation of the present stock of manpower and future manpower requirements of the organisation. They also observed that the present stock of manpower was the difference between the recruitment, promotions-in, transfers-in and wastage, retirements, transfers-out as well as promotion-out. They concluded that planning did not mean trying to predict and control exactly what was going to happen in the future. The objectives of manpower planning were closely related to the objectives of
the organisation. Manpower planning was indispensable because staff structure was highly complicated and recruitment, promotions, retirement etc. interact in a complex way to create imbalances.

Enaohwo (1990) identified the number of additional teachers required, the impact of staff turnover, the rate at which employed teachers leave their existing posts in schools in both developed and developing countries. According to their study, the student - teacher ratios of 40:1, 50:1 and 60:1 were common in developing countries. This study made overall projections to provide guidelines for equitable distribution of teachers among disciplines.

Stoner and Wankel (1987) highlighted the importance of staffing and human resource development in manpower planning from the manager's point of view. According to the study, staffing process subsumes human resource planning, recruitment, selection, induction and orientation, training and development, performance appraisal, transfer, promotion and demotion and separation.

Bowey (1977) underscored that the most important factor underlying manpower statistics was the understanding of human behaviour and the resulting social processes. It exhibited that inclusion of various social
variables in any model of manpower situation in the organisation would comprehend all the concommitant issues of manpower planning. It also deals with the problems of assessing future requirements for manpower, assessing the organisation's likely ability to retain existing manpower and predicting the ability to attract further manpower of the kinds it may need in the future. It also considers special problems such as career development which had to be taken into account when manpower planning was being undertaken for managerial, professional and technical staff.

At a macro level study, Bertrand (1992) envisaged that the need for human resources planning in the third world tend to have crucial place in the development. Particularly the need for some form of planning is even greater in developing countries due to various reasons such as limited resources, higher growth of school attendance and the growth of the modern sector. He concluded that combination of these phenomena carries much more serious risks of imbalance in developing countries than in industrialised countries. This study also made a distinction between the countries counting on various types of schools like countries depending on public schools, countries depending on private schools and countries relying on the mixture of both.

Harbinson and Myers (1964) examined the quality of primary education. They observed that in all the underdeveloped countries, the
pressure for rapid expansion in the number of schools and pupils at the primary level makes it difficult to maintain, leave alone improve quality. The dropout or wastage rates in primary education are also very high. It becomes a disincentive to improve primary education particularly in the countries where education is publicly provided. One of the major reasons emphasised in the study was that many of the schools were operated by voluntary agencies or missionary organisations with varying curricula. In addition, bulk of the primary school teachers are unqualified and practically have no training.

Psacharopoulos (1987) observed that the art of manpower planning is in disarray. After decades of manpower forecasting practice, it has come under repeated and sustained criticism. He underscored that at the macro level the desire to forecast manpower needs in order to prevent bottlenecks or excess labour supply is very natural and appears sensible. One of the reasons for failure of manpower planning, according to him remains to be the inability of human beings to anticipate future developments accurately. Manpower planning of a country typically starts with a classification of the labour force by occupational category. There are many less clear-cut occupations such as middle level technicians that do not correspond to a particular educational level. Hence, manpower planning is in disarray in most of the countries.
Schultz (1981) envisaged that where men are free agents, human capital is not a negotiable asset in the sense that it can be sold. It can only be acquired not as an asset that is purchased in a market but by means of investing in people. It follows that no person can separate himself from the human capital he possesses. He must always accompany his human capital whether it serves him in production or consumption. From these basic attributes of human capital, there arise many subtle differences between human and non human capital in explaining the economic behaviour pertaining to the formation and utilisation of these two classes of capital. Hence human capital becomes more productive in the national context as it always accompanies the possessor. Thus a detailed planning to invest in human capital is advocated strongly.

Similarly Becker (1964) in his human capital envisaged on the activities that influence future monetary and psychic income by increasing the resources in the people. These activities are called investments in human capital. The many forms of such investments include schooling, on the job training, medical care, migration and searching for information about prices and income. All these investments improve skills, knowledge or health and thereby raise money of psychic incomes. The prime one among these in the context of underdeveloped countries is education. Hence educational planning leads to economic growth.
The following issues have been observed from the above studies.

1. Manpower planning is primarily concerned with the estimation of the present stock of manpower and future manpower requirements of the organisation. Manpower planning was closely associated with the objectives of the organisation.

2. Importance of staffing process and human resource development tend to have a major hold in the manpower planning.

3. Manpower planning needs to accommodate social variables to analyse manpower situation in the organisation.

4. Teachers' perception about job satisfaction at the elementary school, particularly regarding teacher and principal relationship and other human relations remains to be an instrumental variable in the manpower planning.

5. Social demand and limited resources force the underdeveloped countries to concentrate more on promoting primary education while developed countries can concentrate on higher education.

6. Manpower planning needs to consider the future labour force requirements in the country.

7. Investing in human capital assures a future monetary income and psychic income by increasing the resources of the people and as a result overall economic growth in the country.
1.5.2 Studies in the Indian context

Though Article 45 of the constitution promised primary education for all children of the country in the age group of 6 to 14 years within a period of ten years, low enrollments and high wastage became a serious constrain in achieving primary education for all. Some studies observed that priorities of the Government immediately after independence remained to be food scarcity, health facilities and other infrastructure building. A few studies established that the lack of infrastructure, poor quality of primary education and low per capita expenditure lead to lower enrollment rate in the primary schools. Still there is no consensus or comprehensive study to pin point the constraints for achieving primary education for all children.

Some of the studies focusing on primary education and infrastructural or manpower planning have been reviewed to clarify in the subject

The Kothari Commission being the pioneering study noted that the private costs of primary education exceeded the percentage of fees collected. The commission also suggested a perspective plan for each district for universalisation of primary education, a time frame, quality improvement and provision of adequate resources for the same. Following this, the National policy on education, 1986 envisaged the universalisation of primary education. This resolve was reinforced with the adoption of New Economic
Policy in the early 1990s. Even with all these efforts, still the net primary enrolment ratio is 77.2 percent as on 1997 (UNDP HDR, 1999). This is next to only Bangladesh in the Asian continent. The major reason for this is identified as wastage and costs.

Shariff (1999) observed through two large scale studies that the cost of education includes not only public expenditure on education and the private household expenditure, but also earnings foregone by not engaging in gainful wage or self-employment. At present India earmarks only 3.8 percent of GNP on education. The study suggests that in line with developed countries it should be increased to 6 percent of GNP to achieve education for all. Even in the 3.8 percent expenditure, till 1980-81, only 8.7 percent of this was spent on plan expenditure on education as a whole with primary education getting only 5.8 percent expenditure. This indicates that most of the Government expenditure on education is drained for maintaining the existing infrastructure and only cursory effort is made for providing fillip to future requirements.

Three studies namely, Ramachandran et al. (1997), Saikia Committee (1997), and Shariff (1999) have estimated the state wise requirement of resources to provide primary education for all children. These studies projected that around 3.1 to 3.5 of the GDP should be earmarked for primary
education alone to achieve universal elementary education. Ramachandran et al. (1997) suggested that more than 5 percent of the SDP is also required to achieve primary education for all in the BIMARU states. Bihar, particularly needed 8 percent of the SDP annually.

Tilak (1987) made attempts to analyse the relative unit cost between elementary education and secondary or higher education. It reveals the extent of misallocation of resources or the unbalanced nature of development of education. He estimated that the ratio of per pupil expenditure on elementary education and secondary education was 1:3. But the ratio of per pupil expenditure on elementary education and higher education was 1:4.44 in 1980-81, which came down to 1:1.5 in 1995-96. But still the ratio between elementary and secondary education remains to be higher. There is a pressing need to reduce this disparity. This can be achieved by improving levels of per pupil investment in elementary education. He concludes that “Education is no doubt expensive, but the alternative is more expensive to the society in the long run. Hence there is no option for the Government but to find sufficient resources for free compulsory education”.

World Bank (1997) made a critical study of primary education in India by looking at the achievements and challenges for primary education in India. It concluded that “India’s primary education glass is two third full, one
third empty." The study observed that though India made much progress in expanding access to education with steady increase in the number of schools, teachers and in the enrolment rates, still about 32 million (nearly one third) of the children in the 6 - 10 age cohort were out of school in 1993. It also observed that of the total children out of school, nearly 75 percent of the children hailed from six states, namely Andhra Pradesh, Bihar, Madhya Pradesh, Rajasthan, Uttar Pradesh and West Bengal.

Shrama (1996) in her study observed that the per unit cost of Government primary schools of Jorhat town in Assam has been consistently increasing from 1950-51 onwards. It was higher than all Assam average. But the growth rate of enrollment was strikingly low in these schools. When increase in enrolment from 1991-94 was only 3.7 percent, the increase in unit cost during the period stood at 8.6 percent. She also found out that about 94 percent of the total expenditure was non plan expenditure ie salary and maintenance, implying that unit cost of the schools is mainly governed by the number and the length of service of the teachers.

Mishra (1996) examined the variability of resource investment and its use in three types of schools: public, private and Government schools, in Sikkim. It was observed that public schools are not only cost effective but
also best in quality. It suggested that instead of aggregate expenditure, an analysis of item wise expenditure may prove to be more useful.

Of late the focus of research in education is shifting towards analysing the cost effectiveness of different types of schools particularly private schools, public schools, Government schools, aided schools and unaided schools (Psacharopolous, 1987; Govinda and Varghese, 1993; Basheer, 1994; Duraisamy, 1998 and Mohanty, 1998)

Duraisamy and Subramaniam (1999) in their study compared the costs, source of finance and efficiency of public and private (both aided and unaided) schools using school level primary data from Chennai Metropolitan Area. The school budget analysis indicated that the per unit institutional costs are lower in the private unaided and private aided schools than public schools by 25 and 11 percent at all levels and 43 and 14 percent at the higher secondary level. The state Government grant constitutes about 86 and 88 percent of the revenue of the private aided and Government schools while the unaided schools raise about 87 percent of their revenue through fees. The private unaided schools mobilise about 30 percent revenue in excess of their costs. The cost-effective analysis at the higher secondary level indicates that the private unaided schools are more efficient than private aided and public schools.
Mohanty (1998) analysed the institutional unit cost of education to determine the cost effectiveness of different types of schools in Delhi namely Government schools, New Delhi Municipal Corporation school, Government aided and unaided schools. This study found that the share of teachers salary is more than 80 percent and in some schools it is 90 percent or more except the unaided schools where the share is about 50 percent. It is also noticed that the variation in total recurring cost is not strictly proportional to the variation in enrollment, and per student expenditure varies between different types of schools. The difference between the normal and effective unit cost, as a measure of cost effectiveness between schools was minimum in the case of Government aided schools in 1995-96, followed by Navvyug, Kendriya Vidyalayas and Unaided schools. In 1996-97, the difference was minimum in Kendriya Vidyalaya schools followed by Government aided, unaided and Navvyug schools. In both the years, the Government schools were least cost effective.

Bhaskara Rao (1996) analysed the Operation Black Board scheme and found that the unrelenting problem of school dropouts and inadequate upgradation in facilities affect the achievement of education for all. Child labour is also identified as one of the factors associated with the
unaccomplishment of universal elementary education. It was also observed that economic factors play a major role in the drop out rate.

Contrary to this Mandakini (1974) established that the major reasons for dropout were non-economic one such as household work, sickness, absence of schools nearby etc.

Krishna Reddy (1991) showed that size of the family, single parent family and occupational attainment tend to influence the drop out decision of students. He also observed that economic reasons such as financial difficulties and desire to work also play their role in the drop out cases.

Zaridi (1991) analysed the drop out at elementary education and found the reasons for the same to be poverty and poor performance at schools. He suggested that the Government should bear the opportunity cost of education for parents below poverty line, coaching for students after school timings and ensuring the facilities provided under operation black board to reduce the drop out rates.

The major findings of the studies reviewed have indicated the following manifestation
1. Though the constitution promised education for all within ten years, due to various constraints it has not happened even after 50 years.

2. The education expenditure remains to be around 3 percent of the GNP. Unless it is increased to 6 percent, the achievement of education for all could be a difficult task for the years to come.

3. In the BIMARU states, nearly 5 percent of SDP also should be spent on primary education and particularly Bihar should earmark more than 8 percent of SDP for primary education.

4. The difference in Government expenditure between primary education and higher education stood at 1:4 in 1981. Now it has declined a little. Still the gap is wide.

5. Unit cost of education appears to be considerably higher in the case of Government schools and aided schools.

6. The plan expenditure on education is noticeably lower than non-plan expenditure.

7. The cost effectiveness of private unaided schools tends to be appreciably higher than private aided and public schools. The Government schools were found to be least cost effective.

8. The economic disparities between urban poor and rich make the performance level considerably low.

9. The drop out rates in elementary education is determined not only by economic factors but also by social factors.
1.5.3 Research Gaps

The major gaps found in the existing studies are listed as follows.

1. Though some studies made attempts to analyse the manpower planning across the type of schools, in-depth micro level analysis across urban and rural situation remains to be inadequate.

2. Most of the manpower planning attempts were made at the state level or national level utilising the general enrolment pattern.

3. The perceptions of teachers and parents in the need and potential of the schools have not been analysed sufficiently.

4. The impact of various central and state Government programmes on enrolment and quality of primary education has not been studied at the micro level.

1.6 Objectives of the study

The present study seeks to analyse the nature and extent of manpower planning in the primary education in Karnataka, for manpower is an essential prerequisite to improve the quality of teaching and to meet the needs of the society. To study the general objective the following specific objectives have been formulated.
1. To assess the stock and profile of manpower in primary education across different types of schools in Karnataka.

2. To estimate the changes in enrolment in primary education across gender and the resultant manpower planning across schools.

3. To project the requirement of teaching manpower in primary schools.

4. To probe the infrastructural facilities available in different categories of schools and the cost effectiveness of schools.

5. To study the influence of Government programmes towards primary education to all like DIETs, BRCs, CRCs and other DPEP programmes on primary education.

6. To examine manpower planning policies in primary education across different types of schools.

1.7 Hypotheses

The following hypotheses have been formulated to discuss the results.

1. Per unit cost of primary education and total education have positive relationship across states.

2. There is a positive relationship between female teachers and girls' enrolment.

3. In the primary education, institutional cost remains higher than private cost.
4. Institutional costs and individual determinants decide the enrolment of students in primary education.

5. Gender sensitivity and manpower planning vary from school to school and region to region.

6. The manpower planning in primary education decides the quality of education across schools.

7. Cost effectiveness of the schools would be better in the private schools than Government schools.

1.8 Methodology

The present study is a comparative study of two dimensional nature. It makes an attempt to compare the situation of manpower planning and primary education in one each urban and rural districts. It also seeks to compare the functioning of different categories of schools like Government, private aided, private unaided, missionary schools and others in each of the districts. Hence it would provide a comprehensive picture of the strengths and weaknesses of different categories of schools in diverse situations.

The two districts would be selected on the basis of the major criteria of more urban orientation and more rural orientation. Similarly the taluks would be selected with the additional criterion of wider presence of all categories of schools. In addition, the increase in the enrolment of students
particularly girls would also be considered. On the basis of these criteria, one taluk would be selected from each of the districts. From each of the taluks, after taking census of all the schools functioning, 15 schools would be selected from each of the categories. Thus a total of 90 sample schools will be visited with a structured schedule for both school management and teaching community. Some students would also be interviewed to get a balanced view of the prevailing situation.

Data would be collected from both primary and secondary sources. While the primary data would be collected from the selected schools, as well as teachers and students from the selected schools, the secondary data would be enumerated from Government publications and committee reports. The important sources of secondary data are Human Resources Development Ministry and National Council for Educational Research and Training (NCERT). These two sources provide comprehensive information regarding schools, enrolment and educational facilities in the country. Human Development in Karnataka, 1999 (UNDP) would also be made use of. In addition, all the five All India Surveys on Education would be consulted to elicit information on enrolment and teachers on census basis for general school education. The other sources of data would include the publications of the Directorate of Public Instruction and Manpower Planning unit of the
Government of Karnataka, the NSS and other Karnataka State Government publications on labour force, employment and unemployment levels.

The collected data, both primary and secondary would be analysed within the theoretical framework of the study by using standard statistical tools. Percentage, averages and trend projection are a few statistical tools that are proposed to be used. Statistical tests would be carried out to test the validity of the sets of data through relevant tests.

1.9 Limitations of the study

The major limitations of the study are as follows.

1. The availability of secondary data for macro analysis of manpower planning remains to be a major limitation. Though comprehensive data is available regarding enrolments across categories, the details of manpower planning at the school levels are considerably scarce. This restricts our scope of manpower planning to school level with the help of primary data.

2. Lack of transparency in the management of private schools also constrains the study by reducing authenticity of data.

3. Though hordes of literature available at the macro level manpower planning, particularly labour market management related studies, the literature of manpower planning at the school levels appears to be relatively neglected area. Hence the study has to rely on non-
conventional methodology to analyse the manpower planning across different schools.

4. Since most of the private schools and other missionary or voluntary sector schools in the rural areas are relatively new in origin and they are more interested in locating the school in the urban or suburban centres, the comparability across different types of schools tends to have temporal and spatial constraints. But enough effort is put in to overcome this constraint.

1.10 Plan of the study

The study is organised into seven chapters. The first chapter deals with introduction, theoretical framework, review of literature, research gaps, objectives, hypothesis, methodology and limitations of the study.

The second chapter discusses the primary education and manpower situation in Karnataka. Enrolment pattern across districts and across genders over the years is analysed. The growth of primary schools and pupil teacher ratio across districts is analysed.

The third chapter presents a profile of the selected schools. The sampling method adopted is discussed in this chapter. It analyses parameters
like age of school, medium of instruction and staff profile across different types of managements from the selected schools.

The fourth chapter analyses the enrolment pattern in primary schools within the framework of the social demand approach. Individual and institutional determinants affecting enrolment are analysed in this chapter.

The fifth chapter discusses the human resources in primary schools. Qualitative aspects like qualification and experience of the head of the institution, teachers, selection procedure adopted by the school and the criteria for selection are analysed across the sample schools.

The sixth chapter analyses the gender wise student teacher ratio, using the Input-Output analysis. With the help of the enrolment rates of the previous years, an attempt is made to project the requirement of primary school teachers for the next five years.

Summary, conclusions, findings of the study and policy implications are presented in the last chapter.