
UNIT 1 HIGHER EDUCATION IN INDIA: RETROSPECT AND PROSPECT

Structure

- 1.1 Introduction
- 1.2 Objectives
- 1.3 The Government, National Policies and the Education System
 - 1.3.1 The British Rule and the Birth of the Modern University
 - 1.3.2 The Government's Role After Independence
 - 1.3.3 National Policies, Reviews and Reforms
 - 1.3.4 The Role of the State Governments
- 1.4 The Growth of Higher Education in India
 - 1.4.1 Institutions and Enrolment
 - 1.4.2 Regional and Social Imbalances
 - 1.4.3 Resources for Education
 - 1.4.4 The Private Sector in Indian Higher Education
 - 1.4.5 Open Universities and Distance Education
- 1.5 Quality and Excellence
 - 1.5.1 From Elite-based Education to Mass Education
 - 1.5.2 Structures and Processes
 - 1.5.3 Curricula, Autonomy and Governance
 - 1.5.4 Accreditation of Universities and Colleges
- 1.6 Looking Ahead
 - 1.6.1 The Challenges of Globalization
 - 1.6.2 Technologies and Their Impact on Education
 - 1.6.3 The Role of Research
 - 1.6.4 The Reform Agenda
- 1.7 Let Us Sum Up
- 1.8 Check Your Progress: Possible Answers
- 1.9 References and Suggested Readings

1.1 INTRODUCTION

In the Block-1 of this course we discussed the basic principles of management functions and processes, management of educational systems in general and institutions in particular, and various processes of education. Block-2 discusses the issues involved in higher education and its management. This unit being the first one in this block focuses the retrospect and prospect of Indian higher education. The unit mainly highlights the education system during British rule of government after independence, various commissions and reforms suggested. It further highlights growth and expansion, quality and excellence, and future of higher education.

1.2 OBJECTIVES

On completion of studying this Unit, you should be able to:

- *describe* the origins of modern university education in India and its development till independence;
- *analyse* the developments of higher education after independence;

- *explain* the Role of the National Government in Policy Formulation and Implementation; and
- *identify* the achievements and failures with respect to access, equity and quality in higher education.

It is expected that the learners by answering the questions at the end of sections will be able to describe on the historical developments in higher education. They will also be able to assess the achievements and failures with respect to access, equity and quality dimensions in higher education.

1.3 THE GOVERNMENT, NATIONAL POLICIES AND THE EDUCATION SYSTEM

Pre Independence Developments

The Report of the University Education Commission, 1949 offers a brief account of higher education in ancient India. It says that India had a long tradition of learning and scholarship dating back to the dawn of civilization. The Vedas and the Upanishads that constituted the core of ancient Indian thought and philosophy were orally transmitted, but were carefully preserved as a body of knowledge. Later, there grew up well organized centres of learning of which the most famous were Taksasila and Nalanda. The curriculum at Taksasila that flourished as an educational center till the 5th century A.D. appears to have included the Vedas and Vedangas as also the eighteen arts which comprised of medicine and surgery, astronomy and astrology, agriculture and accountancy. Nalanda was a Buddhist center where students often spent as many as twelve years studying the Vedas and the Upanishads, the works of Mahayana Buddhism and Jainism as well as the systems of philosophy and logic. Nalanda was destroyed towards the close of the twelfth century. These centers were known for scholars visiting from various parts of the world and were known for the close relationship that existed between students and teachers. Similar centers existed in the southern parts of India too where law and grammar were also studied.

The Report goes on to say that during the medieval period, while some of the Hindu centers of learning in the East and the South continued their work, the Muslim rulers who occupied large parts of Northern India encouraged the establishment of colleges (Madrasahs) across Northern India from Lahore to Allahabad and in parts of Rajasthan. The curriculum of these colleges included grammar, rhetoric, logic and law, geometry and astronomy, natural philosophy, metaphysics and theology while poetry was a source of pleasure to all.

When Muslim rulers were replaced by the British, Warren Hastings, the first Governor General, established the Calcutta Madrasah which was intended to “qualify the sons of Mahomedan gentlemen for responsible and lucrative offices in the state”. Later, at Banaras, an educational institution was established to supply qualified Hindu assistants to European Judges. In early 19th century, Indian social reformers like Raja Ram Mohan Roy founded institutions from which the Hindus would receive instruction in European languages and sciences. In the 1830’s schools were established for training “a class of persons qualified by their intelligence and morality for high employment in the civil administration of India”. The famous Macaulay’s minute of 1835 argued that English was the language spoken by the ruling classes and it was likely to become the language of commerce. Macaulay’s minute was approved that year by the Governor General Lord William

Bentinck and his Council and the seeds of modern European education were firmly sown on Indian soil.

The British Government favoured the promotion of European literature and sciences amongst the natives of India. The practice of supporting students of the colleges of oriental learning was discontinued. In the meanwhile, Christian Missions had been setting up institutions of higher education since 1706. By 1840, the mission workers had almost universally accepted that English education would lead to the spread of Christianity; and so institutions for the teaching of English and Western knowledge were started in all parts of the country. English was promoted as medium of instruction as it received preference in public employment.

In the meantime, proposals for establishing universities were initiated in the mid-nineteenth century. Wood's dispatch of 1854 felt the need for establishment of universities to encourage a regular and liberal course in education by conferring academic degrees as evidence of attainment in different branches of Arts and Sciences. In 1857, the Universities at Calcutta, Bombay and Madras were established. These universities were primarily examining bodies for the colleges that were already offering courses in different subjects; arts, law, medicine, engineering and the sciences. The three universities were empowered to regulate admission to the colleges within their jurisdiction. The concept of affiliation of colleges to universities was not, however, clearly defined.

We analysed briefly in the above paragraphs the role played by the British in founding the modern education system in India. In Britain, as elsewhere in most of continental Europe, the national governments play the dominant role in the provision of educational facilities to their citizens. The major provider of finances for education is the government, and they exercise varying degrees of control over the functioning of the educational institutions, including the Universities. While the schools and colleges enjoy some degree of autonomy in determining the curricula and the standards of teaching and research, the governments that provide the finances insist that the universities and other institutions must remain accountable for the use of public funds and the support that they receive from different stakeholders. This broad pattern of educational provision in which the governments play a dominant part has become almost universal, though there are also instances of significant private participation in education. For instance, there are several prestigious universities in the USA that are privately funded, though a number of US universities depend on state support for their survival. The governments play their role by formulating national policies on education that reflect the objectives, strategies, structures, processes, resources, patterns of governance and mechanisms for accountability. We shall look at these aspects of higher education in India in this Unit.

1.3.1 The British Rule and the Birth of the Modern University

We mentioned briefly the background of the birth of the modern university in India during the British period. One immediate consequence of the establishment of the three universities in 1857 was the sudden increase in the number of aspirants to university education. The number of successful candidates in university entrance examination rose from 162 in 1857 to 2778 in 1882. More government colleges were established to meet this increasing demand. The number of colleges went up from 27 in 1857 to 75

in 1882. During the next two decades, 51 new colleges were added. In 1901-02, the total number of colleges was 126 in British India. Universities remained affiliating bodies and their sole function was to conduct examinations and to regulate admission. Elaborate regulations were framed and the freedom of the teacher curtailed. The affiliating rules were stringent and required the disclosure of the fullest information about the colleges. Besides, the standards of efficiency required for affiliation were kept high. University governance was an important focus too covering the size of senate, powers of syndicate, appointment of university professors and activities relating to the promotion of study and research. Expansion continued and the number of students rose to 50000 in 1922, though there was no substantial increase in the number of colleges between 1902 and 1922.

Modern university education brought with it a new political and economic consciousness. The Indian National Congress was founded in 1885 which marked the beginning of a new political consciousness. The desire to advance the economic prosperity of the nation led to greater emphasis on scientific and technical education. Private philanthropy so far was not very successful. The Education policy of 1913 encouraged the creation of new teaching and residential universities within each of the new provinces. Two universities at Banaras and Patna were founded in 1916 and 1917 respectively. In 1916 a significant development took place in terms of introducing post graduate departments in Calcutta University. The recommendations of a Commission that examined the problems of Calcutta University in 1919 were of considerable interest for the long-term reorganization of higher education in India. The recommendations were:

- The intermediate classes of the university should be transferred to secondary institutions and the secondary and intermediate stages should be controlled by a Board of Secondary Education.
- The duration of degree course should be three years.
- The mofussil colleges should be organized in such a way that would encourage the gradual rise of new university centers by the concentration of higher teaching at a few points.
- Organization of a new teaching service distinct from the government service was considered necessary.
- Problems of vocational and professional training should be considered seriously by the university.
- Medium of instruction up to school stage should be the local language but English should be the medium for later stages.

These recommendations were indeed the basic principles on which the foundations of modern education in India were laid. And the initiative for all these came from the British Government.

As many as 25 universities were established by 1949, While some of these were teaching universities, many among them were teaching and affiliating. A conference of Indian universities held in 1924 decided to establish an Inter University Board (later renamed Association of Indian Universities) to facilitate the co-ordination of university work. The Board acted as a forum for discussion on common university problems like admission criteria, equivalence of qualifications, and so on. A Report of the Central Advisory Board (a body that advised the Union and State Governments on policies) published in 1943 contained recommendation for establishment of a University Grants Committee.

Check Your Progress 1

Note: i) Space is given below for your answer.

ii) Check your answer with the one given at the end of the unit.

What was the key contributions of Warren Hastings and Macaulay to Indian education? (answer in about 50 words).

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1.3.2 The Government's Role after Independence

India became free in 1947. It became a democratic Republic with its own constitution in 1950. The post independence phase marked the transition of Indian higher education from an elitist pursuit to a potentially powerful instrument for change and development. The first commission on higher education in the post independence phase, popularly known as Radhakrishnan Commission (we made a reference to this Commission in the earlier section of this Unit) made recommendations covering all aspects of higher education ranging from the aims of university education in independent India to the standard of teaching, courses of study, post graduate training and research, professional education, rural education, women's education, examination and finance. It provided a definite direction amidst uncertainties (the Constitution of India was not adopted when the report was published). One of the most significant recommendations of the Commission was to establish the University Grants Commission by converting the University Grants Committee created in 1945 to deal with the Central Universities initially and later extended to cover all universities. The proposed UGC, according to the Commission, should be an expert body that can assess the financial needs of the universities, and allocate adequate resources rather than just determine how much public money can be spent on them. The proposed UGC would also be responsible for setting the standards of higher education. This recommendation was implemented with the passing of the UGC Act in 1956, and establishing the University Grants Commission (UGC). Since then, the development of higher education in India has been guided by the UGC through numerous initiatives.

The major responsibilities of the UGC were:

- promotion, coordination, determination and maintenance of standards in universities;
- assessment of the financial needs of universities and allocation and disbursement of grants to them;
- advising universities as well as the Central and State Governments on measures necessary for improvement of standards in universities.

1.3.3 National Policies, Reviews and Reforms

The Government of India was active in providing the basic policy framework. In 1966, a more comprehensive review of Education in India was undertaken by the education commission. This review covered all levels of education, primary (elementary), secondary and tertiary (higher).

The burden of the Education Commission's recommendations (1966) was that education should be an instrument for national development and that educational opportunities at all levels should be expanded, the structure of education should be uniform across the country, and that the courses and curricula should have relevance to the needs of development. The Commission also emphasized the need for developing centers of excellence, expansion of facilities for high quality research, and improvements in the quality of teaching and research. The National Policy that emerged from the 1966 review was again reviewed twenty years later, and a new policy was put in place to direct the development of education in the coming decades.

What directions were set by the 1966 Commission? The major issues in higher education were obviously those concerned with expansion: the quality in teaching, research and extension; the development of science education as well as vocational and technical education that could support industrial development; governance including autonomy of university, the role and appointment of the Vice-Chancellor and expansion of affiliated colleges. The Commission also suggested the establishment of professional councils in agriculture, engineering and medicine to coordinate the developments within those sectors and coordination between different councils and UGC. The Commission further suggested that 6% of the national income should be earmarked for education. The National Policy on Education (NPE), 1968 broadly incorporated these recommendations and also endorsed the structural reform through the reorganization of the pattern of education in to 10 years of schooling, 2 years preparatory courses for higher education and 3 years for the first degree, popularly known as the 10+2+3 pattern. It noted very briefly, yet emphatically, the need for the provision of essential facilities for maintaining high standards of universities, promotion of postgraduate courses, Centres of advanced study and increased support to research in universities.

Education, and higher education in particular, had always engaged the attention of the Government of India. Various committees setup by the governments and the UGC determined the directions in which the higher education moved. Notable among these were:

- An Expert Committee (Sen) in 1974 that looked at the issue of minimum qualifications for teachers and their compensation packages.
- A Committee (V.S.Jha:1974-77) that reviewed the functioning of UGC focusing on its core functions of coordination and determination of standards of higher education.
- Several conferences of Vice chancellors convened by the UGC and the government to decide issues such as admission and facilities for weaker sections, role and responsibility of teachers, autonomous colleges, women's participation etc.
- In the area of university governance were D.S. Kothari on Model Act for Universities (1964), P.B .Gajendragadkar Committee on Governance of Universities and Colleges (1971), A.Gnanam Committee on Towards New Educational Management (1990), Soneri Committee on Review of Gnanam Committee Recommendations (1995) and P.C. Alexander Committee on The Role of the Governor as Chancellor of the Universities (1997) (Approved 2003).

The 1968 policy was comprehensively reviewed in 1986. The major thrusts of the 1986 policy were:

- Consolidation of, and expansion of the facilities in, the existing universities;

- Conferring autonomous status on selected colleges;
- Redesigning of courses and programs to respond to the needs of specialization;
- State level planning and coordination through state councils for higher education;
- Transformation of the teaching and learning processes through technology intervention, development of curricula and materials, continuing professional development of teachers, and so on;
- Enhanced support for research in universities;
- Expansion of the open university and distance education system; and
- Establishment of a national agency for coordinated development of higher education across all sectors, agricultural, general, legal, medical, technical and other professional fields.

Concept of autonomy was given a big push through developing autonomous colleges and post graduate departments within universities. Autonomy offered greater flexibility in the development of course, adoption of better teaching methods, teachers' orientation and performance assessment.

1.3.4 The Role of the State Governments

According to the constitution of India, adopted in 1950, education was primarily the responsibility of the State Governments that constituted the Union of India. The exception to this rule was the responsibility for coordination and determination of standards in universities and the administration of universities and similar institutions established under Acts of Parliament. Under this dispensation, the Central Government could establish universities only with the consent of two or more states, or in centrally administered areas of the country. An amendment to the constitution in 1977 ensured that education was a joint responsibility of the Centre and the States. The Union Government can now legislate on education, and laws enacted by Parliament prevail across the country.

As we mentioned earlier, even during the British period, when there were a large number of princely states, some of whom were very active in the field of education, a convention was established to engage them through consultations in the provision of education. The mechanism devised for this purpose was the Central Advisory Board of Education that continues to function even after independence. This apex body consists of representatives of the Central and State Governments, academics, civil society and other concerned interests. It advises governments on matters of policy and issues of national interest in the field of education

The large majority of institutions that constitute the higher education system in India are in the state sector. Of the 400 or more universities in the country, those functioning under the Union government are less than 20; there are in addition, an equal number of institutions of national importance that have been established under Acts of Parliament. Almost all the 20,000 or more colleges are in the state sector. A large part of the annual maintenance expenditure on higher education is met by the State Governments. The Central Government provides substantial grants for the development of the universities through the UGC; these funds are largely used for infrastructure improvement, introduction of new programs, improvements

in quality, creation of centers of advanced studies, and so on. The primary responsibility for expansion of higher education facilities rests with the State Governments, and it is for them to set up new universities and colleges.

Check Your Progress 2

Note: i) Space is given below for your answers.

ii) Check your answers with those given at the end of the unit.

i) What are the major thrusts of 1968 and 1986 policies? (answer in about 40 words).

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ii) When did the education become the joint responsibility of states and the centre and what was the implications of this? (answer in about 50 words).

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1.4 THE GROWTH OF HIGHER EDUCATION IN INDIA

The expansion of higher education facilities in India during the last half a century has been phenomenal. In terms of the number of universities and colleges, the number of students enrolled, the range and variety of programs and courses offered, the higher education system in India today presents a picture of bewildering complexity of light and shade, success and failure, as well as hope and despair. The numbers are large, but there are huge unmet social demands; there are sizable regional imbalances; there are large sections of the society that are still not adequately serviced by the system; and not the least, there are questions also about the quality and relevance of what the system offers in large measure. We shall now look at some of these issues in the following paragraphs.

1.4.1 Institutions and Enrolment

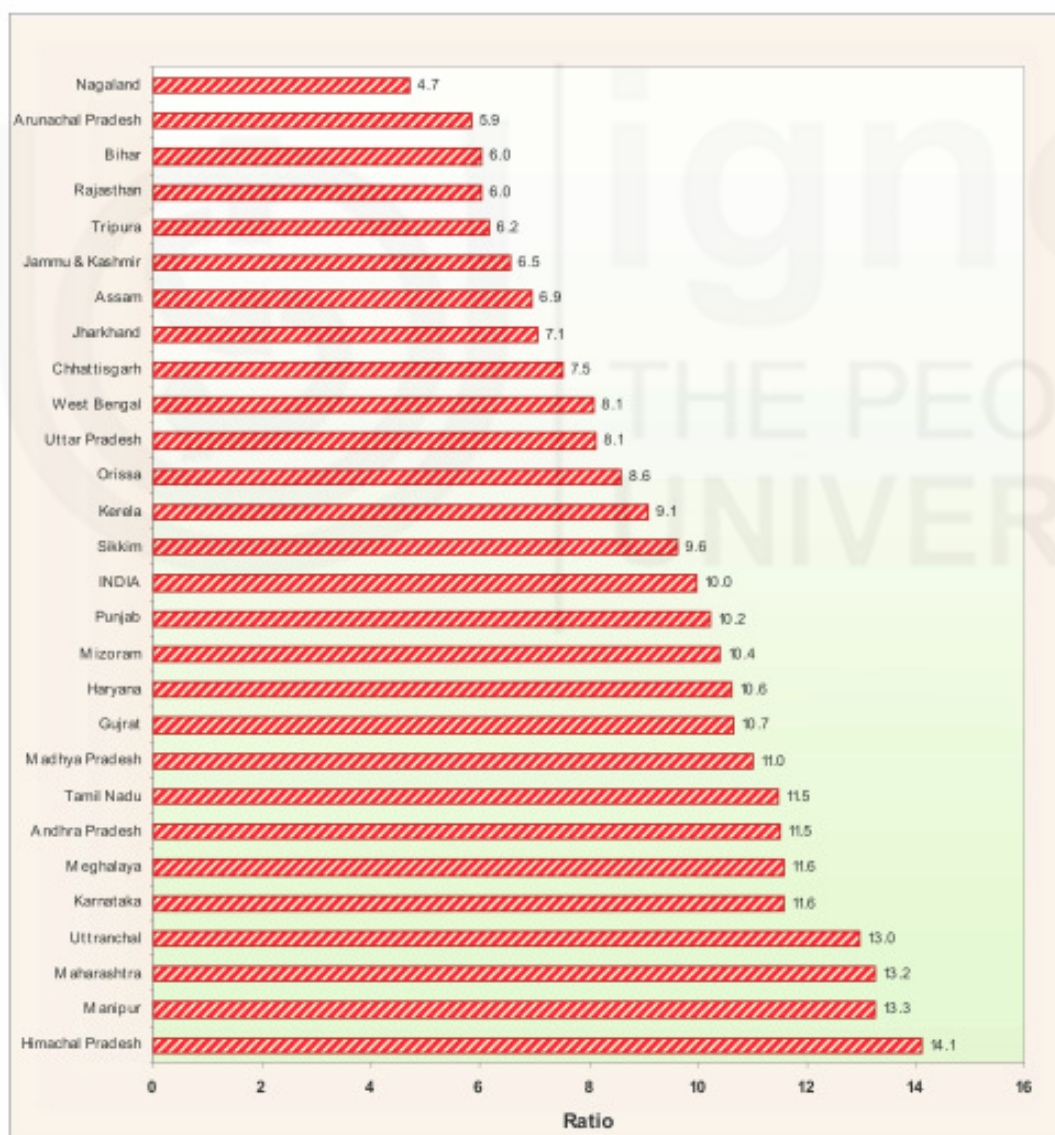
We just mentioned the quantitative expansion of the system. We shall look at some of the figures. Between 1950 and 2008, the number of universities increased from 25 to 431, the number of colleges from 700 to 20677 and the number of teachers from 15000 to 5.05 lakh (over half a million). The number of students in higher education institutions increased from mere 1.00 lakh in 1950 to over 116.12 lakhs (11.6 million).

Table 1: Institutional capacity Expansion

Capacity Indicators	1950	2008
Number of Universities	25	431
Number of Colleges	700	20,677
Number of Teachers	15000	5.05 lakh
Number of enrolled students	1 lakh	116.12 lakh

(Note: 10 lakhs is one million)

Though the overall demand for higher education in India is increasing, there are wide variations in gross enrolment ratios (GER) across States (Figure 1). The GER at the higher education level ranges from as low as 4.7% in Nagaland to as high as 14.1% in Himachal Pradesh. The GER is less than 7% in Assam, Jammu & Kashmir, Tripura, Rajasthan, Bihar and Arunachal Pradesh and less than the national average of 9.97% in 14 States that include Sikkim, Kerala, Orissa, Uttar Pradesh, West Bengal, Chhattisgarh and Jharkhand

**Figure 1: Gross Enrolment Ratio of Higher Education across States in India**

Source: Selected Educational Statistics, 2004-05, MHRD, Government of India, New Delhi

The gross enrolment ratio by the end of year 2011-12 (the last year of the current Five Year Plan) is expected to go up to 15%, and the actual enrolment touching 21 million by 2011-12.

Enrolment in Higher Education by Levels

Of the total enrolment in higher education, the share of undergraduate students is as high as 89%, while post-graduate enrolment is 9%. The proportion of doctorate enrolment was 0.65% to the total enrolment during 2001-02 (Figure 2). The distribution of enrolment at various levels of higher education remained almost similar during 2005-06, except that there was a marginal rise in the share of diploma and certificate courses.

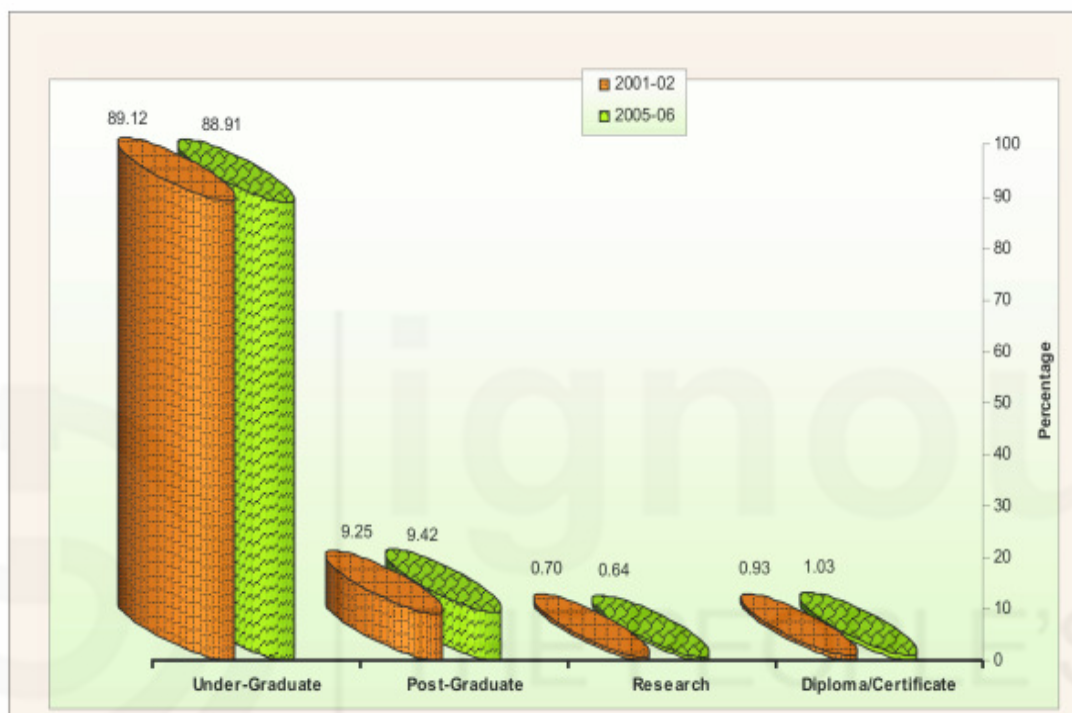


Figure 2: Enrolment by Levels in Universities and Affiliated Colleges in India

Source: UGC Annual Reports, 2001-02 and 2005-06.

Enrolment by Major Disciplines

Enrolment by faculty includes the stream-wise enrolment in Arts, Science, Commerce, Education, Engineering and Technology, Medicine, Agriculture, Veterinary Science, Law and others. The total enrolment at higher education level was 11 million in 2005-06. It is evident from Figure 3 that four out of ten students in higher education were in the faculty of Arts, enrolled for courses in the humanities and social sciences, including languages in 2001-02. Nearly two out of 10 students were enrolled in science courses. The percentage enrolment for commerce has marginally increased from 17.87% in 2001-02 to 18.01% in 2005-06. Around 84 percent of total enrolment was in the three faculties namely, arts, science and commerce in 2005-06 while the remaining 16 per cent were enrolled in the professional courses. Enrolment in engineering and technology accounted for only 7.5 per cent of the total enrolment. On the other hand enrolment in agriculture was 0.6 per cent and in veterinary science, it was a miniscule, 0.16 per cent (Figure 3). It can also be seen from Figure 3 that as against 2001-02, the distribution of enrolment across the faculty in 2005-06 has remained more or less the same.

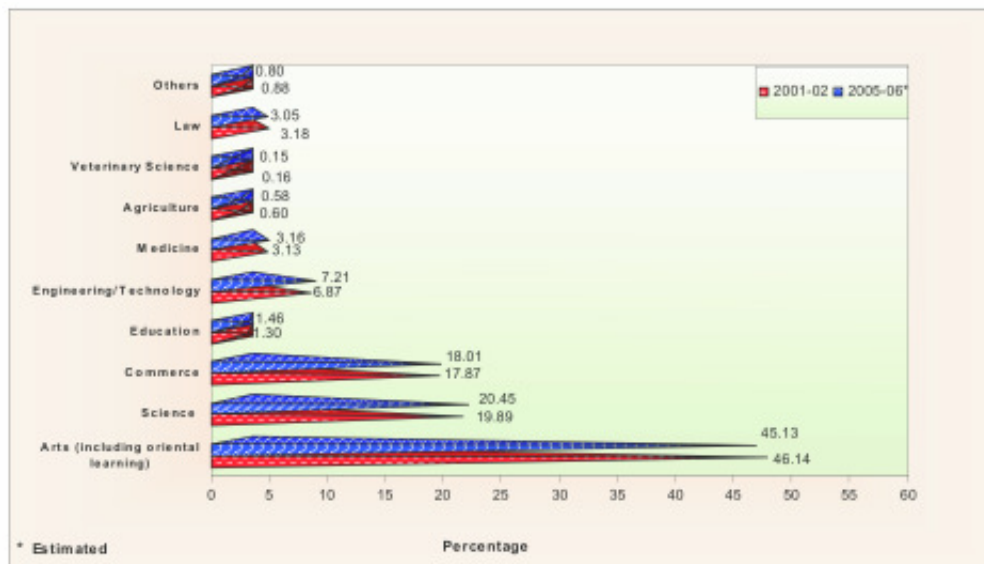


Figure 3: Faculty-wise Enrolment in Higher Education in India, 2001-2002 and 2005-2006
Source: UGC, Annual Reports, 2001-2002 & 2005-2006

1.4.2 Regional and Social Imbalances

All these expansion did not take place evenly across all regions, states and even among different social groups. We have already mentioned the uneven growth across different states (Fig.1). You will notice that the GER in half the number of states (many among them are also the bigger states in terms of population) is less than 10%, with a quarter of the number of states struggling to reach 7% or more. The major reasons for these regional imbalances are low levels of literacy, poor economic conditions of the people, uneven economic growth, and a host of social conditions that inhibit growth. We shall now take a look at some of these factors.

Enrolment of Girls

The participation of girls in higher education has been increasing steadily since 1950-51. The share of girls' enrolment in the total rose from 10% in 1950-51 to 32.3% in 1990-91. It further increased to 40.1% in 2004-05 (Figure 4).

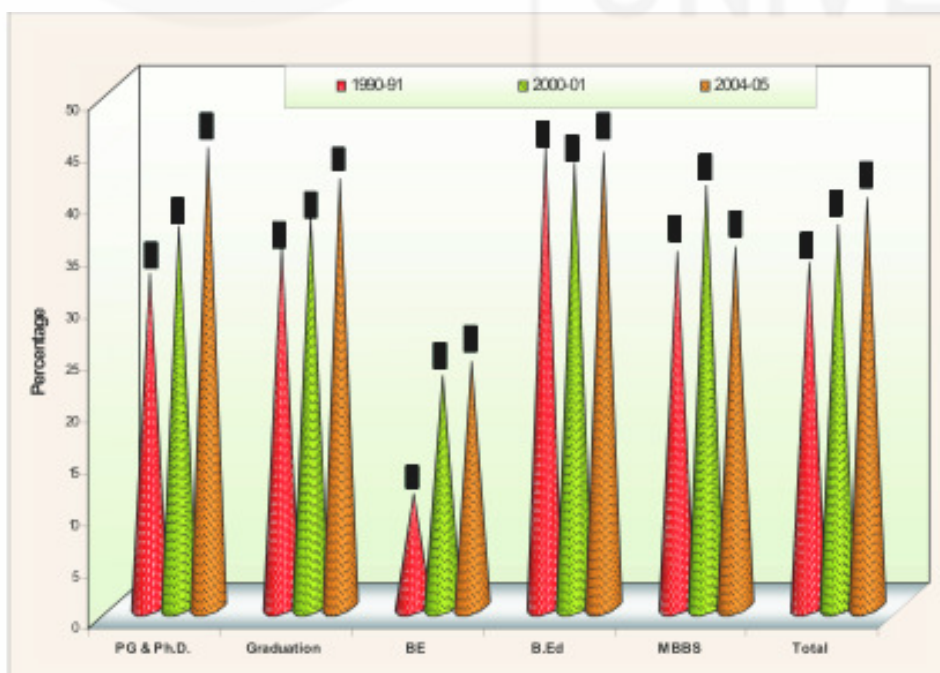


Figure 4: Level-Wise Share of Girls in Total Enrolment in Higher Education in India, 1990-91 to 2004-05

Source: Selected Educational Statistics, Various Years.

The enrolment of women at the beginning of the academic year 2006-07 was 4.47 million, constituting 40.40% of the total enrolment. The participation of girls in engineering courses has gone up remarkably. Of the total enrolment of women, 12.35% were enrolled in the professional courses.

Inequitable Access to Higher Education among Social Groups

An important aspect of widening access is the equal participation in higher education by diverse social and economic groups. Table 2 gives the Net Enrollment Ratio of different social groups in 1999-2000. You will notice that at the primary level, there was a wide gap in achieving universal education. The NER goes on declining at middle, secondary and higher levels of education. The important point to note is the wide disparity that exists between different social groups at all levels of education. At the higher education level, the NER of the Scheduled Castes (SC) and the Scheduled Tribes (ST) – the most deprived social groups in India, is 4.8% and 5.2% respectively. The NER of Other Backward Classes (OBC) among the population at 6.3% is closer to those of SC and ST's. The NER of the general category of population is 14.6%. The extent of disparity in the participation in higher education among social groups turns out to be quite large.

Table 2: Net Enrolment Rates (%) Among Social group based on NSS

	Total	ST	SC	OBC	General
6-10 (primary)	70.8	61.0	67.3	70.1	76.8
11-13 (middle)	44.6	35.0	38.7	43.4	51.6
14-17 (Sec.)	34.2	25.4	26.6	31.7	42.8
18-23 (Higher)	8.9	5.2	4.8	6.3	14.6

Note: Figures in table 2 is based on National Sample Survey results

Source: Result of UGC sponsored study Conducted by Shrivastava Ravi (2007), unpublished.

There are other factors that contribute to these imbalances. The rural-urban divide, the rich-poor considerations and, not the least, religious dispositions also play a great part in the pronounced imbalances that prevail across the country. A recent study finds that the proportion of graduates among SC, ST and the Muslims in rural India is just about 1% as against 5% or more among the upper caste Hindus. In urban India, the ST, SC, OBC and Muslims, with a proportion of 5% among them being graduates, are way behind the forward communities that have 25% or more of them as graduates. Wide disparities also exist among different categories of households, for example, as between unorganized sector (casual labour, farm labour) and regular wage/salary earners.

Exercise-1:			
Classify states in terms of GER in the following table and comment on regional variations in access to higher education.			
Less than 5%	5%-10%	10%-15	15%-20%
Comments:			

Check Your Progress 3

Note: i) Space is given below for your answers.

ii) Check your answers with those given at the end of the unit.

i) What are the reasons for regional imbalances in GERs? (answer in about 30 words).

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ii) What are the factors that are contributing to imbalances in NERs among various social groups? (answer in about 40 words).

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1.4.3 Resources for Education

Financing education in India is primarily a state responsibility. The Central and State Governments together meet almost the entire expenditure on education from public funds. In recent years, with the huge expansion of educational provision, on the one hand, and the continuously increasing cost of education, on the other, questions have been raised about the ability of the governments to raise adequate resources for education. The generally poor economic conditions of the people do not permit the method of recovery of costs; income from tuition fees is a small fraction of the revenue expenditure (often less than 10%).

Government policies propose the earmarking of at least 6% of the GDP for education, but in reality, it has stayed around 3.8 % or so only. Recently, the Central government has introduced a levy on tax as an educational cess, but it will largely go to finance the cost of universalisation of elementary education (a Right to Education Act has recently become law, ensuring education as a fundamental right of every child under the constitution).

There have been attempts in the recent past to explore ways for mobilization of resources for both higher education and technical education. Expert Committees that have examined these issues, while stressing the importance of state financing, suggested ways of looking for non-governmental sources of finance. These recommendations did not go beyond the conventional means of raising the levels of fees, revenue generation through institutional consultancy, introduction of self-financing courses, and institution of student loans.

1.4.4 The Private Sector in Indian Higher Education

We have mentioned at several places in our discussions that private sector plays a limited role in Indian education. The traditional approach to education in India has been one of social responsibility; the governments were the best instruments to discharge this responsibility. Religious and charitable institutions could play a part, but there was no scope for any commercial interest. As we noted earlier, during the British period, Christian missionaries established a number of schools and colleges: their objective was to popularize the religion. Other religious groups also did

establish their own schools and colleges; but the advent of modern education brought about significant changes.

As western education caught up, major industrial houses entered the field of education mainly through their own philanthropic initiatives. New institutions focusing on science and technology education were set up. Religious charities also did set up more institutions. As we mentioned earlier, with the enactment of the UGC Act in 1956, a university with the power to award degrees could be established only through legislation; this left no scope for a private university in India. However, private sector could establish colleges that required affiliation with universities to teach degree level courses and to present students for university examinations for award of degrees. What this system did was to secure private resources to create infrastructure, while the content and processes of education as well as the award of qualifications remained the exclusive responsibility of the universities in the public sector. For the private sector, it was participation in social development, with no returns on their investments, and hence, a form of charity or philanthropy.

In the last two decades or so, there has been a significant shift in the attitudes towards the private sector initiatives. As public resources remained stagnant, and the demand for purpose-built education in the emerging areas like engineering, technology, medicine, computer education and business studies began to rise continuously, a new system was devised under which the private sector established colleges and ran them on what came to be called the self-financing model. In other words, in theory, these colleges functioned on the principle that the full cost of education was recovered from the students. As the social demand continued to rise, and newer and more affluent client groups emerged in the form of non-resident Indians and overseas students, the management found an opportunity not just to recover costs, but to make significant profits as well.

As the number of private technical and professional colleges increased (there were no such institutions in general subjects like arts, science or commerce), and as the method of recovery went beyond tuition fees to include donations and capitation fees, government intervention became inevitable and new regulations were framed to deal with the erring managements. Under these regulations, every private college was required to limit its fee levels to the actual cost, stop the collection of all donations and capitation fees, and fill half the number of seats with students qualifying in the admission tests held at the national or state levels. Government intervention in regulating fees and admission was challenged legally on the ground that these institutions received no financial aid from the states, and after protracted legislation, the issue was settled by the Supreme Court in 2005. The court's verdict was that:

- There can be no commercialization of education and the private management cannot make any profit from education;
- They can however generate some surplus from their operations, but that surplus should necessarily be used to strengthen infrastructure, improve quality and support campus life;
- The levels of fees must remain within the limits prescribed by state level committees that analyse the costs and sets the ceilings;
- The state policies regarding admission, reservations, etc. will have to be followed in respect of half the number of seats in all private institutions.

1.4.5 Open Universities and Distance Education

Any discussion on higher education in India will be incomplete without a mention of the launch of the Open University and distance education system in the country. Distance education in the form of correspondence education was launched as early as in 1962. The first Open University was established twenty years later. The establishment of the National Open University in 1985 provided the impetus to promote Open University and distance education systems as a viable and effective method to augment educational opportunities and widen access to higher education. We shall have occasion to study this development in greater detail in Block-3 of this course.

Check Your Progress 4

Note: i) Space is given below for your answers.

ii) Check your answers with those given at the end of the unit.

i) What is the major shift that occurred in private sector initiatives in education in the last two decades (answer in about 50 words).

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ii) What was the key features of Supreme Court verdict on the private colleges? (answer in about 50 words).

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1.5 QUALITY AND EXCELLENCE

We have focused our attention so far on the quantitative dimensions of higher education in India. We have seen how fast Indian higher education has grown in to one of the largest systems in the world. Impressive though this growth is, we need to ask whether in terms of quality and relevance the system has served the needs of India and its people. This is not the place to enter into a detailed discussion on what constitutes the quality of education, and how the quality of a system is measured, assessed and judged. Nevertheless, some fundamental concerns about the manner in which the system serves its purpose and the benefits it offers to its students, and the society at large, need to be addressed. We shall look at some of these concerns in the sections that follow.

1.5.1 From Elite-based Education to Mass Education

We had mentioned earlier that across the industrialized world, higher education became mass-based towards the close of the twentieth century. In most of Europe and North America, as also in countries like Japan and Australia, the enrolment ratios in higher education has gone up considerably, touching close to 50% or more of the relevant age group. In

India, the GER in higher education, as we noted earlier, is just about 14%, but the number involved, in absolute terms, is over 14 million, with over 430 universities and 22,000 colleges. Let us now consider where this massive system stands in the global context. A few obvious and simple observations would be in order:

- The Indian Institutes of Technology and Management and a small number of universities are among the top 500 or so in higher education institutions in the world;
- Some of the alumni from these institutions are today world leaders in science and technology, especially in areas like Information Technology;
- Indian professionals, in engineering and medicine, have a huge global market and are recruited in large numbers across the world;
- Institutions of higher education in India attract a large number of students from the developing world.

No one can claim that this is a rosy picture assuring everyone that all is well with the higher education system in India. We have already mentioned some of the deficiencies that is manifest in the system. We shall now look closely at some of the more pronounced dimensions of quality in Indian higher education.

1.5.2 Structures and Processes

The first wave of institution building in the post independent phase (1950 to 1970) led to creation of higher education institutions on a large scale to support mass higher education in the country. On the issue of quality in the first wave varying views have been expressed. For instance, Prof. V. R. Mehta (2003) observes that “we have failed to sustain a sound teaching-learning process, or to provide the right kind of fodder to the job market.....we have failed to provide an authentic process of certification.....people are so much uncertain about the qualities of our products that they no longer take university certification seriously”. According to another observer, Jayaram. N (2004), the undue emphasis on certification rather than on the teaching-learning process has distorted the orientation of university education. In simple terms, what these observations imply is that the purpose of university education for many people was to obtain a degree, and to the extent universities served that purpose, what they taught and how, did not really become a matter of special concern. The ill effects of this trend were:

- Universities generally remained examining bodies;
- Colleges affiliated to them were the teaching institutions;
- The traditional knowledge paradigm that promoted the quest for knowledge through lectures and discussions that involved critical examination of a body of knowledge yielded place to gathering and/or memorizing information and reproducing it when necessary;
- Knowledge was not standardized. Curriculum did not exist in modular form;
- Teaching-learning process was reduced to the delivery of a few lectures;
- Passing the examinations remained the focus of education.

1.5.3 Curricula, Autonomy and Governance

The conceptualization of higher education as public good prompted the state to invest in higher education and provided access to all in a liberal democratic set up. In other words, university emerged as a public service agency provided by government with students as trainees for a range of more or less useful occupations. This was the dominant mode in France, US and most of Continental Europe, as well as in many developing countries. It led to the diversification of disciplines along general, technical and professional lines. The boundaries of disciplines were rigid. Teachers were experts in particular subjects. Curriculum was subject-specific in which the teacher-centric knowledge system developed. Teachers were responsible to add knowledge to their subjects through research as well as to teach larger and larger numbers of students to serve the needs of the economy. Autonomy was relative, and subject to the state established universities' bureaucratic procedures.

The knowledge paradigm consisted of institutionalized subject specific teaching and research. Research was supposed to add newer dimensions to the existing body of knowledge, which teachers were supposed to explain them to the students. Students were the prototypes of their teachers. Good teachers (rich in subject knowledge and communication skills) were supposed to produce good students; low quality teachers produce only low quality students. So dominant was the role of the teacher that academic standards were almost equivalent to the standards of teachers. Good departments or institutions were those that had quality teachers; and everything else, including the methods of teaching and learning was what the teachers decided. Even the reference books were prescribed by the teachers. Naturally, there was no perceptible uniformity in quality; if anything, it was heterogeneous as teachers were different in their approach and students were different in terms of aptitude, intelligence etc.

The transformation from elite to mass based education could not ensure quality as an all pervasive phenomenon. However, it needs to be understood that quality cannot be viewed in technical terms alone. Mass higher education provides a context of diversity and managing that diversity becomes the important issue. Engagement of students in all types of discourses is the real challenge of quality emerging from mass higher education system.

Having said that, we shall now take a look at some measures that the Indian higher education system had taken to ensure the quality of its institutions, programs and processes:

- We just mentioned the standardization of knowledge and the curricula. In pursuance of the National Policy on Education, 1986, the UGC took the initiative in preparing the model curricula for most disciplines that could form the basis for structuring programs and courses by the universities. This initiative meant that most programs offered by universities across the country had a certain uniformity that could become the reference point for comparability;
- The affiliating system in India meant that the academic authority for determining programs, their content, detailed curricula and teaching methods rested with the universities. The role of the colleges was confined to engaging the students in transacting the curricula. The college teachers had no role to play except to engage the students in the manner prescribed by the concerned university. This passive role of

teachers (colleges account for about 80% of the higher education enrolment) contributed significantly to the teaching-learning process becoming a lifeless exercise. To correct this situation, a proposal for granting autonomy to selected colleges was developed about three decades ago. Under this proposal, selected colleges that had the necessary infrastructure, good and adequate teachers, good management systems and processes as well as the necessary resources, would be considered for grant of autonomy in determining the curricula, the teaching methods and assessment procedures subject only to the condition that the degree would be conferred by the university to which they are affiliated. The fact that in the three decades of operation of this scheme, not even 1% of the colleges in the country were conferred this status tells its own story. Perhaps, the state governments and the universities were not too keen; or perhaps, the colleges were not too anxious; or perhaps, the reform itself did not go far enough to satisfy the college academic community or their managements.

- The Indian higher education system is famously *status quoist*. It is not known to be too anxious about change. The universities are known to take very long to review and revise their curricula; they are not too enthusiastic about such reforms as introduction of the semester system; they prefer the course-end single examination to continuous student evaluation; and not the least, there is resistance to productive interaction with the environment that could influence the curricular structure, content and the processes of education. It is no surprise, therefore, that the industry and other employing sectors often complain that the ordinary graduates are not equipped with the skills and competence that the employers look for, and that most of them fail the test of 'fitness for purpose' in the job market.

Check Your Progress 5

Note: i) Space is given below for your answers.

ii) Check your answers with those given at the end of the unit.

i) What do you understand by the statement – graduates produced by our institutions fail the test of “fitness for purpose”? (answer in about 50 words).

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ii) What are the reasons for autonomous colleges scheme not very successful as anticipated? (answer in about 50 words).

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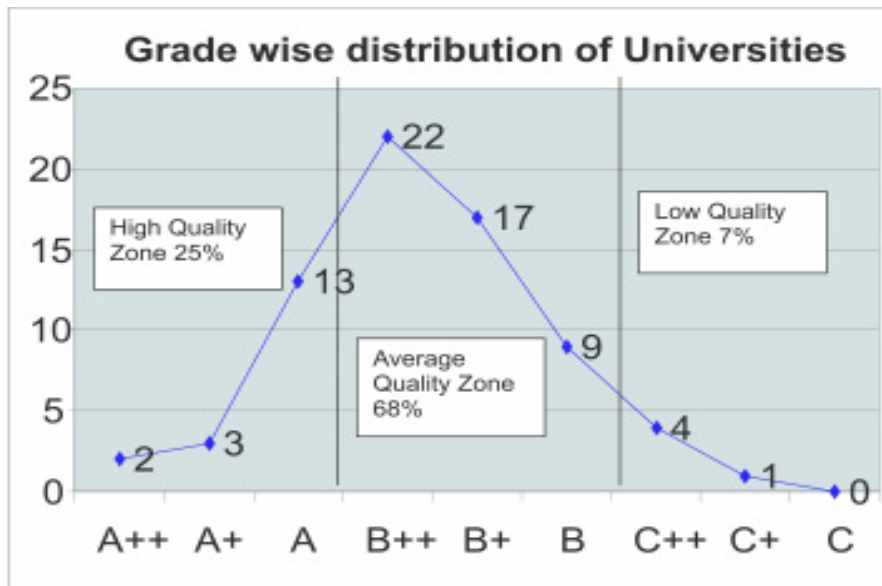
1.5.4 Accreditation of Universities and Colleges

As the quality of higher education remained a continuing concern for the government, the UGC and indeed all the stakeholders of the system, it became a focus of debate especially during the review of the national policy in 1986. The policy called for serious efforts to “make the system work”. The strategy for this purpose, among others, was “creation of a system of performance appraisals of institutions according to standards and norms set at the national or state levels”. This declaration in the policy was followed up at two levels; first, when the All India Council for Technical Education (AICTE) was set up as a statutory mechanism through an Act of Parliament in 1988, a provision was made in the Act that AICTE will have the powers to establish a mechanism for accreditation of technical institutions (those offering programs in engineering, technology and allied fields including business and management studies). In pursuance of this provision, the AICTE set up a National Board of Accreditation (NBA).

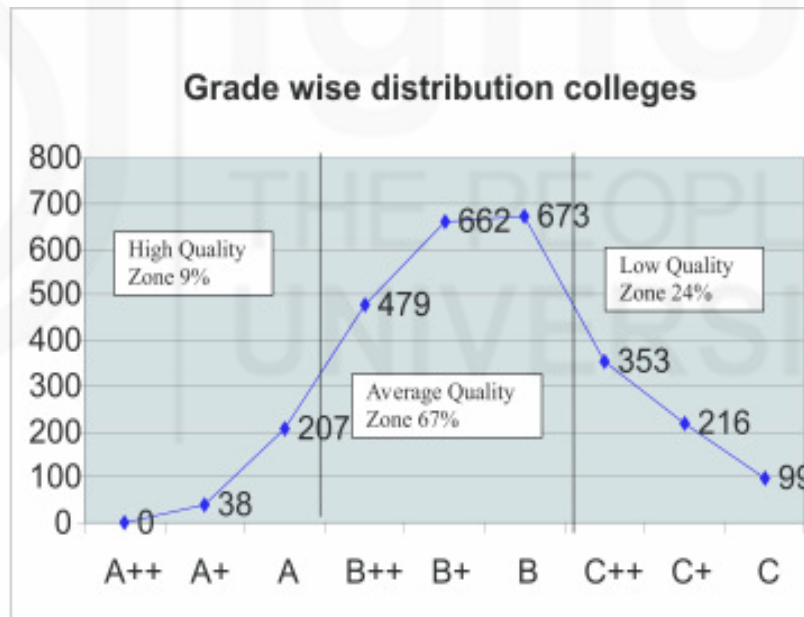
In 1992, the UGC decided to set up a National Assessment and Accreditation Council (NAAC) as an autonomous body with the responsibility to carry out an assessment of universities and colleges and accredit them according to the grades awarded through a detailed process of assessment. While the NBA proceeded on the basis of benchmarking the performance of the Indian Institutes of Technology as the models of standards, the NAAC began its work with the accreditation of institutions on a 9-point scale on 7 criteria, namely, curricula, teaching, learning and evaluation, research, consultancy and extension, infrastructure and learning resources, student support and progression, organization and management, and healthy practices.

As accreditation of higher education institutions was a completely new initiative in India, and predictably, not all stakeholders were too enthusiastic about possible adverse effects of negative or inadequate rating of institutions they were associated with, the beginning was cautious. It began with accreditation as a voluntary initiative; only those who were interested in getting the institutions assessed and accredited, needed to volunteer. The objective was to launch the system, enable institutions to come forward and establish their credentials, and to establish the process of accreditation as a means of quality assurance in the long run. This approach did pay rich dividends; by 2010, about one-third of all universities and about one-fifth of all colleges got themselves accredited. Old and well established institutions with great reputation behind them called external assessment and accreditation as an infringement of their autonomy, and resisted the initiative, the relatively newer and those keen to find their place in the sun came forward and got their performance assessed and made their grades known to attract more and better students. At any rate, the process got a strong foothold in India.

Though this is not the place to go into any in-depth analysis of the processes and mechanics of assessment and accreditation as presently practiced in India, it would be useful to refer briefly to the impact of accreditation on the quality of higher education institutions in India. During the first ten years of its active operation, the NAAC has assessed and accredited 81 universities and 2727 colleges. The findings are shown in the following graphs:



You will notice that 25% of the universities assessed claimed their place in the high quality zone while two-thirds of all the universities that volunteered for assessment fell in the average quality zone. Just about 75 of all universities figured in the low quality zone.



The position of colleges shows a marked variation. While two-thirds of all colleges assessed fall in the average zone, nearly one-fourth of all belong to the low quality zone. This should cause some concern. The high quality colleges is just about 9% only.

1.6 LOOKING AHEAD

The preceding discussion will have provided you with a synoptic view of a large and complex system of higher education in the world. It has its peaks of excellence; it has also a very large part of average quality performers. Where do we go from here? What lies ahead? What are the major challenges? We shall try to focus attention on some of these concerns.

1.6.1 The Challenges of Globalization

The close of the 20th century witnessed a major development in the field of education. The first was, of course, the blurring of national borders in educational provision. Aided by the developments in information and communication technologies (ICT) and the increasing popularity of distance education methods and practices, a large number of well known institutions in the developed world started enrolling students from different countries and continents. Initially, they were guided by the urge to retain their overseas student enrolments that were dwindling in the context of rising costs of education; but soon enough many institutions found cross-border education lucrative. Many providers jumped in the fray; education emerged as a service industry. The World Trade Conference initiated discussions on classifying education as a service industry on the plea that there are movements of capital and personnel across countries in the provision of educational services. While the issue still remains on the Table of WTO, there is a continuing concern among countries about the credentials of some of the new providers involved in commercializing education at the international level.

One of the major consequences of the ICT revolution was the globalization of knowledge and its accessibility. As they say the world became a global village. Anybody could talk to anybody anywhere. People had easier access to goods, services and products of different kinds from across the world. Knowledge was easier to access, store, retrieve and process. The consequences of all these came to be known as globalization of the economy, of culture and of the ways people lived and worked. Education was no exception.

The impact of this development on education was immediately noticeable. On the positive side, the quality of education assumed significance. The ease with which the graduates of a system got accepted by the global economy measured the quality of that system. This benchmarking helped many systems of education to look at their global standing and take steps to measure up to the global standards. In other words, a healthy competition among education providers across the globe provided a positive impetus to quality improvement. There are other beneficial consequences too; cooperation and collaboration among institutions have become common, and the sharing of intellectual property in the form of course materials is now a reality. The MIT, USA has placed all its course materials on its website for use by anyone who wants to use them. In fact, this initiative led to what came to be known as the Open Education Resources movement in which many more institutions joined, notable among them being the UKOU and IGNOU.

The negative impact was no less important. The entry of operators of all kinds driven only by the profit motive played havoc with vulnerable sections of people across many countries. Promise of foreign degrees and higher qualifications lured people to part with large sums of money only to find later that they were either cheated of their money or the degrees promised turned out to be of dubious value. This led to a situation in which governments of many countries had to consider measures to protect the interests of their students through stringent regulatory regimes under which foreign players operate in the field of education in their countries.

India is considering a legislation that will regulate the entry and operations of foreign educational providers in the country. The legislative proposals envisage that all foreign providers should seek registration with a

designated Indian authority; should have had a track record of at least twenty years; should have been established under the law of the country where it has been set up; should have the accreditation from the concerned authorities of the country concerned; should apply for registration through the country's official representation in India, and provide a corpus fund that could be used to protect the interests of the students in the event of premature winding up of its operations in India, and so on. However, renowned institutions like Oxford, Cambridge, Harvard, MIT, etc. will be exempted from these requirements.

1.6.2 Technologies and their Impact on Education

India is a complex mixture of light and shade. It is one of the fastest growing economies in the world; it is also home to the largest number of the poor in the world. People living below the poverty line are estimated to be about 38% of the population; in absolute terms, about 380 million. About a third of India's population (300 million) is illiterate.

And yet, modern technologies have penetrated deep in to India. Apart from its role as an Information Technology superpower (Indian IT products worth billions of dollars are exported to the developed world every year), it has also one of the fastest growing domestic information and communications technology networks. Cellular phone connections are said to have crossed 600 million; over 80% of the population have access to satellite/cable TV; India has its own communication satellites including a dedicated education satellite that beams educational broadcasts over different channels; and not the least, a growing internet-based education delivery system. Internet access and broadband connectivity are still in their early days, but most higher education institutions have wired campuses that promise connectivity and easy access to Internet and library networks.

As you learn more about India's fast growing open university and distance learning system, you will get a more complete picture about the ways in which ICTs have impacted education in India. Conventional universities are using these technologies not just for improving their efficiency in governance (processes relating to admission, student record maintenance, examinations, administration and accounts), but in teaching learning transactions as well. e-Learning is fast emerging as an education tool, and many institutions use Internet-based interactive sessions for the delivery of their teaching services.

1.6.3 The Role of Research

No discussion on higher education in India would be complete without a reference to the role of universities in promoting high quality research. During the initial period, Indian universities produced outstanding researchers, but somewhere along the way, many universities lost their pre-eminent position as producers of high quality research. Two reasons are attributed to this development: one, the establishment of a chain of dedicated research institutions outside the university system both in science and social sciences. The development of over 40 science research laboratories in the 1950s and 1960s lured many researchers from the universities; so did the establishment of the Social Science Research Council in the 1970s. Secondly, the bright and brilliant products of universities preferred the more attractive industrial jobs to teaching and research. The

consequence for the universities was pretty serious; they lost out in the race for the best talent pools for high quality research.

Studies have shown that the decline of the universities as promoters of high quality research has to do with the transformation of higher education as a mass education system. As the system grew in size, it needed more trained researchers and teachers in the basic physical sciences, the social sciences and the humanities for appointment in colleges and universities. But the decline in the talent pool made the system do with what was available leading to further decline of teaching standards. Efforts to respond to the growing demands of numerically strong and highly organized teacher associations across the country did not help solve the problems.

Implementation of measures like personal promotions became movements for mass promotions to higher ranks shorn of academic merit; the absence of a well-designed strategy to induct researchers into a long-term commitment to teaching and research careers deprived the system of a steady supply of good quality teachers; and emphasis on teaching rather than research in universities had its own effect on the quality of research.

It needs, however, to be mentioned that agencies like the UGC did its bit to strengthen research in the universities. It encouraged universities to establish Centres of Advanced Study, and provided special support to several Departments to strengthen their research infrastructure and instituted large number of fellowships to attract talented students to research programs. However, the pressure of undergraduate teaching and generally, the preoccupation of universities with the management of the college system appeared too big a burden to focus attention on good post-graduate teaching and research.

Institutional structure created in the phase of expansion failed to develop meritocracy as a general phenomenon. As a result, legacy presents us with mediocrity. Future vision calls for excellence in research. Restructuring of universities, narrowing the focus to manage research in a manner that develops in-built mechanism for scholastic achievement should be the cornerstone of policy. The form of such restructuring should not detain us here but the principles may clearly be laid down in terms of strict recruitment policy of teachers, reward and incentives to teachers for excellence in teaching and research, training to the teachers, freedom and resources to participate in academic programs and infrastructural and academic support to teachers.

Check Your Progress 6

Note: i) Space is given below for your answers.

ii) Check your answers with those given at the end of the unit.

i) What are the positive and negative impact of globalization? (answer in about 50 words).

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ii) What are the reasons for decline in quality of research in universities? (answer in about 50 words)

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1.6.4 The Reform Agenda

Throughout this Unit, we have mentioned the initiatives taken by the Governments at the Centre and in the States for reorganizing and strengthening the higher education system in the country. We have drawn attention to the National Policy on Education in 1986 that resolved to transform education as a powerful instrument for change and development. Several steps have already been taken towards the realization of these objectives; and several more are on the anvil. Some major legislative proposals that involve significant institutional reforms are currently before the Parliament. These include:

- Establishment of a National Council for Higher Education and Research that would replace the current UGC, AICTE and other statutory bodies that deal with different areas and fields. The proposal is to create an integrated platform that can address all issues of norms and standards in higher education in all fields in a holistic manner (currently, a single university that offers programs in general education, technical education, medicine, nursing, law, teacher education and architecture has to adhere to the regulatory regimes of all statutory agencies in each of these fields). The Council is not expected to perform any regulatory functions, but will lay down the norms and standards that all universities and higher education institutions are expected to implement. These norms would be the basis for assessment and accreditation of all institutions of higher education. This approach will restore and strengthen the autonomy of universities, improve governance, and ensure that issues of quality and standards are adequately addressed.
- Another proposal seeks to encourage foreign universities in setting up their campuses in India to ensure easier access to high class institutions for Indian students (we have mentioned this proposal in the previous section on globalization).
- A third proposal is the establishment of Education Tribunals at the Centre and in the States to deal with disputes and litigations within the education system. Presently, the judiciary is overburdened with litigation arising from disputes within the education system that concern university-college relationships, admission policies and practices, reservations, institution-employee relationships, and so on. The proposal is to relieve the judiciary of the responsibility of adjudicating these matters and to entrust it to dedicated education tribunals within each state with provision for a central tribunal that have appellate powers over state tribunals.

- A fourth institutional reform agenda addresses the issue of commercialization of education and prevention of extensive malpractices that flow from this development. The proposed legislation seeks to curb unfair practices like charging capitation fees, offering admission against donations or any consideration other than tuition and other legitimate fees previously notified, issue of misleading and false advertisements, etc. The Bill makes it obligatory for education providers to disclose all relevant information about institutional facilities, faculty, procedures for admission and examination, fee structure, and so on. Any willful deviation from this requirement will attract severe penalties.

These reforms though not directly related to the content or process of education, seek to create an environment in which the concerns of good governance, high quality, speedy adjudication of grievances and exploitation of students and parents are effectively addressed.

1.7 LET US SUM UP

We have presented in the preceding sections a synoptic view of the growth and development of the Indian higher education system. An ancient education system known for its richness of thoughts, ideas, knowledge and scholarship that lay in ruins through the medieval period, and then rebuilt first, by the Muslim rulers, and then by the British from the middle of the nineteenth century. The launch of the modern university in 1857 was the first major step in laying the foundation of the modern higher education system in the country.

The last 60 years after independence saw the system growing in size, and with it, facing severe challenges thrown up by the social, economic, scientific and technological developments that marked the close of the twentieth century. While India is still struggling for inclusive education that ensures equity, justice and empowerment of the masses, the concerns of quality and cost also need to be addressed in full measure. What we have presented in this Unit will give you an idea about the range and depth of these concerns and the manner in which a developing country is going about addressing them. We hope our narrative gives you an idea of the spectacular successes as well as the many major failures from which you can learn and enrich your understanding of the issues in higher education in a developing country context.

1.8 CHECK YOUR PROGRESS: POSSIBLE ANSWERS

Check Your Progress 1

Warren Hastings, first Governor General established the Calcutta Madrasah with an aim to produce qualified Mohomedan students for lucrative offices; later an educational institution was established at Banaras to supply qualified Hindu assistants to European judges.

Macaulay's 1835 minutes argued that English was the language spoken by the ruling classes and likely the language of commerce. Later Macaulay's minutes was approved by the British and thus, started the modern European education on Indian soil.

Check Your Progress 2

- i) NPE 1968 brought the structural reform through the reorganization of the education as 10+2+3 pattern and emphasized the need for the provision of essential facilities for maintaining standards of universities, promotion of PG courses, centres of advanced study and support to research in universities.

NPE 1986 focused on the consolidation and expansion of facilities in the existing universities, conferring autonomous status on selected colleges; redesigning courses to suit the needs of specialization; expansion of open university and distance education etc.

- ii) Since 1950 education was mainly the responsibility of state governments, except the institutions established under Act of Parliament whose responsibility is with Central Government. An amendment to the Constitution in 1977 ensured that education was a joint responsibility of the center and the state. The Union Government can now legislate on education, and laws enacted by parliament prevail upon all the states.

Check Your Progress 3

- i) The major reason for regional imbalances in GERs are low levels of literacy, poor economic conditions of the people, uneven economic growth and other social conditions that hinder growth.
- ii) The major factors that contribute towards imbalances in NERs are rural-urban divide; the rich-poor considerations and religious affiliations also play a great part resulting imbalances among various social groups.

Check Your Progress 4

- i) With public resources not coming to higher education and the demand in emerging areas like engineering, technology, medicine, computer education, business education is increasing; private sector established colleges in these areas and run them on self-financing model to recover the cost of education. But affluent groups coming to join the institutions, private management found an opportunity not just to recover the cost, but to make profit as well.
- ii) Supreme Court in 2005 verdict observed that - managements cannot make profits from education; surplus earned from the college be used to strengthen infrastructure and improve quality; levels of fees should be followed as prescribed by state level committee and state policies regarding admission have to be followed in respect of half the number of seats in a institution.

Check Your Progress 5

- i) Higher education institutions are not keen - to bring change in the curriculum or reform in examination systems, to interact with industry and surroundings, and with this rigid attitude graduates produced by the institutes are not equipped with the skills and competence that the employers look for, and most of them fail the test of 'fitness for purposes' in the jobmarket.
- ii) To bring the qualitative change in teaching - learning process autonomous college scheme was introduced three decades ago. So far

not even 1% of the colleges in the country were opted for this. Reasons for this situation may be – state governments and the universities are not keen, or colleges are not enthusiastic; or the reform itself did not go far enough to satisfy the college academic community and their managements.

Check Your Progress 6

- i) The positive impact of globalization is - concern for quality; acceptance of graduates by the global economy by measuring the quality of institution, benchmarking at global level helped the institutions to measure their own standing and thus leading to healthy competition. The negative impact of globalization is – entry of dubious institutions played havoc with students by charging large amount of money and degrees of no value in the market etc. Hence many countries including India planning a regulatory mechanism for entry of foreign players in the education sector.
- ii) The reasons for decline in the quality of research are many - mainly higher education becoming mass education system with large numbers. Non availability of trained and talented teachers in various disciplines as many of them are entering specialized research institutions are into industry. This resulted in recruiting teachers from available/left-overs or mediocrity which is affecting the quality of research.

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