
UNIT 2 HIGHER EDUCATION IN THE DEVELOPING COUNTRIES: AN OVERVIEW

Structure

- 2.1 Introduction
- 2.2 Objectives
- 2.3 Higher Education Scenario in the Developed World
 - 2.3.1 Enrollment in Higher Education
 - 2.3.2 Access, Equity and Costs
 - 2.3.3 Costs of Education
- 2.4 Higher Education in the Developing Countries
 - 2.4.1 Higher Education and the Market
 - 2.4.2 The common inheritance
 - 2.4.3 The Universities in the Developing Countries
 - 2.4.4 Variations in Strategies and Approaches
- 2.5 Management of Higher Education in the Developing Countries
 - 2.5.1 Administration
 - 2.5.2 University Finances
 - 2.5.3 The Academic Community
 - 2.5.4 The Students
- 2.6 Problems and Prospects
 - 2.6.1 Curriculum and the Organization of Study
 - 2.6.2 Language
 - 2.6.3 Developing Countries: Regional Status
 - 2.6.4 Twenty First Century: Problems and Prospects
- 2.7 Let Us Sum Up
- 2.8 Check Your Progress: Possible Answers

2.1 INTRODUCTION

In Unit-1 of this block you read about higher education in India – its origin, development and the future. In this unit, we present an overview of higher education, in various countries – developing and developed – with emphasis on the Third World countries, and the commonalities and variations, in several aspects of higher education, among them.

2.2 OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you should be able to:

- *describe* the status of higher education in general, and in particular, in the developed world as also the Third World countries;
- *explain* the major commonalities and variations in higher education systems among various Third World countries;
- *examine* the financial management in the institutions of higher education; and
- *analyse* curricular and language issues in these institutions.

2.3 HIGHER EDUCATION SCENARIO IN THE DEVELOPED WORLD

Definition of higher education

All post-secondary education falls within the generic term tertiary education. The international definition of tertiary (post school) education divides it into two parts: Type A (Higher Education) and Type B (Further Education). A higher education qualification at degree level: (a) takes a minimum of three to four years to complete, (b) is at a level which would qualify one to work in a professional field, and (c) is usually taught in an environment which also includes advanced research activity. Simply put, *higher education* generally means university level education, that offers a number of qualifications ranging from higher national diplomas and foundation degrees to honours degrees and, as a further step, postgraduate programmes such as master's and doctoral degrees, respectively. These are, generally, recognized throughout the world as representing specialist expertise, supported by a wide range of skills that employers commonly find useful.

Further education generally includes those post graduate studies by pursuing which one can gain Master's and Doctoral degrees. These degrees mark the highest levels of accomplishments in education; a master's degree, for instance, takes two years for completion while a doctoral degree, awarded for a particular course of study beyond the master's degree takes three or more years for completion. Doctoral programs leading to the award of Ph.D. degrees generally consist of coursework in selected topics in the areas chosen for research followed by dissertation work that adds to the existing body of knowledge in the field or offers new critical interpretations of existing knowledge.

The generally accepted definition of higher education is "that which requires as a minimum condition of admission the successful completion of secondary education or evidence of the attainment of an equivalent level of knowledge" (Page & Thomas, 1977). This notion of higher education reigned supreme with the emergence of the modern university as a liberal education institution till about the middle of the 20th century. The post-industrial societies in Europe and the Americas began to turn their attention to the development of professional education that trained specialists in engineering, technology and also developed the skills and competence required for the application of the new knowledge in science and technology. However, the institutions engaged in the teaching and training of these new areas of knowledge did not gain the same acceptability and respect as the liberal universities.

During the last half a century or so, the role of universities, and higher education itself, has undergone a total transformation. What was once a purely elitist pursuit has now turned in to mass education. In the developed world more than 50% of the age group 18-23 are now enrolled in higher education institutions. They pursue a bewildering variety of programs and courses that combine knowledge, skills and competences required to sustain the global economy. As the economy itself went through phenomenal changes, shifting focus from manufacturing to services, education and training also shifted focus from the traditional knowledge areas to the new knowledge and the myriad ways of its applications.

The term higher education is now used interchangeably with 'university education'. Today, though universities are not the only option in the post-secondary educational system, they attract maximum attention, as also critical analysis, particularly in the Third World. Contextually, Third World higher education has been used to designate education imparted by various types of formal post-secondary educational institutions, besides universities, which train middle and higher level professional personnel through degree, diploma and certificate granting programmes.

The countries which are termed as 'developed' are industrial / industrially advanced with about 15 % of the world's population. They are also sometimes referred to as "the North." These countries, generally, are the high-income countries and most people have a high standard of living. Since countries that are members of the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), largely fall in the category of developed nations, we shall, primarily, focus on them. According to the 2008 Classification of the World Bank (World Bank Glossary of Terms), the high-income countries in this classification include the following:

High-Income OECD Members
World Bank Country Classification 2008-2009

Australia	Greece	New Zealand
Austria	Hungary	Norway
Belgium	Iceland	Portugal
Canada	Ireland	Slovak Republic
Czech Republic	Italy	Spain
Denmark	Japan	Sweden
Finland	Korea, Rep.	Switzerland
France	Luxembourg	United Kingdom
Germany	Netherlands	United States

Ref.: (Education at a Glance. Paris, September 2008).

2.3.1 Enrollment in Higher Education

In the last few decades, there have been unprecedented changes in the world of education. Post-secondary education has had a phenomenal expansion in the last few decades, in nearly every country of the world. Martin Trow (1975) wrote of the transition from *elite* to *mass*, and then to *universal* higher education in the industrialized nations. While the United States enrolled some 30 percent of the relevant age cohort (18–21 year olds) in higher education, in the immediate post-war period, European nations generally maintained an elite higher education system, with less than 5 percent of the population attending post-secondary institutions. By the 1960s, many European nations educated 15 percent or more of this age group. For instance, Sweden enrolled 24 percent and France 17 percent while the United States increased its proportion to around 50 percent, approaching universal access.

By the mid-1990s, while the proportion increased to 75 percent in the United States, many European countries including France, Germany, and the United Kingdom enrolled around 50 percent of the relevant age group,. Though Europe and North America are, now, relatively stable, middle-income countries and those in the developing world continue to expand at a rapid rate.

In the developed countries, participation in education has been expanding at all levels and resources for pre-tertiary and tertiary education have increased over the years. The proportion of individuals who complete upper secondary education has been growing in almost all OECD countries. Tertiary attainment level has also gone up substantially. Total educational expenditure (both from public and private sources) in the OECD countries is approximately 6.1% of their collective GDP. However, the increase in public spending on education, between 1995 and 2005, fell below the growth in national income, in nearly half of the 28 OECD countries [*Education at a Glance* (EAG) 2008]. In certain countries, including Austria, Canada, Finland, France, Germany, Ireland, Norway, and Spain, expenditure on education, as a percentage of GDP, was lower in 2005 than a decade ago, with OECD countries devoting, on an average, in 2005, 13.2 % of their total public expenditure to education. Only Denmark, Iceland, Ireland, Netherlands, the Slovak Republic and the UK managed, in recent years, to increase their share of total public expenditure devoted to education.

Among the 18 OECD countries for which trend data are available, the share of public funding in tertiary institutions decreased from 79 % in 1995, to 77 % in 2000, and further to 73 %, in 2005. In turn, private spending increased in nearly 75 % of the countries and the largest proportion of funds from private sources, at 27 and 20 %, respectively, went to tertiary education institutions, while the private funding of pre-primary education institutions was much less in these countries.

2.3.2 Access, Equity and Costs

Access, equity and costs continue to remain major concerns of higher education even in the OECD countries. Social and economic disparities are key determinants of inequality of access to higher education. In most countries, there is a strong socio-economic filter into higher education; students from homes with a higher education background are over-represented, and under-representation of students from a blue collar background is conspicuous. In many countries, students are substantially more likely to participate in higher education if their parents have had higher education, and more than twice as likely in Austria, France, Germany, Portugal and United Kingdom, than are students whose fathers did not complete higher education. Besides this variation amongst students, there are numerous other aspects of diversity including differences in race, colour, habitat, language, different forms of affiliation, etc. that are a critical force on campuses of higher education, which as Dewey had put decades ago 'is a miniature society.'

To foster a harmonious campus climate by addressing various diversity issues, about two decades back in the USA, the Campus Diversity Initiative (CDI) Project was implemented across campuses of higher education institutes. It was a tremendous success and was later, in the mid 1990s replicated in India, with funding from the Ford Foundation, and implemented on select campuses of higher education throughout the country.

Most countries have failed to put the concept of lifelong learning into practice. Moreover, there are also equity issues with regard to the participation of adults in training and education at work. Age, gender and educational attainment are key determinants of the participation of the adult population in non-formal, job-related education and training – in terms of the expected number of hours of such measures. The likelihood of: (a)

adults with higher levels of educational attainment participating in non-formal, job-related continuing education and training is greater than adults with lower educational attainment; and (b) Males may spend more time in non-formal, job-related education and training than their female counterparts. The number of hours of non-formal job-related education and training, generally, decreases with age and in most countries the drop is dramatic. Nevertheless, in a few OECD countries, even young adults who have completed tertiary education are subject to considerable unemployment risk, when they enter the labour market.

Even as issues of access and equity are not as acute in the OECD countries as in most developing countries, there are concerns about the costs of higher education and the returns from the investments made in this sector. An immediate consequence of the transition of higher education from elite to mass is the change in the perception of the purpose of education itself. If the objective of traditional higher education was to provide enlightened leadership to society, mass higher education required that those who came out of universities were able to seek and secure decent employment to enhance their means of livelihood. In other words, the effectiveness of the higher education system came to be identified with the ability of graduates to secure jobs appropriate to their educational accomplishments in a competitive job market. Employment became a significant indicator of the quality and relevance of higher education. It also measured the return on investment. In some OECD countries, unemployment rates among graduates exceed 10 % (Greece and Italy). In these two countries and also in Denmark, New Zealand, Portugal and Spain, graduate unemployment is higher than that among those who have had no tertiary level qualifications.

2.3.3 Costs of Education

The costs of education have been rising continuously. The transition of higher education from elite to mass education has seen the higher education budgets rising to unprecedented levels in most countries. In the last three decades or so, Governments in the developed world have been struggling with the need to raise the allocation of resources for higher education. The allocation for education in most developing countries now stands at about 6% of their GDP. With no possibility of any further significant rise in public spending, higher education providers are compelled to look to alternate sources of funding. Among the several measures taken in the recent past were the increase in tuition fees, differential fees for home and overseas students, the concept of full recovery of costs as tuition fees, provision of student loans against future earnings, and so on. We shall look at some of these concerns in some detail when we discuss the higher education scenario in the globalised world in the next Unit.

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 is the major shift in focus of higher education due to transition of it from elite to mass education? (answer in about 40 words).

.....
.....
.....

2.4 HIGHER EDUCATION IN THE DEVELOPING COUNTRIES

The traditional definitions of the Third World (now the developing nations) emphasized “low per capita income, low literacy rate, the lack of social infrastructure and institutions, and problems of the essential definition of the nation. While some countries still have these characteristics, many have achieved varying levels of development and are, in some respects, ‘developed’ nations”. (Altbach, 1982.)

Since World War II, the world as a whole has experienced tremendous political upheavals, with far reaching impact on the socio-economic dimensions in different countries. Many of these have begun to affect the system of higher education, especially in countries that gained freedom and status as independent nations. In most of these countries, higher education had undergone radical transformation. The higher education institutions were expected to take part in the development and modernization of their nations including their economic, social and political institutions, by enlightening and training their personnel for national administration. In doing so, most of them accepted the western academic experts’ views that stressed, along with other ideas, the creation of key social infrastructures — at the top of the society — as the route to modernization. Many of these nations emphasized building or expanding the higher education system as an immediate top priority in their post-independence nation-building agenda.

In nearly all the developing countries, post-independence, expansion of higher education has been perceptibly quite dramatic. Building on tiny and extraordinarily elitist universities, higher education expanded rapidly in the immediate post-independence period. In India, enrollment grew from approximately 100,000 in 1947 to over 6.5 million in the 1990s, and to 10.5 million in 2004, with the Gross Enrollment Ratio touching 11.4% (UNESCO Institute of Statistics, 2008). China too was engaged in a dramatic expansion programme, and enrolled similar numbers that reached 17.53 million in 2004 with a GER of 20.3% (UIS, 2008).

Expansion in Africa has also been rapid, with the post-secondary student population growing dramatically from 21,000 in 1960 to 800,000 in 1985, and about 3 million in 2002 (Peter Materu, World Bank Working Paper N0.124, 2007) with the GER touching nearly 4%. However, growth stagnated since the late 1990s as a result of the economic and political difficulties experienced by many sub-Saharan African countries. Recent economic difficulties in much of sub-Saharan Africa implied the drop in per-student expenditure, contributing to a marked deterioration in academic standards. Enrollment growth has also slowed.

This trend of rapid expansion continued elsewhere too in the developing world. For instance, a World Bank Report of 2002 mentions that in much of Latin America, the GER in tertiary education was about 23% in 2001 (WB, 2002d); a UNESCO Report on Higher Education in South East Asia says that the GER for higher education in Singapore, Thailand and the Philippines was between 30 and 35%, for Malaysia and Indonesia about 14%, for Vietnam 10% and for countries like Cambodia and Laos a meager 3% (Higher Education in South East Asia, UNESCO, 2006).

There are numerous reasons for the expansion of higher education in the developing countries. As we noted earlier, one significant consequence of the transition of higher education to mass education is the development of strong education-employment linkages; tertiary education graduates naturally expected better employment and decent livelihood. What was previously done as on-the-job training has now become integral to the higher education curriculum; graduates are expected to be equipped with marketable skills and competences that could readily be applied at the workplace. With the nature of the workplace rapidly changing and the skills required at work getting increasingly sophisticated, the nature of the skills to be developed has also undergone changes. The new skills required are communication, coordination, management, problem-solving and the competence to handle machines like computers, etc. What is more significant is the emergence of the services sector in the economy that has overtaken the manufacturing sector. Not only does this sector employ a large workforce, but more importantly, it provides for higher levels of sophistication in skills and competences at the workplace. The emerging IT-enabled services like Business Process Outsourcing (BPO) that employ large numbers of young people reflect the nature of change that has swept tertiary education in the developing world.

2.4.1 Higher Education and the Market

This discussion naturally brings us to the role of market in higher education. Market is all about the demand-supply equation; if the demand side of the equation goes up, the supply side should cope up. But does it always happen? We have noted that in most countries, the governments are the education providers, and the expansion of provision does not necessarily follow the demand curve. Governments have to find the resources, they have to create the facilities, recruit and train teachers and also put systems and processes in place to ensure that the quality and standards of the education that is provided meet the demands of the job market at home and abroad, and that the output of the system can compete with those coming out of similar institutional settings.

We have also noted that the traditional liberal education provision is not what the modern job market wants. In other words, the demand is for more technical, professional and vocational programs of education, and not the conventional arts, science and commerce education programs. And this trend is nowhere more evident than in India. In the last two decades or so, after the Indian economy opened up, the demand for higher education in the technical and professional areas like engineering, medicine, management and computer applications has gone up phenomenally. Higher education in these fields was tightly regulated by the state, and there was no significant presence of private sector in these fields. There were private colleges, few of them were aided by the Governments to meet their annual revenue expenditure. They were not private sector institutions in the strict sense of the term; they were bound by the state policies and practices.

As the demand for education and training continued to rise rapidly in professional, technical and vocational areas, slowly, but surely, the private sector began to step in. The Governments were not able to respond to this rising demand; so the private sector was allowed to enter the field of higher education without any support from the state. The institutions they set up were known as the self-financing colleges; they received no state aid and they functioned on the basis of full recovery of costs from students. The fact that students were prepared to pay for the full cost of their education (the

full cost meant that tuition fees were about ten times as high as the fees charged by state institutions) meant that the private sector found its place in Indian higher education. According to the National Knowledge Commission Report of 2006, the growth of colleges in India by types of management during the period 2000-01 to 2005-06 was as follows:

Growth of Institutions by types of management

	2000-01	2005-06
Public	4342	4393
Private Aided	3134	5760
Private Unaided	3223	7720

(Source: NKC, 2006)

According to a recent estimate, private sector institutions account for about 85% of all enrollments in engineering, 90% in business studies and about 45% in medicine. It needs to be emphasized that there are no “private universities” in India; universities with degree-granting powers can be set up only through legislation by the Central or State Governments. In 2002, a state government enacted a legislation that allowed establishment of universities by private parties through a process of granting approvals on submission of detailed project reports and assurances of adequate resources to run the universities after they were established. There was a big rush for setting up private universities in that state, and some 120 or more projects were approved. Many of them turned out to be just project reports, and there were no institutional facilities in place. The legislation was challenged in the Supreme Court on the ground that most of these private universities were fake. The Court struck down the legislation and declared that legislative sanction is necessary for each university; the Court held that a project report is not the substitute for a university.

During the last five years or so, several state governments have legislated for the establishment of private universities. These new legislations have corrected the infirmities that the Supreme Court found in the 2002 State law that found the mushrooming of private universities. Each of the new private universities has now a separate legislative sanction and therefore their numbers are now more manageable; perhaps three or four in a state. While these universities are not dependent on government funding, they are also not fully independent of state agencies on many issues like admission policies, reservations in admissions, fixing the levels of tuition fees, qualifications and compensation packages of faculty and staff as well as the provision of infrastructure.

The transition of higher education to mass education in most developing countries is driven by the rising demand for provision of educational opportunities from the middle classes that realize the importance of higher qualifications as a measure of success in life. Governments, generally, respond by increasing enrollment. When governments do not move quickly enough, private initiatives seize the opportunity as we have seen in India. Similarly, in countries like the Philippines, and Bangladesh too private colleges and universities have come up and are enrolling large numbers of students. This quest for expansion of higher education is marked by some powerful worldwide trends:

- Higher tuition charges,

- Emergence of a strong private sector in higher education,
- Definition of education, in economic terms, as a “private good”.

These trends indicate that the cost of post-secondary education for governments is progressively coming down and that access to educational provision is widening. But they also raise issues about the quality of the educational provision and the ways in which the quality of the educational provision in the developing countries can be secured to make it globally competitive and sustainable. Yes, we did mention globally competitive education; we shall return to this issue in the next Unit.

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 was the reason for expansion of higher education in many developing countries in the post world war II period? (answer in about 50 words).

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

- ii) How did supreme court arrest the setting up of private universities in the state? (answer in about 30 words).

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

2.4.2 The Common Inheritance

There are some general characteristics of higher education in the developing world, which, in most countries, are common. These issues, which are complex and have major implications for the direction, and policy-orientation of higher education, are:

- the colonial-past, which still remains a major influence on the intellectual and educational life of many of these nations. The latter have liberated themselves from colonial bondage only to enter into an era of neo-colonial dependency; which is the continuing direct or indirect domination of the industrialised nations. Despite the technical freedom to shape their own destinies, for various economic and political reasons, these nations are still, in many ways, under the influence of former colonial powers and other industrialised nations.
- the element of ‘metropolis-province’ dichotomy; that is, the developed world functioning as the metropolis centres, with their key elements of intellectual life — the universities, publishing houses, research

institutes, etc., and their languages used by the international communication networks, dominating most developing countries. This handicaps the latter in the creation and distribution of knowledge — critical to economic growth, technological development, cultural advancement, political communication, etc. Without access to multiple institutions that dominate knowledge production, they are barred from free participation in the international intellectual community life. The development of independent means for the creation and distribution of knowledge is vital, to the developing countries, if they have to take effective control over their own intellectual and creative life.

- These major constraints have drastically affected other equally important areas of educational progress. For example, the atrophy of indigenous intellectual institutions under colonialism, led to the dominance of European style education; the colonial language determined employment in the modern sector since it was the medium for commerce, political science and government; and the dissemination of knowledge and, in general, the key to intellectual development. This domination still continues in many of the developing countries — the pluralistic society of India is an example, with its institutions of higher education still continuing with English as the primary medium of instruction and transactions.
- On the other hand, there is also the view that as the economy gets globalised, and the processes of production and distribution of goods and services across the world get integrated, the language and indeed the medium of all trade and commerce are getting progressively global. The developing world seems to be caught up in this dilemma of choosing between the global and the local.

2.4.3 The Universities in the Developing Countries

Most universities in the developing countries, primarily based on western models, are in a sense foreign institutions in their own countries. They reflect many of the norms and values which often clash with those of the still traditional societies; moreover, the nature and logic of the curriculum and the organisation of the institutions are at odds with the patterns of the society which they are expected to serve. While the western academic models have the same origin, there are major variations among the models exported to the colonies; this continues to affect contemporary academic life. For example, the essentially British academic model in Singapore and Malaysia differs significantly from the Dutch pattern in Indonesia, and the primarily American inclination in the Philippines. In Latin America, the Spanish colonial tradition has been largely followed, except for Brazil with a predominantly Portuguese influence.

Contemporary western influence, particularly that of the USA, is perhaps of major importance in many developing nations, with adapted patterns of academic and curricular organization. Certain other common features of university life in these countries are:

- a) the instructional medium and the language for research in the universities and other higher education institutes, still remains a foreign language, and many of the faculty have been trained outside the country. This is a prime issue of concern in most developing nations, except the major part of Latin America. The practice in many of these countries is to have a European language as the medium of instruction in higher education, while the lower stages of education have one or more indigenous languages;

- b) the academic infrastructure is inadequate to support the network of intellectual communication necessary to stimulate a full range of scholarly activity.
- c) the universities seldom have enough funds for research; the governments are usually required to spend first on immediate development rather than on less tangible research work. Research is not always a part of the academic enterprise, laboratories are often poor and computer facilities are scarce, and libraries are not equipped for modern advanced scholarly pursuits;
- d) Many faculty members are either busy with heavy teaching loads, or with responsibilities such as advising government agencies or doing outside jobs to pursue research interests;
- e) the academic system serves a small proportion of the so-called relatively “elitist” section of the relevant age group, even in countries like Nigeria, Thailand, Philippines and India, which have been making major efforts to expand higher education. The problem is further compounded in India with the rising number of first generation learners and the demand for access to institutes of higher education. Almost all the countries of Africa, Asia and Latin America are at the ‘elite’ stage of academic development, with usually a very small percentage of the relevant age group attending post-secondary institutions of any kind; and
- f) the universities tend to be linked, perhaps due to historical traditions often related to colonialism and contemporary realities, with the major academic systems in the industrialised nations — UK, France and the United States, in particular. These relationships are, in general, unequal in nature with the universities in the developing countries mostly at a disadvantage.

Even today, the developing nations have not been able to free themselves totally from foreign influence. The continuing, rather complex impact of the industrialized nations is glaringly obvious. Some of the key elements are:

- a) in several countries, as in the oil-rich Arab nations, foreigners constitute a majority of teachers in both secondary and higher education levels. In many cases, expatriates among the academic staff often hold senior appointments, as in Nigeria, with a large number of expatriate academics from Great Britain. Sometimes teachers from other developing countries, like India or Egypt, serve as expatriates; these faculty members invariably influence their employer institutions with their academic thinking style; norms and values; orientation towards research, teaching styles; etc.
- b) students from many developing countries have to go abroad for higher education. For example, students from countries like the Arabian Gulf states; Malaysia, Singapore and several African nations constitute a large percentage of the overseas students in USA, Britain, France and Russia.

A significant trend, which has emerged in recent times, is mutual cooperation among the developing countries by way of sharing facilities, exchanging students and sending teachers for work in each other’s institutions. Such regional collaboration can, potentially, be an important force for the improvement of higher education; coordination of academic

activities to avoid duplication; and ensuring the most effective use of limited funds. Strong links exist in terms of regional groupings between the members of the SAARC and the Association of South-East Asian Nations (ASEAN), which foster regional cooperation, scholarship programmes, etc., in the particular region. Links also exist among Latin American nations.

Notwithstanding the dependence of higher education institutions on the colonial past or on foreign models, in recent years “reforms are being conceived and implemented. There have been ‘explosions’ both in student enrolments and in technology, and the accompanying progress made in the democratization of higher education, the change in attitudes to the right to education, and the development of international exchanges. All these factors have resulted in universities and post-secondary education, in general, finding themselves in a state of effervescence and spectacular quantitative expansion” (UNESCO, 1996). Many developing countries have, at great cost, established entirely new institutions of higher education, to provide different curricular and organizational models. In some countries private institutions have been set up to meet the market demand for professional training. In others, institutions for education, research and training like the Institutes of Technology (IITs) and the Institutes of Management (IIMs) in India, were started to provide quality academic work in areas of national importance. In still others, new universities, based on different organizational patterns, were set up, often with the aid provided by industrialized nations in the form of funds, equipment and technical expertise. Besides, in recent years, private institutions of higher education in these subjects have been started in many countries, like India.

Check Your Progress 3

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

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

What are the three major common features of the universities in the third world countries? (answer in about 50 words).

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

2.4.4 Variations in Strategies and Approaches

The developing countries have adopted widely divergent policies, which have significantly affected the nature, orientation and curricula of their academic systems, as also their societal roles. A noteworthy feature is that none of these nations has moved away from the fundamentally western model of the university. During the Cultural Revolution, the Chinese tried to radically reorient their higher education system and deviate from the western/Soviet models and norms, but on finding their efforts unrewarding, they have moved back to a western concept of higher education.

Despite basic organizational similarities and often, common policy orientations, in many instances significant differences are conspicuous among the universities in the developing countries. For example, while

most of them are committed to providing greater access to post-secondary education, and generally, to the expansion required to provide this access, the approaches to expansion have varied. While the transition of higher education from elite to mass in the developed countries has been gradual, spanning several decades, developing countries expanded their higher education systems very rapidly to catch up with the advanced countries. And such rapid expansion of the academic system, in a decade or so, has taken its toll in both financial and human terms.

Some countries have been able to successfully guide expansion in ways relevant to national development, usually by emphasizing scientific and technical fields; but, many academic systems have yielded to the immense pressure of quick, at times unplanned, growth. The Social Sciences, Humanities and Law being least expensive fields to develop, have grown more rapidly in comparison with other subjects. Consequently, carefully articulated national policies on higher education have often not been implemented due to various countervailing pressures in several countries, with a significant private sector in higher education, as in the Philippines, and some countries of Latin America. Major gaps have obviously developed between the higher education policy and the realities emerging from rapid growth patterns.

The orientation of the higher education policies in many developing countries witnessed significant shifts in directions. Centrally planned countries like Cuba, Vietnam and China have generally emphasized the vocational and technical aspects of post secondary education. They have been able to ensure the implementation of centrally planned policies, although in China shifts in direction and the admission of large errors in the basic educational policy have been conspicuous.

Stimulated by the thought, basically western in origin, that the development of higher education would lead to economic growth and political stability, and partly in response to the demands of the elite at home, most developing nations have, after independence, invested substantially in post-secondary education. With the realization that higher education was not the panacea for all developmental problems, and that other segments of the educational system were more important, and that 'non-formal education' might deal more effectively with their educational dilemmas, the government priorities shifted. Moreover, cost escalation made higher education expansion difficult for the governments.

Since the 1980s, the educational policy emphasis of many developing countries shifted, leading to a de-prioritization of higher education. The contribution of the World Bank/IMF to this process was very significant. Most developing countries were going through a severe economic crisis; many among them were debt-ridden. The World Bank stepped in with its now-infamous structural adjustment doctrine that required most developing nations to cut their expenditure on social services, especially education. The World Bank decreed that higher education was not the priority, and that the developing countries should focus on primary education. The disastrous consequence of this policy shift was nowhere more evident than in Africa. Nearly all the African countries that had invested heavily on higher education, with the possible exception of South Africa, saw their higher education systems ruined. Teachers were not paid; most of them migrated. Universities were closed, and so were the teacher training institutions. Most African countries are still to recover from this perilous course of the policy

shifts imposed on them. The redeeming point is that in the last decade or so, the World Bank has corrected itself; it is now strongly advancing the cause of tertiary education

At another level, the developing countries represent a wide spectrum of ideology-driven agenda for economic and social development. These variations influence their higher education policies as well. It is not therefore surprising to see that education policies are often shaped and influenced by variables like ideological perspective, level of economic development, internal political factors, ethnic or religious factors, etc. Besides, the international trends in educational thinking and the aid policies of the major donor countries also play a decisive role in policy formulation.

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) Identify the following statements as 'true' or 'false':

i) Teaching of social sciences and humanities expanded rapidly in third world countries ()

ii) Cuba, China and Vietnam emphasized education and training in vocational and technical fields in their post-secondary educational institutions ()

ii) De-prioritization of higher education led to what situation in the developing countries? (answer in about 40 words).

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

2.5 MANAGEMENT OF HIGHER EDUCATION IN THE DEVELOPING COUNTRIES

The 1980s and early 1990s were difficult periods, for institutions of higher education, all over the world. In contrast to their relatively small clientele and the fairly predictable funding and demand environment, they were called upon to provide 'mass' higher education and establish relationships with multiple constituents — adult learners, serving personnel, unemployed youth, *et al.* These new concerns made new demands on university managements; the extent and nature of these demands were influenced by: (a) changes in external environment like economic pressures, technological development, social demands, political ideology, etc; and (b) the type of steering policy adopted by the government. Some systems were sheltered from the full force of external impact, while others suffered but, could make only limited adjustments due to severe government regulation. Still others had to develop their managerial capacities to improve performance, and compete with other institutions for funds. The response

to these rather diverse situations varied in different countries; some countries have, nevertheless, retained certain common managerial policies with no impact on institutional management styles.

Higher education systems, as we have seen in the previous unit, have generally been subjected to some kind of regulation by their governments, though there could be variations in the rigour of the regulatory regime. Regulation is “the informed and periodic process through which a system, institution, programme or procedure is attuned, over time, to expectations (intentions, standards, norms) through choices and actions judged by the regulator(s), to be needed as a result of formative or summative evaluation.” (Sanyal, 1995). In countries like Singapore, Philippines, Nigeria, Algeria, and the Nordic countries institutions might be classified as those where governments have already decreed a policy change to a more self-regulatory type of system, and certain elements have been implemented with the cooperation of higher educational institutions. However, the impact of these changes, which is rather less is very recent, or institutional management has not been fully analyzed.

In certain Latin American countries, as in some East European ones, the governments have announced a policy change, but, have faced problems in implementing it. In many developed countries such as France, Italy, Austria and Germany, the institutions are under direct centralized planning and control.

2.5.1 Administration

Universities have traditionally claimed significant autonomy for themselves. The traditional idea of academic governance stresses autonomy, and universities have tried to insulate themselves from direct control by external agencies. They have also not been open to the idea of institutional effectiveness assessment. However, as they have grown — expanded and become more expensive — there has been tremendous pressure from the funding agencies, mainly governments, for accountability from universities. The conflict between autonomy and accountability has been one of the most controversial issues in recent times.

Without exception, autonomy has been limited, and new administrative structures have been established in countries like Britain and the Netherlands, to ensure greater accountability. The issue takes on different implications in different parts of the world. To illustrate, in the developing countries, traditions of autonomy have not been strong, and demands for accountability — which include both political and economic elements — are especially a point of discontent. In the industrialized nations, however, accountability pressures are more fiscal in nature.

In general, the approaches to higher education administration have evolved over time depending upon the influence of the legacy systems they inherited. As the systems grew and became more complex, issues like governance structures, management styles, autonomy and accountability assumed significance. The debate concerning autonomy and accountability in higher education is not confined to the developing countries only; we have discussed this issue elsewhere in this Block in some detail. Certain issues in many developing countries are more complex and are worth mentioning. These are:

- the colonial model of the university which offered little scope for academic autonomy was moulded in a culture of ‘subservience’;

- the culture and polity which, in many countries, are not well developed and political authorities often feel that they cannot afford a fully autonomous university, which might lead to political problems and might turn out to be a source of dissent. (In Indonesia, Thailand, South Korea and China, students have played a key role in destabilizing governments and this fear compels the governments to limit the autonomy of academic institutions);
- the funding regimes for universities in most developing countries demand that their governments have a major voice in the setting of goals for higher education, and in determining some of the details of university operations; and
- the demands of development often require higher education to play a key role, with the government generally expecting universities to produce the needed manpower, engage in relevant research and provide it with the necessary expertise.

All these pressures and demands on higher education are 'legitimate', as are the norms and values of traditional higher education. The need for maintaining a proper balance between autonomy and accountability is imperative. Subtle differences between a developed country and a developing nation are sure to impinge on academic autonomy; what is appropriate in France may not be applicable in Bangladesh and vice-versa. A blueprint for academic administration in the greatly varying contexts of the developing countries, which are at different levels of development, is difficult. Some of the common key issues, however, are:

- The administrative structures evolved for small, usually elitist institutions can no longer effectively manage the complex tasks that universities are called upon to perform. There is an urgent need in many of the developing countries to consider ways to improve the effectiveness of academic administration.
- The scope and functions of academic administration have expanded manifold. Various kinds of student services, increasingly diverse and complicated degree structures requiring more complete coordination and record keeping; growing infrastructure; countless students; academic and other staff — have all raised the size and scope of management functions.
- The competence of both technical knowledge and administrative skill of the university staff across the developing countries needs strengthening. Too little attention has been given to the increasingly complex administrative structures and functions of the modern university, with its special problems. Governance on the one hand and the detailed aspects of day to day administration on the other, need to be defined to enable rational and efficient restructuring of the university's academic organization.

While some governments have been conscious of the deficiencies of their centralized bureaucracies, there is apparently an inability or unwillingness to implement any radical change or reform. For example, in India, though the 1986 Policy on Education and its subsequent modifications emphasized decentralization and client involvement in higher education, little effort is evident in this direction. The wealthier, particularly the newly industrialized countries, have put their higher education systems under government steering to enable them to serve particular industries and scientific fields.

The Korean Republic and Singapore controlled access with only the best entering Science and Engineering courses. In Malaysia and Indonesia, higher education remains centralized. In the institutions in Indonesia, which are largely private, the relevant department monitors all performance, appoints key administrators and regulates admissions; the goals are set by the National Planning Board.

In Asia, innovative trends aiming to link universities with industry to enhance external funding and improve management with IT applications, as in Indonesia and Thailand, are clearly noticeable. The attempt to create a new university, devoid of bureaucracy, is on. Thailand's Suranam Technology University is an example, though "little change to university structures or management in the public sector has been reported" (Sanyal,1994).

In general, Asian universities are basically government regulated, with weak executive and faculty management. For example:

- In China, the administration tends to make standard decisions despite the varying needs and situations;
- In the Korean Republic, the universities are centrally administered, only the details are decided by the universities;
- Indonesian public universities have little autonomy in planning, and budgetary decisions are dependent on resource allocations. The use of student fee is highly regulated and other income is, comparatively, little. The government offices are in regular liaison with institutional leadership, like the Rectors. Data gathering is limited, and centralized accounting does not allow the identification of the costs of university sub-units;
- In the Philippines, higher educational institutions are under state regulation with governance, programmes, operations and educational policies — each having a legal basis.

Some universities in the region exercise more management initiative. In Singapore, universities have, comparatively, more freedom to decide admission numbers, course design, examination policy, staff selection, financial management, *et al*; but, there is gradual erosion with human resource development becoming critical. Though Malaysian universities are largely dependent on public funds, they have considerable autonomy in academic matters and internal administration like determining course content, staff recruitment and dismissal.

Check Your Progress 5

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

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

What are key issues that effect academic administration in higher education institutions in the developing countries? (answer in about 50 words).

.....

.....

.....

.....

2.5.2 University Finances

“Higher education faces problems throughout the world, such as universities are under-funded, raising worries about quality; student support is inadequate; the proportion of students from disadvantaged backgrounds is lamentably small; and the financing of universities in many countries is regressive, since the money comes from general taxation but the major beneficiaries are from better-off backgrounds. No longer is it only a consumption good enjoyed by an elite, tertiary education is, now, an important element in national economic performance and a major determinant of a person’s life chances. Thus, the expansion that is taking place internationally is both necessary and desirable. But, higher education is costly, and faces competing imperatives for public spending. Financing is, therefore, important and politically immensely sensitive. Despite the problems, widespread agreement exists on two core objectives: (a) strengthening quality and diversity, both for their own sake and for reasons of national economic performance; and (b) improving access, again for both efficiency and equity reasons. If it is not possible to rely wholly on public funding, it is necessary to bring in private finance – but in ways that do not deter students from poor backgrounds. The arguments, though ostensibly about higher education in richer countries, apply more broadly to tertiary education and to developing economies.” (Nicholas Barr, 2005).

As you are aware in most countries, higher education is heavily subsidized by the government, and a large percentage of academic institutions are in the public sector. While there is a growing trend towards private initiative and sharing of management responsibility for education with public institutions, it is likely that governments will continue to be central to funding post-secondary education. This is despite the fact that the private sector is currently the major source of growth worldwide. The dramatic expansion of academic institutions in the postwar period has proved very expensive for governments, and has led to a diversification of funding sources. Nonetheless, the demand for access has been an extraordinarily powerful one.

A growing number of developing nations, some of them recognized as advanced developing countries, like Singapore, Malaysia, Hong Kong, Taiwan, South Korea, Kuwait and the oil-rich nations of the Gulf Region that have attained high economic growth, are devoting substantial attention and resources to develop stable higher education systems. They have certain distinct advantages; their relative economic prosperity has enabled them to provide adequate funds to build and maintain educational institutions at all levels; well-developed social infrastructure has provided the required support for their growth; and they have the freedom to acquire technology and secure the services of experts from outside. For example, Malaysia and Singapore have, for a long time, used internationally available expertise to help them in university development and government. A relatively slow growth in the number of educational institutions has made quality maintenance possible. Planning and implementation of educational programmes have strengthened this objective.

The universities in these advanced developing countries compare quite favourably with those in the west. “Student-teacher ratios, library and laboratory facilities, the basic amenities, teaching loads, and in some countries even salaries, are very much in accord with international standards; universities continue to build up their capabilities” in terms of research facilities, dissemination, etc. (Altbach, 1982).

In many other countries, however, 'resource crunch' is a perennial problem and the management of higher education finance is a central concern. Empirical exercises show that in Latin America the main instrument of academic control is the budget. The process, however, is over-centralized, and this causes delay. There is little correspondence between plans and budgets; statistical and qualitative data are insufficient and economic and financial analysis is absent. An authoritarian concept of management and control tends to curb any interest in cost efficiency. Institutions act defensively, and lack adequate financial management systems which would enable them to produce cost data. Government policies favour pro lump-sum formula funding; Chile and Mexico have introduced some incentive mechanisms, but the common university reaction is generally to oppose or delay, though there are some attempts at preparatory activities such as research on financial management and cost analysis. The University of Mexico has revealed that, as with most institutions, the low direct instructional costs of Business Studies, Humanities and Law were associated with high student-staff ratios (SSR); large class size, low faculty salaries and longer lecture hours. On the contrary, the higher costs for Arts and Education Programmes did not seem to be justified, thus indicating where greatest efficiency might be achieved" (Sanyal, 1995).

In Africa, universities tend to be expensive, inefficient and inadequately financed, leading to poor maintenance of infrastructure like buildings, equipment, and library resources; totally insufficient access to hard currency; inflexible management of financial and staffing resources; and ineffective relations with their governments, particularly in respect of financial matters. There is a system of negotiated funding which is usually not based on specific criteria but on the previous year's budget. The budget is often drastically reduced by the government without any prior decision to reduce staff, student enrolment, etc., thereby paving the way for disaster. Almost all are public universities with 90-100 % funding by their governments which, in many cases, appoint the key staff for administration and academic affairs. The universities may have some control over the internal allocation of resources, for a relatively small amount that is not devoted to salary.

There is a large difference in the capacity to manage finance within institutions. Of particular interest is the Botswana University which has started using task-forces/workshops to implement extensive structural changes for enhancing cost effectiveness, accountability and the development of more effective delivery systems, based on forecasts of rapid growth in student numbers and fast escalating costs.

The University of Makerere, Uganda has the least freedom to spend. The Tanzanian university of Dar-es-Salaam has recently acquired some flexibility with budgeting becoming partially decentralized to faculty level, under strong administrative control. Within the ceiling decided by the Ministry and the Bursar, on the basis of priorities, the university makes allotments for salaries, administration and student welfare. Zimbabwe University still practices the traditional collegial incremental line-item process; a private firm audits the accounts, but the departmental heads look after the control and certification of expenditures against their cost centres. They may re-allocate funds; generate income for departmental use; and carry forward under-spending to the next year (Mageza, 1993).

Stimulated by their own financial problems and the work of various agencies, the African universities, in general, are becoming cost conscious,

and are now aware of what needs to be done. This is obvious from the Windhoek Declaration of August 1992, adopted by high-level policy makers and the Vice-Chancellors of the universities of Angola, Botswana, Lesotho, Mozambique, Swaziland and Zimbabwe.

In most countries, higher education is heavily subsidized by the government, and most, if not all, academic institutions are in the public sector. While there is a growing trend toward private initiative and management sharing responsibility for education with public institutions, governments, most likely, will continue to be central to funding post-secondary education, although the private sector is currently the major source of growth worldwide. The dramatic expansion of academic institutions in the recent years has proved very expensive for governments, and has led to a diversification of funding sources. Nonetheless, the demand for access has been an extraordinarily powerful one.

Check Your Progress 6

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

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

What are the major issues in the financial management of universities particularly in Africa? (answer in about 50 words).

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

In Asia, government funding per student in real terms, generally, decreased in the 1980s; it declined by 22 % per student during 1980-1985. The revenue earned from tuition fees is a low proportion of the annual expenditure; fees have remained unchanged for over 40 years in Pakistan and 13 years in Nepal. In Thailand, fees account for only 5 % of the funds of universities. It varies from 10 % to 50 % in the Philippines, India, Singapore and Korea. Private institutions in Korea and the Philippines get 80 % of their revenue from fees, but, unit costs are comparatively less.

Funds are allocated according to line-item budgets on 'historical incremental' basis. In the Philippines, budgets are negotiated on the basis of staff posts, operating expenditure and enrolments. Monthly cash allotments are released, though sometimes delayed, as are capital expenditures. Salaries, however, are regularly paid. University cost analysis shows a reduction in administrative expenditure — the proportion falling from 17 % in 1987 to 15 % in 1990 (Sanyal,1995).

In China, power is still concentrated in the central government, which allocates resources; controls teaching plan, appoints staff and awards grants to students. The 1986 Regulations laid down norms for size and quality of staff, classroom space and books per student. During the last decade, as part of its economic reform measures, the Chinese state redefined its role as sharing of responsibilities between the centre and local levels. The centre lays down principles, carries out macro planning and evaluates quality; the institutions look after course introduction and revision, admissions,

research fund utilization, staff appointment and general management. The key administrators are under party guidance and the staff is appointed by the state. Institutions may take in fee-paying students within the quotas allotted to them. Despite certain technical institutions earning from research and training contracts, and the like, the major problem of high unit cost still remains. Improvements through broadening educational programs and organizing institutional networks to share facilities have been attempted, but have had no major impact on costs.

In India, the system depends on whether the universities are centrally funded through the UGC, or by the states. Governments met 80 % of expenditure in 1992 against 40 % in 1947. The universities have had to forgo considerable autonomy for increased state funding. Some notable features of financial management of Indian higher education are the lack of proper norms and standards for staff and infrastructure, arbitrary cuts in funds for books, laboratories and equipment, excessive spending on non-teaching staff, continuing shortage of faculty, ineffective leadership with lopsided priorities and mediocrity in the quality of education barring a few notable islands of excellence.

In 1989, the Pakistan government tried to improve the financial position of its universities by eradicating deficits and enhancing tuition fees. The responsibility for higher education was transferred to the provincial governments, and universities were authorized to “create endowment funds, acquire industrial and agricultural assets and negotiate foreign assistance” (Siddiqui, 1990).

In the Arab countries, line item budgeting for universities, with reimbursement of actual costs is practised. Ministries pay salaries and decide on other investments, like buildings, etc. The measures for improvement include reduction of student intake, privatization and taxation for financing tuition.

East Asian countries like Singapore, Indonesia and Malaysia, major Latin American countries like Mexico, Argentina, Brazil and partly Venezuela, and the oil rich nations of the Gulf Region — each with a different type of economy and differing in other aspects like literacy — draw attention to the fact that the availability of financial resources is vital, but not “the only ingredient for building an effective academic system” (Altbach, 1982). Several countries in South-East and East Asia have experienced high rates of economic growth in the past decade, and have invested considerable resources in the sphere of education. In countries like Singapore, Taiwan, Malaysia and South Korea higher education has made impressive gains in terms of expansion of the system as also in quality improvement, though their academic system serves only a small portion of the relevant age-group. Many students, who are unable to enter local universities, go abroad for academic pursuits.

2.5.3 The Academic Community

The situation of academics in the developing countries is paradoxical. They are members of an international community with links to professionals in the major world centers of research and scholarship. However, in many countries they face difficulties in terms of access to international journals, research facilities and contact with the research centers. “Without the material resources and the academic sub-culture to stimulate research and, writings, Third World universities contribute less than they might to

production of research and writing” (Altbach, 1982). Their academics are often among the elite, and their societies are frequently involved in extra-university activities such as providing guidance and expertise to the government, like in Indonesia and India. Yet, they are often not paid according to their status and expertise.

In the developing countries, conflict between the key traditional academic functions of teaching and research is not uncommon because of: (a) the lack of time; (b) heavy teaching responsibilities; (c) poor infrastructural facilities; and (d) difficulty in access to current knowledge which ultimately leads to poor research and low scholarly productivity in some countries. Teaching conditions are also difficult; large classes, a shortage of reading materials, teaching styles that favour the lecture method over discussion — all affect the nature of student-teacher interaction. The academia, in many Third World nations, face another constraint — the concept of academic freedom is defined in numerous ways and often constrained. The academic profession has limited autonomy and has to show loyalty to the government in both teaching and not-teaching activities.

There are conspicuous differences in the status of the ‘academic profession’ in the developing countries. For example, in the oil-rich Arabian Gulf countries with recently established universities, the academic staff is handsomely paid; but, the lack of an established university tradition and the absence of well-stocked libraries stifle the effectiveness of the profession. In Singapore and, to some extent, in Malaysia the growth has been carefully planned so that the profession is not completely overwhelmed by the pressure of expansion. However, in both countries there is a preponderance of inexperienced (and often inadequate) academics and the use of expatriates in some senior positions.

“In the Latin American region, there have been major efforts to ‘professionalize’ the teaching staff by raising the degree requirement for entry, emphasizing research, increasing salaries, and making professorial appointment a full-time responsibility. Substantial variations also exist in the academic systems within countries like India, where the difference between working conditions, teaching load, facilities, income of college teachers and university staff is substantial, making for two separate and sometimes antagonistic academic cultures. Besides, the different types of post-secondary level institutions accentuate the differences affecting the academic profession as well. Teachers in the non-university sector have lower social status, fewer opportunities and hopes of research, and in general are seen as teachers rather than scholars” (Altbach, 1982).

2.5.4 The Students

The locus of student activism, regardless of its orientation, is in the university. Considerable attention has been given to student politics in countries like Thailand, Iran, Peru, South Korea, China, Afghanistan and India where they are a continuing source of unrest. In Latin America, the governments have tried hard to “depoliticize” the universities. During the post-independence period, in many Asian countries, student movements have been politically volatile and sometimes decisive, causing political crises and fall of governments — as in Turkey, South Korea, South Vietnam, Indonesia, and Japan. China witnessed students playing a comparatively more complex role in its political evolution. Iran, which sent the majority of its students overseas for higher education, has little student activism within the country though their agitations and activities in the other countries are a

cause for concern. That students at the higher education level have played a key role in the creation of nationalist movements, if not in their practical operations, is also obvious as in the case of the Indian freedom struggle. In the developing countries, as elsewhere in the world, university students provide political leadership and innovation, and often point the way to social change and sometimes, to revolution. There is, however, limited research on the backgrounds, roles, attitudes, activism etc., of students in higher education in the developing countries.

Check Your Progress 7

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

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

What are the major issues faced by faculty in performing traditional academic functions of teaching and research in the developing countries? (answer in about 40 words).

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

2.6 PROBLEMS AND PROSPECTS

Universities share a common culture and ethos. While in many basic ways there is an international convergence of institutional models and norms, there are significant national differences that will continue to affect the development of academic systems and institutions across the world though it is unlikely that the basic structures of academic institutions will change dramatically. The traditional university will survive, although it will be changed by the forces in operation globally. The emergence of open universities and other distance education institutions may provide new institutional arrangements. Resource constraints might lead to further organizational innovations, and there are the possibilities of unanticipated change.

Apparently, the circumstances that the universities are confronted with, in the first part of twenty-first century, are not, in general, favorable. The realities of higher education as a “mature industry,” with stable, rather than growing, resources in the industrialized countries, will affect not only the funds available for post-secondary education, but also practices within academic institutions. Accountability, the impact of technologies, and the other forces are bound to affect colleges and universities. Patterns, of course, will vary across the world. Some academic systems, especially those in the newly industrializing countries, will continue to grow. The future decades, in parts of the world affected by significant political and economic change, are expected to be those of reconstruction. The coming period, therefore, holds many challenges for higher education.

Almost all the developing countries, with their history of independent nationhood not even a century old, and, in many cases, their economies in a bad state, are grappling with enormous problems. While the developed

world is in the process of transition from the industrial revolution to the information revolution (from the modern to the post-modern era), most of the developing countries are still to reach the stage of modernization. Undeniably, it is education that has to play a crucial role in bridging this gap, in accelerating the process of modernization and in creating the environment for their transition to post-modern societies. Despite the countless problems, the prospects are without any limit. In this section we shall make a quick survey of this landscape.

2.6.1 Curriculum and the Organization of Study

The academic systems of the developing countries, in general, inherited a curriculum heavily loaded with the liberal arts disciplines and organized in the classical European style, with its basic assumptions often being questionable, due to the widely differing realities of their respective nations. The clientele lacked a western cultural background; the need for educated manpower was quite different, and their universities were required to provide human resource for the emerging technological societies. Contextually, the change process has been slow, as the newly emerged nations realized their top priority was offering university studies to a growing population. As a result, the old order continued with the curriculum and courses organized in the traditional way, ultimately resulting in the oversupply of graduates in liberal arts, and a general fall in their academic standards.

In the comparatively advanced developing countries, the concentration on liberal education gradually lessened, through an emphasis, initially on the Social Sciences and, later, on the natural sciences and applied technology. The curriculum in areas like Education, Economics and Sociology have been partly adapted to indigenous needs while areas such as Engineering, Management Studies, etc., have gained prominence. The growth and diversification of national economies led to needs in:

- skills relevant to Financial Management, Business Administration, Accountancy, specialized fields like Law, Marketing and Advertising; and
- the applied technologies.

Singapore's world-renowned urban housing programme is the brainchild of local university-trained planners, besides the development of sophisticated financial institutions like the Asian Dollar Market, the School of Accountancy and Business Administration, and the School of Postgraduate Management Studies. South Korea, also, has made an impressive use of its technology-trained personnel, which have won major contracts abroad. In Malaysia, the need to expand, strengthen and upgrade agricultural technology was recognized as crucial. In 1970, the status of Malaysia's Agricultural University was upgraded from a college to a university. Its success in diversifying the economy, and its ability to undertake relatively large rural modernization projects, was possible only because of the successful restructuring of higher education. In India, too, the scenario is fast changing, and newer subjects are rapidly gaining popularity.

Vocationalization has been an important trend in higher education change. Worldwide, the conviction that the university curriculum must provide relevant training for a variety of increasingly complex jobs and prepare one for a subsistence, is gaining ground. The traditional notion that higher

education should cater to the needs of the elite and consist of liberal, non-vocational studies, or should provide a broad but unfocused curriculum, has been widely criticized for lacking “relevance.” Students, concerned about being gainfully employed, have urged the universities to be more focused; besides, employers have demanded that the curricula become more directly relevant to their needs. Enrollments in the social sciences and humanities, at least in the industrialized nations, have declined because these areas are not considered vocationally relevant.

Curricular ‘vocationalism’ is closely linked to another key worldwide trend in higher education: — the increasingly close university - industry interface. Industrial firms are seeking to ensure that the skills they need are incorporated into the curriculum. This trend also has implications for academic research, since many university-industry relationships are focused largely on research. Formal linkages and research partnerships have been established by industries with universities, in order to obtain assistance in their research work. In some countries, such as Sweden, representatives of industry have been added to the governing councils of higher education institutions.

University-industry relations have become crucial for higher education in many countries. Technical arrangements with regard to patents, confidentiality of research findings, and other fiscal matters have become important. Critics have pointed out that the nature of research in higher education may be altered by these new relationships, as industries are not, generally, interested in basic research. University-based research, which has traditionally been oriented toward basic research, may increasingly become oriented towards applied and profit-making topics.

The orientation of research, particularly in fields like biotechnology, in which broader public policy matters may conflict with the needs of corporations, is also a pertinent issue for discussions and debates. Specific funding arrangements have also been questioned. Pressure to serve the immediate societal needs, and particularly the training and research requirements of industry, is currently a key concern for universities, with implications for the curriculum organization, the nature and scope of research, and the traditional relationship between the university and society.

In recent years, efforts to modify the classical pattern of organization of studies have been widespread; the academic systems, in general, have moved from the European to the American pattern of organization. ‘Continuous assessment’ of academic work, and shorter courses with specified marks assigned to monitor students closely, are in practice. This permits the teachers to have a more direct contact with the learning process, and provide ‘feedback’ to students. Some universities, like that of Kuwait, have implemented a major shift from the British model to the American style ‘course credit’ system, while many universities in India have retained the traditional system despite it being ill-suited to the Indian realities.

There is no single model for the nature or the organization of curriculum that will effectively work in all the developing countries. However, undoubtedly “the traditional European curricular and organizational pattern inherited with colonial universities or copied without serious consideration, is not well suited to the Third World realities” (Altbach, 1982). Drastic attempts at curriculum restructuring run the risk of lowering academic standards.

Gradually, universities throughout the developing world are trying to diversify their curriculum, but, multiple constraints still impede this effort, like: (a) textbooks mostly continue to be imported from the industrialized nations; (b) only countries with a large higher education system — like India — seem to have attempted substantial adaptation; (c) the faculty, in most of these countries, is often trained abroad in Europe or North America, and do not adapt their academic expertise to the requirements of local circumstances; and (d) in some countries, like Singapore, Malaysia and the Gulf countries, expatriates form a significant part of the faculty, especially in the newer applied and scientific fields besides the significant hurdle — the language — used by the universities. Developing countries have been, primarily, using European languages. The continued use of a European language eliminates a significant segment of the country's population, from access to higher education, which, thereby, gets insulated from the society. The privileged social sections, largely from the urban areas, which can access education in the metropolitan language, generally dominate the scene.

Check Your Progress 8

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

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

What are the constraints in diversifying the curriculum by universities in Third World countries? (answer in about 50 words).

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

2.6.2 Language

The selection of the instructional language is often a matter of controversy and immense sensitivity within and outside the university. In the colonial past, academic institutions were primarily the preserve of the upper strata of the society, and even to this day this is true of certain developing nations. The use of the national language broadens access to higher education; research work and analysis done in the universities can be communicated in a widely understood medium, and all these contribute to nation-building, a key goal in most countries.

Many of the developing nations are multilingual, with the language policy often being politically volatile. The use of a European language as the medium for intellectual exchange blocks access to knowledge for large segments of people in these counties; language becomes a device for social stratification. Those with command over any European language, succeed in entering the professional sector and the modern business world, while the others are denied positions with potential of upward mobility.

For example, in Anglophone and Francophone Africa, the domination of the higher education system by the western languages, particularly English and French, has resulted in these languages continuing to be the key to graduate education and research studies in Africa. The situation is similar even in countries like Indonesia, with some commitment to national languages as

well as to the paucity of technical and scholarly books in the national languages.

The developing world directly takes knowledge from the industrialized nations, to use for its own purposes, as evident in the Indian sub-continent. The role of translations in the international network of knowledge diffusion indicates the manner in which the Third World languages are in an intellectual backwater. "Most of the world's translations are from the major European languages" (Altbach, 1982).

The world's knowledge system continues to be dominated by the industrialized nations because of the sheer size and wealth of their academic systems, of their domination of the world's research system, of publishing houses, and of the use of major metropolitan languages — in particular English. Academicians trained abroad in metropolitan languages, are hesitant to teach in indigenous languages in their own countries. Besides, textbooks and other instructional materials are expensive, difficult to produce and mostly unavailable in such languages. Many countries, with an indigenous language as instructional medium, have the common complaint that they are still dependent mainly on books in European languages and students, therefore, have to learn a foreign language. Advanced training at the post-secondary education level is almost inevitably linked to the international academic system and hence, to a European language.

Despite these constraints, much progress is evident in the use of non-European languages in higher education, as in Japan, Taiwan, China, Korea and Malaysia, for example. While all Arab countries are committed to use Arabic as the instructional medium, some, like Kuwait, partly use English. However, in many developing nations, most of the students are effectively bilingual; the synthesis of instruction in an indigenous language with the use of books and text materials in a European language is not impossible. Long ago, India for instance, made a commitment to use the country's regional languages, but it still continues to use English in the educational system, enabling universities to fulfill their national and international roles. India's curricular materials in indigenous language(s) in the tertiary sector have been only partially successful, as intellectuals still prefer and depend on books in European languages — mainly English.

Since firstly, developing nations are, invariably, dependent on expatriates to help establish new and more applied disciplines which are more relevant to developing economies and they can function in a European language, and since secondly, these nations are required to send students overseas, especially for higher studies, they need to 'hold the balance between nationalistic desires for doing away with colonial languages and expatriate expertise', plus the continued, if selective, reliance on the metropolitan languages. Western academic institutions also need to be more sensitive to the dilemmas that these nations face, and support national policies; in this context the attempt to withhold recognition of medical degrees in certain countries consequent to a 'changeover to the indigenous language as the medium of instruction at the university, highlights the difficulties that even some advanced developing countries face in making their education system more relevant and more at par with that in the advanced countries.'

Universities, the world over, are part of an international intellectual network. Historical origins are not rare; various academic disciplines are linked by common research paradigms, journals and organizations. This network is dominated by major universities in the large industrialized nations, and

academic institutions elsewhere are to some extent, peripheral. The Third World universities have to come to grips with this and devise policies aimed at maximising independence. In this regard, language policies are important and they have numerous implications — the use of indigenous languages may create a more accessible university, but sever the community's international linkage.

2.6.3 Developing Countries: Regional Status

The current status of the developing countries vis-à-vis higher education, may largely be attributed to the various types of steering policies adopted by them, as revealed by the trend study during an empirical investigation. (Sanyal,1995). We have, in the preceding discussions, drawn attention to the specific situations obtaining in the higher education systems in different continents. It would be worthwhile to provide a consolidated regional view of the status of higher education in the developing countries.

Central and Latin America

The major problems in the area of higher education in the region are:

- a) mass social demand,
- b) declining quality,
- c) student inability to study full-time,
- d) low staff salaries compelling good academics to leave or take up additional jobs,
- e) politicization of all issues by teacher and student unions,
- f) inadequate social/political framework to manage change, and
- g) government bureaucracy.

The major features of the higher education system in the region are: (i) tight government control over expenditure, (ii) encouragement of growth of private institutions offering cheaper education with a variety of structures, ranging from autocratic to entrepreneurial, to respond to the pressure of social demand and, (iii) curb on the role of universities in budget establishment or salary scale fixation. Efforts are on to abandon incremental budgeting, lessen isolation, and institute evaluation as an instrument of policy. In general, higher education systems are equipped with accreditation type of evaluation, conducted by ministerial autonomous bodies of a buffer type. However, in Venezuela, university evaluation was contested. In Mexico, the governmental effort has been to steer its university system towards a more regulated expansion, institutional evaluation, closer links with the productive sectors, and differential salary scales for the academics.

In the early 1990s, Chile established a National Council of Higher Education for accreditation of new universities and supervision of the existing ones. This was strongly resisted; the private universities did not want obligatory evaluation, and the public universities did not want to share funds with the private sector; linking of performance to budget did not appeal to them. The attitude was one of apathy — — 'university staff are accustomed to leaving the government to manage'. Similar attempts were made in Colombia, Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil and Ecuador. In Cuba, a decentralization process was initiated to give more flexibility to the curricula and to teaching. Administration was supposed to work according to objectives, and not by tasks. Institutional heads, however, were hesitant to take decisions; decentralization, in this context, was not successful. "Nevertheless, Cuba is

continuing its efficiency measures by merging institutes and faculties and increasing activities to generate revenue". (Sanyal, 1995).

Asia

This region, comprising some of the richest and the poorest countries, has tried:

Cooperation with the productive sectors, emphasizing technology and science and privatization, which has greatly expanded the provision of higher education. Comprising as the region does of the two most populous countries of the world, China and India, it has also the world's largest education systems in terms of the number of institutions and their enrollments. Yet, as we noted earlier in this unit, the GER in tertiary education in the region is not among the highest in the world. By and large, the higher education system in the region is under state control, or is fully regulated, and is funded by the states with some notable exceptions.

The region is home to some of the poor countries in the world; it has some of the best institutions in the world and also a very large number of institutions that are just average or mediocre. Some of them attract students from a large number of developing nations as these countries offer good education at a relatively low cost; this region also sends the largest number of student to the developed nations for higher education. There are regional cooperation arrangements that provide opportunities for students from smaller and poorer countries to benefit from the higher education facilities provided by their neighboring countries.

There is a growing private sector in higher education in some countries of the region. In the Philippines, for example, more than 80 % of the higher education sector is private with its own assistance fund. The public chartered institutions have more autonomy, while the non-chartered ones are supervised by the Department of Education, Culture and Science; but for both, the governing boards -- which approve all the programs, budget and staff appointments -- are appointed by the country's President. Control is also exercised through the budget, which provides 80-90 % of the total funding. Though efforts for self-regulation in the state institutions has been on for a longer period than in many other countries, the actual implementation has been delayed due to the lack of a stable national policy commitment by the government.

Africa

The African region has been tremendously affected by: (i) the world economic crisis; (ii) serious financial and management problems in higher education, (iii) compulsion on the universities to produce graduates *en masse* to meet the perpetual social demand, and (iv) high enrolment and imbalance in disciplines, leading to problems related to low quality, unemployment and unrest. The African nations have not, however, lagged behind in initiating reforms. Some of the innovative measures adopted by them include:

- reduction of unit cost by encouraging students to live off campus, as in Ghana, Uganda and Tanzania;
- cutting out certain allowances and course rationalization, as in Nigeria and Ibadan;
- converting bookshops and cafes into self-financing enterprises, as in Uganda and Zambia;

- student loan schemes, as in Botswana, Ghana, Kenya, Lesotho, Malawi, Rwanda, Zambia and Zimbabwe; and
- paying academic staff by lecture output, as in Uganda.

These measures have been useful, but not adequate to arrest the declining quality of teachers, buildings, equipment, etc. Certain universities in the region, as in Mozambique, depend largely on donor assistance for survival. In the existing circumstances, little increase in higher education budgets is possible; national governments, universities, associations of universities and aid agencies are participating in a major drive to improve management efficiency. Study teams have visited most of the universities to draw up plans for targeting aid from donor agencies. Visitation panels, as in Anglophone Africa, may bring about wide-scale reforms like in Uganda, which recommended a change-over to the semester system, distance education, income generation activities, etc.

Private higher education is receiving some encouragement in Kenya and Zimbabwe; but, due to their level of economic development, it cannot flourish to the same extent as it has in Asia or Latin America. The improvement of public university management is considered particularly critical target by donor agencies.

Evidently, there was strong government control; but, until recently, little assistance was given to the improvement of university management, except in Ghana and Nigeria, which have invested in computers and information systems. Efforts at improvement are now on in the other African countries.

Arab States

The problems faced by the higher education system in the region are:

- their largely traditional nature and inability to cope with necessary changes, due to the lack of competent administrators, sound planning, clarity of objectives and control;
- faculty has little autonomy, as the ministry manages the staff, and budgets are extrapolated from previous years;
- inadequate attempts by the governments/institutions to innovate; and
- mass higher education as seen in Algeria, Yemen, Morocco, Tunisia, Egypt and Iraq.

The salient features of this region are strong government bureaucracy, weak executive level university management, and lack of management expertise and culture. The governments of several countries in the region have recently expressed a desire for change. The Arab states have excessive centralization. In Iraq, the Ministry decides — besides policy and funding — faculty workload, programmes and examination schedules. The Egyptian Supreme Council of Universities decides enrolments, sets down admission regulations, etc. In Kuwait, measures have been taken to strictly enforce university entrance and staff regulations. Tunisia has adopted a policy to expand technical education; in 1988 it rationalized higher education by regrouping the faculty around basic administrative units; and in 1989 it passed a law to organize the system into a more autonomous and diversified one; distribution of funds is according to norms with an incentive for efficiency; universities have to seek other sources of revenue, set institutional goals and introduce a students' loan scheme. The Algerian Ministry, in 1990, decided to decentralize all responsibilities except budget allocations. In Tunisia and Algeria, these reforms faced intense teacher resistance.

The pressure of social demand is being met through the establishment of private institutions, as in Kuwait and Egypt. In Egypt, the first private institution was opened in 1989; financial support from the industries has also been obtained. Moreover, with the creation of a Centre for Higher Educational Reform, the Ministry is trying to form the basis for modernization. Sudan has established new regional universities; expanded higher education with structures strengthened at the executive level; and stipulated that majority of the executives should belong to the region and to the commercial and other economic sectors.

On the whole, the emerging picture reveals that there have been serious attempts at reforms in several developing countries, especially in those which have centralized planning and control. These attempts were not as strong in those countries which had adopted self-regulation and accountability. In the developing countries this happened because their respective governments have taken little action, and without political will, the institutions can not take any initiatives.

Check Your Progress 9

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 problem, universities in the third world face in using indigenous language? (answer in about 40 words).

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

iii) What are the major differences in problems faced by universities in Africa and Arab states? (answer in about 50 words).

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

2.6.4 Twenty- First Century: Problems And Prospects

The university in modern society has preserved many of the key elements of the historical models from which it evolved over centuries. Despite remarkable institutional stability over time, universities have changed and have been subjected to immense pressures in the post World War II period. Many of the changes documented, are due to great external pressure and were instituted despite internal opposition from within the institutions. As a result of tremendous controversy, some have argued that 'the university has lost its soul', while others have claimed that 'the university is irresponsible because it uses public funds and does not always conform to the direct needs of industry and government.' Pressure from multiple quarters —

governmental authorities, militant students, or external constituencies have all placed great strains on academic institutions.

The dominant trend worldwide has been towards mass higher education. The university is at the center of the post-industrial, knowledge-based society. The problems faced by higher education are, in part, related to growth and expansion. The following issues are among those that will be of concern in the coming decade and beyond.

Access and Adaption: Although access to post-secondary education has been provided to virtually all segments of the population in most countries, there is a continuing unmet demand for higher education. The arrival of democratic governments in Eastern Europe, the re-emergence of demand for higher education in Western Europe, and the continuing pressure for expansion in the developing countries have all pushed the demand for access in many countries. Often, the resource crunch and a desire for efficient allocation of scarce postsecondary resources, come into direct conflict with demands for access. In addition, demands for access, by previously excluded groups, continue to place great pressure on higher education. In many countries, racial, ethnic, or religious minorities play a role in shaping higher education policy.

Administration, Accountability, and Governance: With academic institutions growing larger and increasingly complex, the pressure for a greater degree of professional administration is being felt. Simultaneously, the traditional forms of academic governance are being criticized — not only because of their unwieldy features, but also because of their inefficiency in large and bureaucratic institutions. The mounting demands for accountability place great stress on the existing governance and administrative structures. . As academic budgets expand, there are inevitable demands to monitor and control expenditures. The appropriate level of governmental supervision of higher education remains a controversial issue. The challenge will be to ensure that the traditional — and valuable — patterns of faculty control over governance, and the basic academic decisions in universities, are maintained in a complex and bureaucratic environment.

Research and Knowledge Dissemination: Research is the core of a university's mission. Contemporary knowledge-based societies depend on research — both basic and applied — for their success, and universities have to respond to this demand. Decisions regarding control and funding of research, the relationship of research to the broader curriculum and teaching, the uses of university-based research, and other related issues are expected to be matters of contention in future years. Current debates on the appropriate role of industry in sponsoring, and even controlling research, and about the control of knowledge products, will help to shape the future of academic research. The other controversy, at present, is regarding the system of knowledge dissemination and control over the new data networks. This includes the rapidly changing array of computer-based data systems, besides journals and books. The latter raises questions on the basic survival of traditional means of communication — the journals in contemporary environment. In addition, the needs of peripheral scientific systems, including both the developing countries and smaller academic systems in the industrialized world, which have been largely ignored but are nonetheless important, is also a matter of concern.

While technologies for rapid dissemination of knowledge are available, issues like the control and ownership of knowledge dissemination, the

appropriate use of databases, maintenance problems of quality and standards in databases, still continue to daunt the developing nations. There is the possibility that the new technologies will lead to increased centralization rather than to wider access, besides overwhelming libraries and other users of knowledge, both by the cost of obtaining new material and by the flow of knowledge. At present, academic institutions in the United States and other English-speaking nations, along with publishers and the owners of the communications networks, are in an advantageous position. The major Western knowledge producers currently constitute a kind of cartel of information, dominating not only the creation of knowledge but, also most of the major channels of distribution. Simply increasing the amount of research and creating new database will not ensure a more equal and accessible knowledge system.

The Academic Profession: At the turn of the twenty-first century, in most countries the professoriate has found itself under tremendous pressure with challenges related to the demands for accountability, increased bureaucratization of institutions, fiscal constraints in many countries, and an increasingly diverse student population. In most industrialized nations, a combination of fiscal problems and demographic factors, have led to a stagnating profession. Since the past decade and more so at the beginning of the twenty-first century, demographic factors and a modest upturn in enrollments are beginning to turn 'surpluses into shortages'. In the newly industrializing countries (NICs), the professoriate has significantly improved its status, remuneration, and working conditions. In the comparatively less economically privileged nations, however, the situation has grown more difficult with resource crunch and ever increasing enrollments. On the whole, the professoriate is likely to face severe problems as academic institutions change during the twenty-first century and maintaining autonomy, academic freedom, and a commitment to the traditional goals of the university become increasingly more difficult. In the West, it will be hard to attract the best into academe, at a time when (i) faculty positions are relatively plentiful — in various fields, (ii) disproportionately high salaries in the non-academic areas of work, besides the fact that salaries in the academic sector have not kept pace with the private sector, and (ii) the deterioration in the traditional academic lifestyle. The pressure on the professoriate to teach and do research, to attract external grants, to do consulting *et al*, is tremendous. In Britain and Australia, for example, universities have become "cost centers," and 'accountability has been pushed to its logical extreme.' British academics entering the profession after 1989, will no longer have tenure, but will, in the future, be periodically evaluated. In the NICs, one of the numerous challenges will be to create a fully autonomous academic profession, in a context in which traditions of research and academic freedom are only now developing. The challenges faced by the economically disadvantaged Third World countries are perhaps the greatest, with their struggle to maintain a viable academic culture under deteriorating conditions.

Private Resources and Public Responsibility: In almost every country the increasing role of the private sector in higher education is being more and more emphasized. Perhaps, the most direct manifestations of this trend are its role in funding and directing university research. In many countries, there has been an expansion of private academic institutions, or the establishment of new ones. In addition, students are paying an increasing share of the cost of their education as a result of hike in tuition fees and through loan programmes. Governments are making efforts to limit their

expenditures on higher education, while at the same time realizing the importance of the functions of universities. Privatization has been the primary means of achieving this broad policy goal. Decisions on academic developments will, surely and inevitably, move increasingly to the private sector with the possibility of broader public goals being, perhaps, ignored. Whether private interests will support the traditional functions of universities, including academic freedom, basic research, and a pattern of governance that leaves the professoriate in control, is still unclear and uncertain. Some of the most interesting developments in private higher education have been in countries like Vietnam, China, and Hungary — where private institutions have recently been established. The growth of a new for-profit private sector in the United States and elsewhere creates an entirely new sector of higher education, and private initiatives in higher education are sure to usher a change in values and orientations. However, it is not clear whether these values will be in the best interests of the university in the long term.

Diversification and Stratification: While diversification — the establishment of new post-secondary institutions to meet diverse needs — is by no means an entirely unprecedented phenomenon, it is a trend of primary importance, and it will continue to reshape the academic system. In recent years, the establishment of research institutions, community colleges, polytechnics, and other academic institutions designed to meet specialized needs and serve specific populations, has been a primary characteristic of growth. At the same time, the academic system has become more stratified, and moving over from a particular sector to another is difficult. There is often a high correlation between social class (and other variables) and selection to a particular sector of the system. To some extent, the rigid reluctance of traditional universities to change is responsible for some of the diversification. Perhaps, the belief that it is efficient and less expensive to establish new limited-function institutions, plays a more critical role. An element of diversification is the inclusion of larger numbers of women and other previously excluded segments of the population. Women now constitute 40 percent of the postsecondary student population worldwide — and are now a majority in U.S. institutions. In many countries, students from lower socio-economic groups, and racial and ethnic minorities, are entering post-secondary institutions in significant numbers. In the context of India, first generation learners and those from other socially disadvantaged backgrounds are entering the campuses of higher education across the country. This diversification will also present challenges in the coming decades.

Economic Disparities: There are substantial inequalities among the world's universities; these are likely to grow. The major universities in the industrialized nations, generally, have the resources to play a leading role in scientific research, though it will be increasingly expensive to keep up with the knowledge expansion. Universities in greater part of the developing world, however, would find it difficult to cope with the continuing pressure for increased enrollments, particularly in the context of budgetary constraints and, in some cases, fiscal disasters. To illustrate, universities in much of sub-Saharan Africa have experienced dramatic budget cuts, and find it difficult to function, not to mention to improve quality and compete in the international knowledge system. Somewhere in between, are academic institutions in the Asian NICs, in which there has been significant academic progress. Thus, the economic prospects for post-secondary education, worldwide, are mixed.

Despite the intra regional and inter-regional disparities, institutions of higher education — primarily the universities — share a common culture and reality. In many basic ways there is an international convergence of institutional models and norms. At the same time, there are significant national differences that will continue to affect the development of academic systems and institutions. It is unlikely that the basic structures of academic institutions will change dramatically; the traditional university will survive, although it will be changed by contemporary forces that are in operation. Open universities and other distance education institutions have emerged, and may provide new institutional arrangements. Efforts to save money may yield further organizational changes as well. Unanticipated change is also possible.

The universities, in the first part of twenty-first century, are confronted with certain circumstances, which in general, are not favourable. The realities of higher education as a “mature industry” — with stable, rather than growing, resources in the industrialized countries — will not only affect the funds available for post-secondary education, but, in addition it will also affect the practices within academic institutions. Accountability, the impact of technologies, and the other forces will affect colleges and universities worldwide with, of course, varying patterns. Some academic systems, especially those in the newly industrializing countries, will continue to grow. In parts of the world affected by significant political and economic change, the future decades is expected to be one of reconstruction and is, therefore, fraught with many challenges for higher education.

Check Your Progress 10

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

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

What are the major challenges that academic profession in the third world countries is facing in the 21st century beginning? (answer in about 50 words).

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

2.7 LET US SUM UP

We have made an effort in this unit to provide you with a broad-brush treatment of the development of higher education in the developing countries. Their number is very large, and their problems immense. They have a common inheritance, but have widely varying strategies and approaches to address their concerns. These variations are influenced by economic compulsions, ideological predilections, cultural contexts and the larger social systems that constitute their environment.

Since this unit is on the management issues related to higher education, we have focused our attention on the issues of managing the transformation of a dysfunctional higher education system into a dynamic and vibrant instrument of social change and development. However, the broad picture that emerges is one of many inadequacies — of resources, of commitment and of will.

2.8 CHECK YOUR PROGRESS: POSSIBLE ANSWERS

Check Your Progress 1

One major shift in focus of higher education occurred due to transition from elite to mass is that – from providing enlightened leadership to society as an elite to mass higher education products required secure decent employment to enhance their livelihood. Thus employment became a key indicator of the quality and relevance of mass higher education.

Check Your Progress 2

- i) Post world war II many countries experienced upheavals in socio, political and economic spheres, particularly countries who gained freedom and status as independent nations. In these countries higher education had undergone radical transformation and expansion with expectation to take part in the development and modernization of their nations including their social, economic and political institutions by enlightening and training their personnel for post-independence nation-building agenda.
- ii) The supreme court struck down the state legislation which allowed establishment of universities by private parties through a process of granting approvals and declared that legislative sanction is necessary for each university, thus the court stopped the proliferation of private universities.

Check Your Progress 3

Three main features that are common to the universities in the Third World Countries are:

- i) The instructional medium used for teaching and research is, in many cases, a foreign language, with the exception of certain Latin American Countries.
- ii) Inadequate infrastructure to support intellectual communication with other institutions to stimulate academic activity.
- iii) Lack of funds and laboratory facilities to carry out advanced research.

Check Your Progress 4

- 1)
 - i) True
 - ii) True
- 2) With pressure from IMF/world bank most developing nations particularly in Asia and Africa shifted their focus from higher education to school education by cut in expenditure and stopping expansion led to disastrous situations like-teachers were not paid; many of them migrated and universities and teacher training institutions were closed down. Most African countries are yet to recover from this policy shift imposed on them.

Check Your Progress 5

The existing structures in the developing countries higher education institutions evolved for small, elitist institutions are no longer suitable to manage the complex topics that universities are called upon to perform. The scope and functions of academic administration have expanded with many activities like-student services, increasingly diverse and complicated degree

structures requiring coordination and record keeping, growing infrastructure, large number of student, staff etc. This scenario demands institutions in developing countries to consider ways to improve the effectiveness of academic administration.

Check Your Progress 6

Most of the African universities tend to be expensive, inefficient and inadequately financed leading to poor management of infrastructure, inflexible management of financial and staffing resources and ineffective relationship with their governments, particularly in respect of financial matters. The budgets are often dramatically reduced by the government without any information to the universities leading to disasters in managing the institutions.

Check Your Progress 7

Heavy teaching responsibilities does not allow time to do research, poor infrastructural facilities, difficulty in access to current knowledge effects quality of research. Teaching conditions are also difficult with large classes, shortage of reading materials, teaching styles that dominate lecture method and less scope for interaction are some of the issues faced by the developing nations which affects both teaching and research.

Check Your Progress 8

The major constraints in the Third World, while diversifying curriculum, are:

- i) Textbooks continue to be imported from other developed nations.
- ii) There is not enough expertise or infrastructural support to try and adapt these materials to local needs or in local languages.
- iii) Foreign trained academics cannot adjust their expertise to suit local conditions.
- iv) In some countries, expatriates form the main faculty in applied scientific fields.

Check Your Progress 9

- i) Universities, the world over, are part of large international intellectual network and share common research paradigms, journals and organizations. If third world universities use indigenous languages for instruction, they may create more access to people, but at the cost of loosing international intellectual linkage.
- ii) The major problems faced by the countries in the African region are world economic crisis, financial and management problems, producing graduates in large numbers – low quality, unemployment and unrest. Whereas in Arab states higher education faces issues like lack of competent administration, sound planning, clarity of objectives and control. Faculty has no autonomy and ministry manages the staff and overall inability to move with changes.

Check Your Progress 10

The major challenges that academic profession facing are – demands for accountability, increasing bureaucratization of institutions, fiscal constraints, increasing enrolments, maintaining autonomy of institutions, academic freedom and commitment to the traditional goals of the university become increasingly more difficult. These challenges will be severe for economically disadvantaged third world countries, with their struggle to maintain a viable academic culture under deteriorating conditions.