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MANAGEMENT OF HIGHER EDUCATION

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MDE-414: Management of Distance Education

(New Course in place of ES-314 : Management of Distance Education)

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MDE-414: Management of Distance Education

Course Outline

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- Unit 1 : Management Functions and Processes: An Overview
- Unit 2 : Management of Educational Systems
- Unit 3 : Managing Educational Institutions
- Unit 4 : Management Processes in Education

Block 2 : Management of Higher Education

- Unit 1 : Higher Education in India: Retrospect and Prospect
- Unit 2 : Higher Education in the Developing Countries: An Overview
- Unit 3 : Higher Education in the Globalized World
- Unit 4 : Management of Higher Education: Systemic Level
- Unit 5 : Management of Higher Education: Institutional Level

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- Unit 1 : Understanding Distance Education Systems
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- Unit 3 : Organizational Structure of Higher Distance Education Institutions
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- Unit 1 : Management of a Mega Open University: A Case of IGNOU
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- Unit 1 : Strategies for Management of Change
- Unit 2 : Factors Affecting and Facilitating Change
- Unit 3 : Quality Management in Open and Distance Education Institutions
- Unit 4 : Organizational Mechanisms for Self-Renewal

BLOCK INTRODUCTION

Block 1 of this course was designed to introduce you to the basics of management and certain key concepts on which the science and practice of management as a profession is founded. We also took you through certain fundamentals of the structure and organization of education as a system. We had also gone into the issues and concerns involved in the management of the educational institutions at the micro-level as well as the management of the processes in education. With this broad understanding of the larger education system, and its organization and management, we now move on to a study of the management of higher education.

In order to broaden the focus of this discussion, we thought it would be useful to look at the growth and development of higher education from three different perspectives: firstly, the development of higher education in India; secondly in the Third World Countries, and finally, higher education as it is emerging in a globalised world. As we analyse these experiences, it will be clear that the issues and problems that confront managers of higher education in today's context are vastly different from those faced some three or four decades ago. If higher education systems across the world were struggling with the shortage of resources for much of the last half century, today they are also confronting much larger issues and challenges arising from higher education becoming more inclusive and mass-based, issues of access, costs and quality, and the challenges from global competition. We hope -the presentation of the current higher education landscape from all these perspectives will provide breadth and depth to your understanding of the management of the management issues that pervade the higher education scene of today.

This block is presented in 5 units. Unit 1 is all about the Indian Higher Education System. Our choice of Indian Higher Education System is pretty obvious. Firstly, we can present the higher education management perspective on the basis of our own experience, and therefore with a reasonable degree of authenticity. Secondly, the Indian Higher Education System is not just large, but vastly complex too as you will notice from this unit, and offering a bewildering variety of organizational and management models and styles.

In unit 2, we take a broad survey of the growth and development of higher education in the Third World Countries. To widen the perspective of the Third World Scenario, we begin with a brief resume of higher education development in the developed world. In most of these countries, resources are not the major problem. Yet, they are struggling with the issues of access, costs and quality. The developing world, on the other hand, has a common inheritance; most of them were colonies and became independent nations only in the later half of the 20th century. Most of them had to rebuild education systems and relate them to their own national aspirations. This long survey and analysis perhaps takes you through all corners of the world, and we hope, offers you a broad overview of the current problems and prospects that higher education systems across the world are trying to grapple with.

There is still a new dimension to the development of higher education today. The knowledge economy, the global market and global competition all had their impact on higher education. This impact is manifested in the growth of a significant private sector in higher education in most countries, competition among institutions at the national and international levels, emergence of cross-border education, and the emergence of new instrumentalities for ensuring the quality of the education provision, recognition and accreditation of programmes and qualifications, and the growing influence of the market in education. Unit 3 looks at these issues.

om these global perspectives, we move on to look at the management issues at the system level in Unit 4 and the institutional level in Unit 5. Both these units are based entirely on the Indian context and experience.

We hope this presentation will give you an in-depth understanding of the issues in managing higher education from which we could proceed to look more closely at the management of distance education systems that we will take up in the next two blocks.

At the end of this block, we have provided a questionnaire to be filled by you after you complete reading this block. Your feedback will be very useful for future revision and maintenance of the course. Please take note of the time you devote in studying this block. Maybe you complete this block after 5-6 sittings. But for every sitting, kindly note the time separately so that you can categorically say how much time you took to read this block. You can send the feedback questionnaire by post or you can e-mail the same to: crkmurthy@ignou.ac.in. You may also contact us for any difficulties related to the programme in general and MDE-414 in particular.





UNIT 1 HIGHER EDUCATION IN INDIA: RETROSPECT AND PROSPECT

Structure

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

1.1 INTRODUCTION

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

1.2 OBJECTIVES

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

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

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

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

1.3 THE GOVERNMENT, NATIONAL POLICIES AND THE EDUCATION SYSTEM

Pre Independence Developments

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

1.3.1 The British Rule and the Birth of the Modern University

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

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

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

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

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

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

Check Your Progress 1

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

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

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

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1.3.2 The Government's Role after Independence

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

The major responsibilities of the UGC were:

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

1.3.3 National Policies, Reviews and Reforms

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

1.3.4 The Role of the State Governments

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

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

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

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

Check Your Progress 2

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

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

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

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

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1.4 THE GROWTH OF HIGHER EDUCATION IN INDIA

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

1.4.1 Institutions and Enrolment

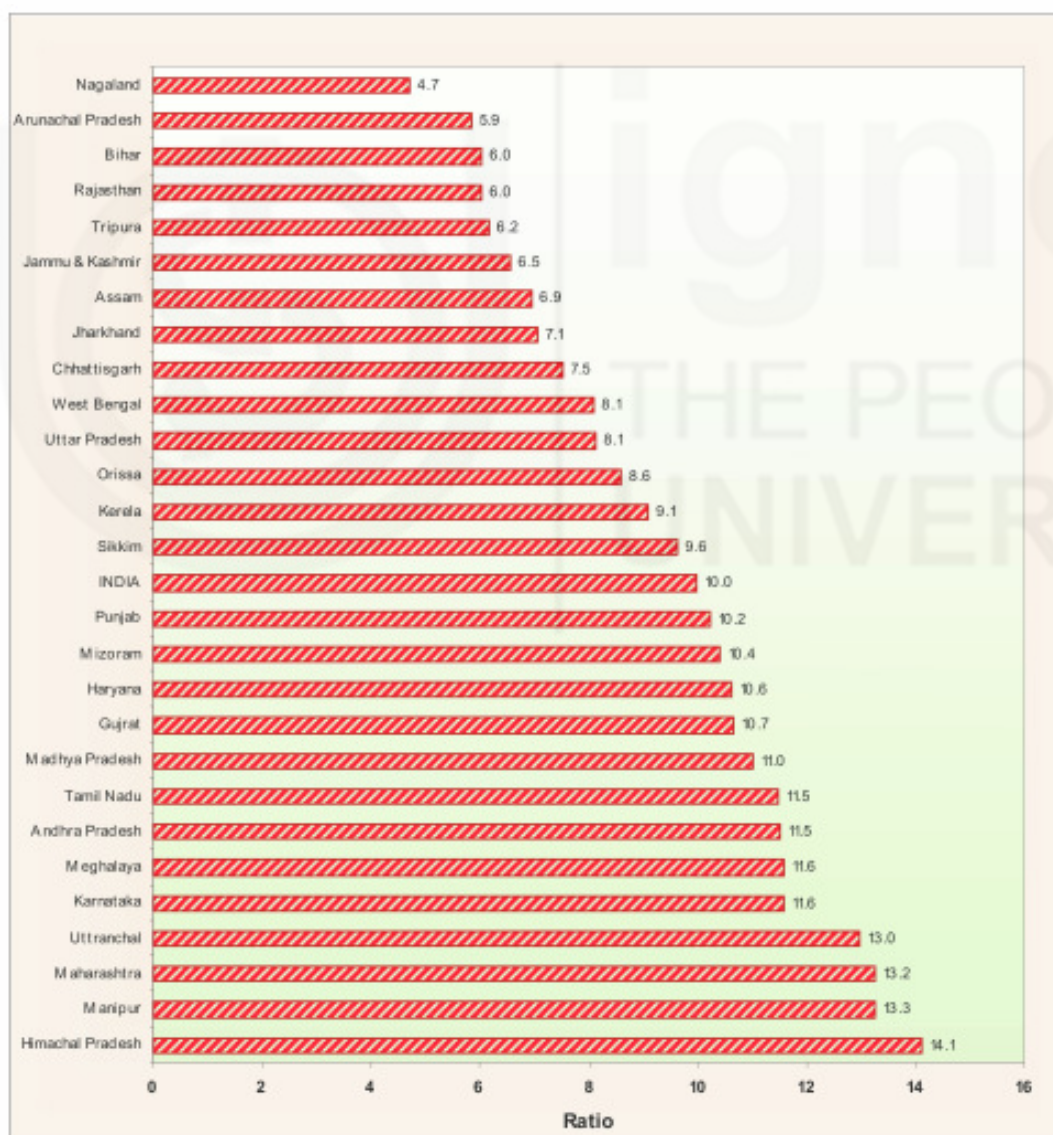
We just mentioned the quantitative expansion of the system. We shall look at some of the figures. Between 1950 and 2008, the number of universities increased from 25 to 431, the number of colleges from 700 to 20677 and the number of teachers from 15000 to 5.05 lakh (over half a million). The number of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

Table 1: Institutional capacity Expansion

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

(Note: 10 lakhs is one million)

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

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

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

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

Enrolment in Higher Education by Levels

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

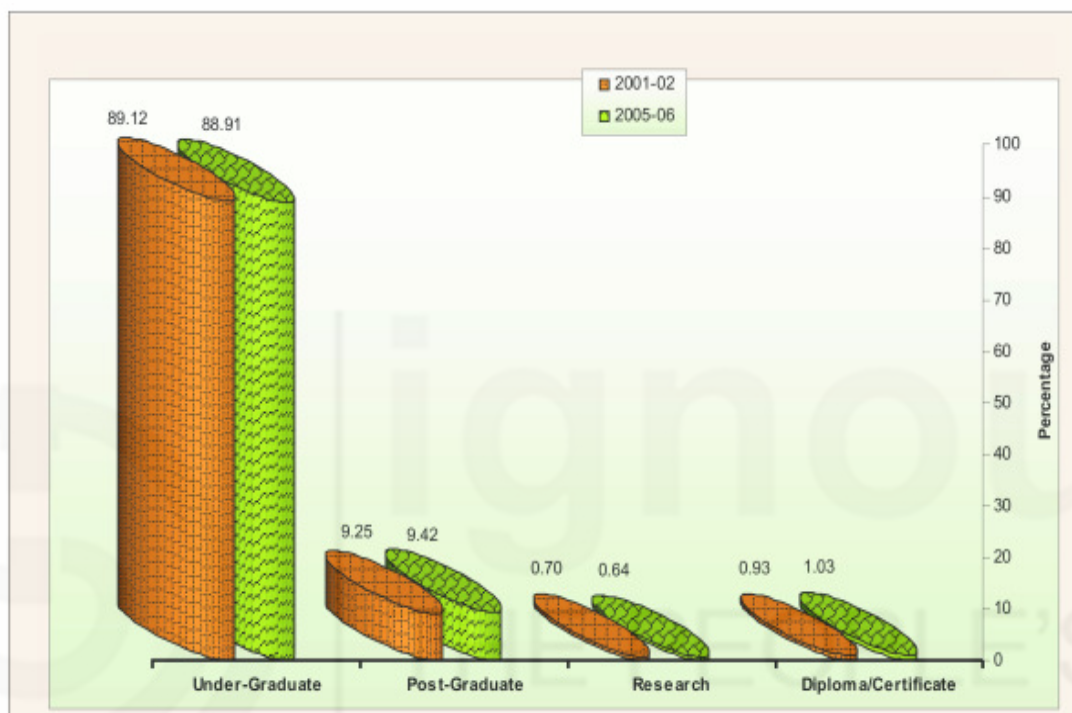


Figure 2: Enrolment by Levels in Universities and Affiliated Colleges in India

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

Enrolment by Major Disciplines

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

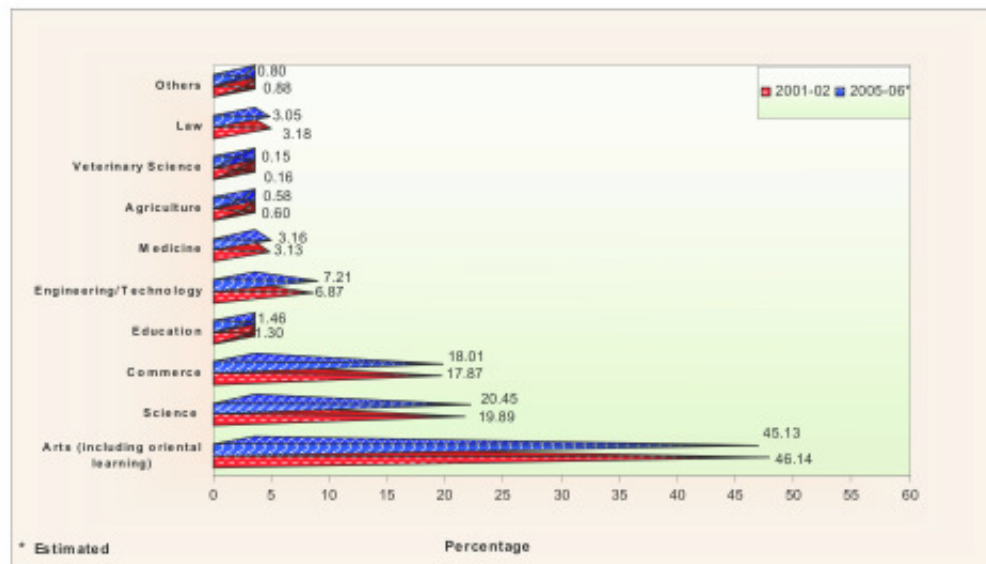


Figure 3: Faculty-wise Enrolment in Higher Education in India, 2001-2002 and 2005-2006
Source: UGC, Annual Reports, 2001-2002 & 2005-2006

1.4.2 Regional and Social Imbalances

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

Enrolment of Girls

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

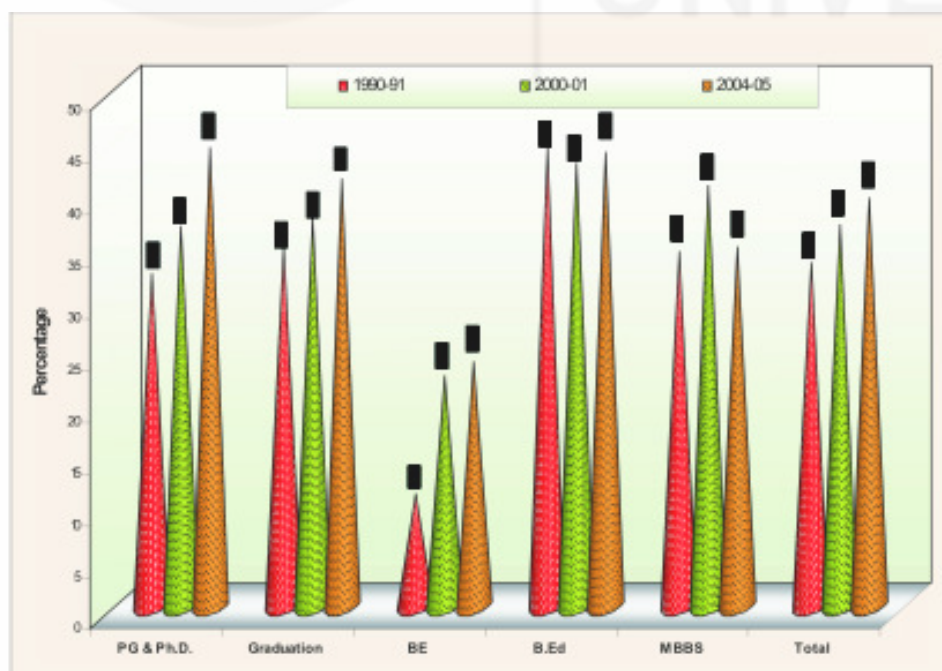


Figure 4: Level-Wise Share of Girls in Total Enrolment in Higher Education in India, 1990-91 to 2004-05

Source: Selected Educational Statistics, Various Years.

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

Inequitable Access to Higher Education among Social Groups

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

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

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

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

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

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

Exercise-1:			
Classify states in terms of GER in the following table and comment on regional variations in access to higher education.			
Less than 5%	5%-10%	10%-15	15%-20%
Comments:			
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Check Your Progress 3

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

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

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

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

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1.4.3 Resources for Education

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

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

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

1.4.4 The Private Sector in Indian Higher Education

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

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

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

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

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

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

This for the time being remains the law in India.

1.4.5 Open Universities and Distance Education

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

Check Your Progress 4

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

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

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

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

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1.5 QUALITY AND EXCELLENCE

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

1.5.1 From Elite-based Education to Mass Education

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

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

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

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

1.5.2 Structures and Processes

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

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

1.5.3 Curricula, Autonomy and Governance

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Check Your Progress 5

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

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

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

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

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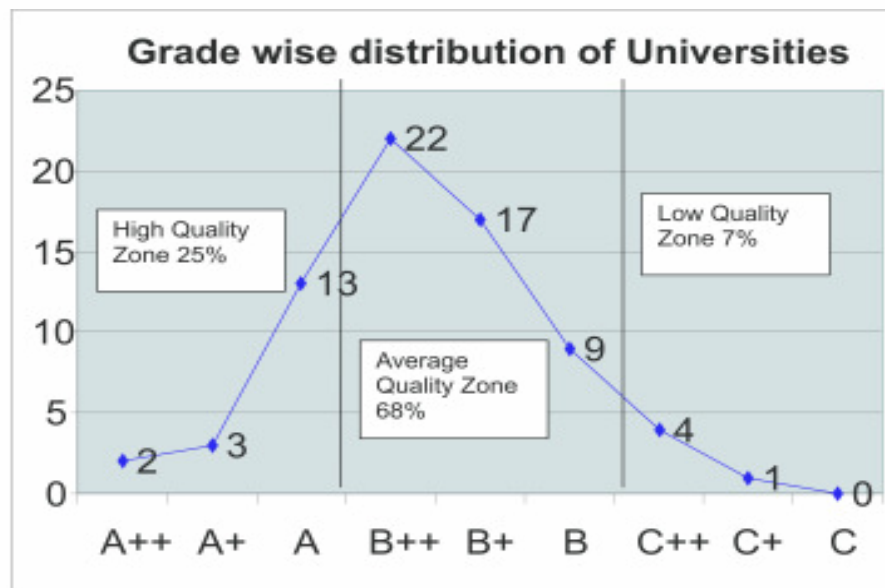
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As the quality of higher education remained a continuing concern for the government, the UGC and indeed all the stakeholders of the system, it became a focus of debate especially during the review of the national policy in 1986. The policy called for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

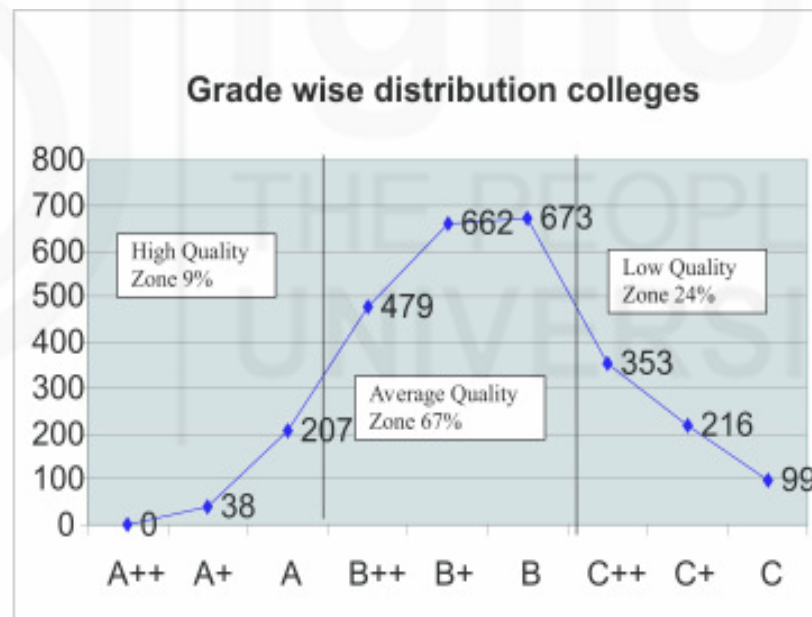
In 1992, the UGC decided to set up a National Assessment and Accreditation Council (NAAC) as an autonomous body with the responsibility to carry out an assessment of universities and colleges and accredit them according to the grades awarded through a detailed process of assessment. While the NBA proceeded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

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

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



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



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

1.6 LOOKING AHEAD

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

1.6.1 The Challenges of Globalization

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

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

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

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

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

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

1.6.2 Technologies and their Impact on Education

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

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

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

1.6.3 The Role of Research

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

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

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

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

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

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

Check Your Progress 6

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

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

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

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

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1.6.4 The Reform Agenda

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

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

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

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

1.7 LET US SUM UP

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

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

1.8 CHECK YOUR PROGRESS: POSSIBLE ANSWERS

Check Your Progress 1

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

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

Check Your Progress 2

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

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

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

Check Your Progress 3

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

Check Your Progress 4

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

Check Your Progress 5

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

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

Check Your Progress 6

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

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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
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- 2.5 Management of Higher Education in the Developing Countries
 - 2.5.1 Administration
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- 2.6 Problems and Prospects
 - 2.6.1 Curriculum and the Organization of Study
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 - 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).

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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).

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

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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).

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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).

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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).

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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 Windhock 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).

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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).

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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).

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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).

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

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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).

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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 a 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.

UNIT 3 HIGHER EDUCATION IN THE GLOBALISED WORLD

Structure

- 3.1 Introduction
- 3.2 Objectives
- 3.3 Higher Education: Changing perspectives in a Globalised World
 - 3.3.1 The Knowledge Economy
 - 3.3.2 The Global Competition
 - 3.3.3 The Global University
 - 3.3.4 Trans-national Education
- 3.4 The Role of Universities
 - 3.4.1 The Shaping of Global Education
 - 3.4.2 The Global Curriculum
 - 3.4.3 Standardisation
 - 3.4.4 Global Learning
 - 3.4.5 The Ranking of Institutions of Higher Education
- 3.5 Open and Distance Education
 - 3.5.1 e-learning
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 - 3.6.5 Quality Assurance Systems and Accreditation
- 3.7 Let Us Sum Up
- 3.8 Check Your Progress: Possible Answers
- 3.9 References and Suggested Readings

3.1 INTRODUCTION

In the preceding Unit, we have discussed the roles played by the Universities in shaping and developing the world, the ways in which universities helped evolve knowledge systems and how these knowledge systems contributed to the development of the social, economic and political systems across the world. Though the central theme of our discussion was planning and management of higher education, we have tried to place that discussion in the context of the role of the universities so that the issues of management are understood in the larger perspective of what the universities are expected to do, how they are organised and how they impact the growth and development of the societies they are expected to serve. Naturally, this discussion was focused on the specific country contexts though occasionally we addressed the issues on a regional basis as well.

But in today's world, a university is not something specific to a country. If the modern university was the product of the industrial revolution, the post-modern university is the product of the knowledge revolution that encompasses not just knowledge creation, but more importantly,

knowledge transmission as well. The last quarter of the 20th century saw the emergence of multiple sources to access, store and communicate knowledge and information. These new technologies impacted the processes of production and distribution of goods and services significantly across the world; in fact, they ushered in the era of economic integration across geographical territories and regional divides. The emergence of the services sector that overtook the manufacturing sector was the single most important contribution of the knowledge economy. The emergence of the knowledge worker demanded new ways of teaching, training and learning. Economic integration also involved standardisation of skills and competences across the world for the performance of different economic functions; the education systems are no longer focussing on the domestic market alone. They are called upon to prepare the globally competitive knowledge worker.

How do these developments impact the higher education system as we know it? What are the implications of globalisation on the curricular structure and content, management and administration, organisation of quality assurance systems, student mobility and international systems of recognition of qualifications? We shall try to look at some of these issues in this Unit.

3.2 OBJECTIVES

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

- *discuss* the role played by the global economy in transforming education;
- *explain* the role of higher education in the globalised world;
- *analyse* the pressure on higher education systems in the developing countries in terms of contents and processes; and
- *assess* the impact of ICTs on the transformation of educational processes.

3.3 HIGHER EDUCATION: CHANGING PERSPECTIVES IN A GLOBALISED WORLD

It would be worthwhile to begin with an effort to understand what “globalisation” is. Globalisation is a term with multiple widely-contested definitions and meanings. It is, generally, an umbrella term for a complex series of economic, social, technological, cultural and political changes, across the planet. The most appropriate description of globalisation is that it is a process of greater integration within the world economy, through movements of goods and services, capital, technology and (to a lesser extent) labour, which leads increasingly to economic decisions being influenced by global conditions. The outcome of globalisation is the increasing interdependence and interaction among people, organizations, and governments of different nations, driven by international trade, and made possible by innovations in information technology. The process of globalisation has not excluded education, which has had its deep impact on it world-wide.

3.3.1 The Knowledge Economy

The World Development Report, 1999 says “ For countries in the vanguard of the world economy, the balance between knowledge and resources has

shifted so far towards the former that knowledge has become perhaps the most important factor determining the standard of living – more than land, than tools, than labour. Today the most technologically advanced countries are truly knowledge-based” (World Bank, 1999).

Classical economic theories recognised labour and capital as the two factors that contributed to production of goods and services. Paul Romer, a Stanford economist proposed that technology, and the knowledge on which it is based, should also be considered as an intrinsic part of the economic system. Romer, best known for his theories about the dynamics of growth, believes that knowledge is the unsung hero of the growth game. Knowledge, according to him, became the third factor of production in leading economies (Romer, 1986, 1990). The implications of this theory were:

- Knowledge is the basic form of capital; economic growth is driven by the accumulation of knowledge;
- Technological developments create technical platforms for new innovations and this technical platform effect is the key driver of economic growth;
- Traditional economists focused on labour and capital. They believed in diminishing returns on investments that made growth unsustainable. Most developing countries with enough capital and abundant labour are not able to sustain their economic growth. Investments in technology, with its technical platform effect, on the other hand, raised returns on investments and sustained growth;
- In order to make investments in technology, a country must have sufficient human capital. Human capital is the formal education, training and on-the-job learning acquired by the workforce;
- A knowledge-driven economy is the one in which the generation and exploitation of knowledge play the predominant part in the creation of wealth. In the industrialisation era, it was machines that replaced human labour. Many people associate knowledge economies with the emergence of high-technology industries like telecommunications, financial services, etc.

Unlike land and labour, knowledge never gets depleted. Capital goods like plant and machinery have a life; they are subject to wear and tear. They need repairs and replacement. And they can be used by only those who own them. Not so with knowledge. Once discovered, and made public, knowledge continues to remain a public good; there is no additional cost to sharing it with other users, and there is no way for creators of knowledge to prevent others from accessing and using it. There is, of course, some protection available to creative work that constitutes intellectual property through copyright, patents, etc. But this protection is for the creative work, and not for the knowledge content that goes into the making of that work.

A significant consequence of the knowledge economy is that there is no alternative to creation of wealth except through learning and creation of knowledge. Knowledge gained from experience is just as good as knowledge gained through formal education and training. According to some proponents of the theory of economic growth, a country's capacity to become a knowledge economy depends on how quickly it can become a learning economy. Learning is not just about using new technologies to access knowledge; it is also about using those technologies to communicate with the rest of the world about innovations and new uses of that knowledge. In

today's world, driven by learning and knowledge, individuals, countries and economies create wealth in proportion to their capacity to learn and share innovation (Foray and Lundvall, 1996). Formal education, too, should become less about passing information and more about teaching people how to learn.

That brings us to another important feature of the knowledge economy: Life Long Learning. Continuous, lifelong learning is important not just for individuals, but for organisations too. A learning organisation is more likely to be competitive and in the forefront of innovations leading the market. A learning organisation is one that transforms its experience and the learning from that experience into its intellectual capital. It is unlikely that such knowledge would be available in any codified form, and therefore, more unlikely that it can be acquired through formal education and training. At the core of a learning organisation are the ability and the will of its people to discover new knowledge from their experience, disseminate such knowledge and promote a shared understanding of the possibilities that it opens up.

3.3.2 The Global Competition

Market is all about choice available to consumers and these choices are always influenced by competition among producers. In the knowledge economy, it is the human capital that provides the competitive advantage. In other words, it is not the physical assets, but the intellectual capital of a company that determines its value; the intellectual capital of a company like the Microsoft is way above the value of the buildings and equipment it owns.

Information and communication technologies are the enablers of change. They do not by themselves drive changes or transform societies; they can at best help knowledge creation and facilitate innovations. Indeed, ICTs are the tools that help realise the creative potential of people and the knowledge embedded in them in creative and innovative ways. ICTs open up global markets and foster competition. Consumers have now access to information about prices offered by all vendors of goods they want. As new markets emerge, prices tend to fall. Businesses now work 24x7. Competition is also fostered by the opening up of the market aided by the new technologies. To the extent companies are able to innovate and add value to their products and services, drawing upon the human capital at its disposal, they will be able to retain their markets or expand them. Global competition is well and truly joined by all players, big and small, and the knowledge creation and dissemination centres are at the centre of this extraordinary paradigm of global competition.

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 are the differences between traditional economy based on land and labour to that of knowledge economy? (answer in about 50 words).

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3.3.3 The Global University

One significant consequence of globalisation, brought about by technological developments, is that the world has literally shrunk, and as different countries, we are now closer to each other than ever before. Such proximity has brought with it tremendous rewards, but it also has brought serious challenges. Our networks of connections can quickly transmit great ideas and benefits, but, they also can rapidly spread controversy, conflict, disease and environmental ruin. Higher education, across boundaries and cultures, has a critical role to play in the context of globalization which has been reflected in numerous ways on the present education system and changing perceptions cannot be ignored.

Higher education has developed in numerous ways since the last few decades. Worldwide, issues such as autonomy and accountability, the impact of technology, the growing role of markets and the privatization of higher education, the role of research and teaching, various efforts toward curriculum reform, and the massive expansion that has characterized higher education systems in most countries, have all played important roles in the development of higher education. It is worthwhile to examine, in a comparative perspective, the contemporary challenges to higher education as most issues affect academe globally.

In the recent past, there has been a perceptible change in the thinking on higher education, a change brought about by the pressures of globalisation of knowledge and of the economy. Higher education systems across the world have to recognize the importance of thinking and acting globally. Those concerned with higher education need to have a better understanding of how education will be transformed by globalization and how it, in turn, can shape and manage the course of globalization. They need to examine how education, most broadly defined, can best prepare children and youth to engage in a global world and how a better theoretical understanding of globalization's multiple faces — economic, demographic, social, and cultural — can transform the world.

We have discussed in the previous Unit several world wide trends that are shaping the course of higher education in the post modern world. We do not propose to repeat them here. But it will be useful to flag a few points to place the present discussion in perspective. These are:

- The growth of *e-education*, the establishment of off-shore campuses of the world's best universities — in countries like India, China, Singapore, and the Gulf region;
- The inter-relationship between knowledge societies and the market, with the consequent changing perception that higher education is a "*commodity*."
- *Shift in higher education from the elite to mass higher education*, despite the fact that the largest part of the population, particularly in the developing countries, has facilities only for providing bare minimum basic education and post-secondary education.

According to Laurence Lau and Kwoh-Ting Li, the impact of globalization on higher education, in general, includes:

- Global competition for faculty, students and resources among leading universities;

- Global employment opportunities and labour mobility, presenting both competition as well as opportunities;
- Global consolidation of industries — expertise and know-how are more industry-specific than geography-specific, especially in manufacturing. For example, Cemex of Mexico invests in cement plants around the world; hotel chains now operate globally. In some service sectors, like the professions, there can be unique local knowledge requirements (e.g. law) or licensing requirements (e.g. law and medicine);
- Flow of new ideas across national borders and around the globe, almost instantaneously, via the internet and other vehicles;
- Accelerated rate of obsolescence of knowledge which means that what is taught and learnt at colleges and universities, becomes obsolete in less than a decade, and sometimes even faster in some fields;
- Increasingly it is necessary for people of different cultures and backgrounds to interact and collaborate with one another. The ability to communicate with mutual tolerance and respect is critical;
- The use of English for communication across the world is becoming increasingly widespread. This is known as the *network externality* — it is advantageous to learn a second language that is spoken by the largest number of people.
- Overseas exchange experience has become a must; to illustrate — Harvard University requires all its undergraduates to spend a year at an educational institution abroad. At the Chinese University of Hong Kong, every student, who wishes to spend a semester or a year outside Hong Kong, is assured that she will be able to do so.

3.3.4 Trans-national Education

We have mentioned briefly about the shrinking of the world, about universities moving out of their campuses and setting up teaching facilities in other countries and continents. This phenomenon, often called the globalisation of education, is the outcome of several independent, but inter-related developments. In the latter half of the 20th century, as a large number of countries gained freedom and independence from their colonial past, they were in urgent need of people with proper education and training to run their countries and their economy. Young people from these countries travelled to countries in Europe and North America for their higher education. As the cost of education went up, and the developed countries started charging full costs from overseas students, the provision of affordable education became an issue. Provision of distance education facilities was a significant step for the education of student from the developing countries who could enrol in programmes of overseas universities without having to travel and stay in those countries. Simultaneously, some universities also found it useful and, perhaps, more attractive to move in to some of these countries and set up campuses there, enrol students and teach them in their own countries. For the universities, it was a sure means of additional revenue generation, and for the developing country students, a more affordable means of getting good education.

As it happened, the ICT revolution was almost simultaneous. We have discussed how these technologies impacted the world. While the impact on the world economy was dramatic, it was no less on the world of education. Some of the reputed universities of the world began offering education to students of the developing countries by opening campuses in those

countries. Many such universities also mounted distance education programmes on a massive scale. Universities from Europe, North America and Australia also mounted massive efforts to “market” their education in the developing countries of Asia, Africa, Latin America, the Caribbean and the Pacific islands. “Education Fairs” and exhibitions were organised regularly on large scales. Specialised agencies were set up by the provider countries to recruit students and help them with travel and visa arrangements. Education turned into a global business. A part of this business was to offer education to students in their own countries.

Trans-national education was not without its ill-effects. While a large number of well-known institutions stepped in with the intention to help student who could not afford costly overseas education, there were also many operators who found a good commercial opportunity in this development. Several of them opened shops with the claim that they were representing overseas universities, recruited students, collected large sums of money as fees and then disappeared. These developments forced the governments of several countries to consider regulation of the entry and operation of foreign education providers. India is considering such legislation.

While exploitation of students with offers of attractive education abroad has to be dealt with legally, it is also necessary to encourage and support trans-national education as it serves a significant purpose in many countries and for their nationals. It needs to be emphasised here that trans-national education, also known as cross-border education, is not about exploitation. It fills a void in many countries; some of them have problems of infrastructure; some are too small to establish and maintain expensive infrastructure; some others have the physical resources, but do not have the human capital to sustain high quality education programmes. In such cases, the provision of educational opportunities by reputed world class institutions from across borders, indeed across continents, offers students in the developing countries access to high quality education at reasonable costs. Several international organisations encourage and support such cross-border education. For instance, UNESCO and the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) have formulated Guidelines for Quality Provision in Cross-Border Higher Education in which they describe cross-border higher education as *“higher education that takes place when students follow a course or programme of study that has been produced, and is continuing to be maintained, in a country different from the one in which they reside.”*

Cross-border higher education may include higher education by private and / or for-profit providers and may include, besides the conventional or open universities, media companies, multinational companies, corporate universities, networks of universities, professional organizations, and IT companies. Nearly all cross-border higher education is effectively for-profit in the receiving country. Even when the originating institution is a public institution in its home country, it must make “excess revenue” — or profit — on its operations in other countries, to sustain those operations. It is this imperative of making surplus revenue for sustaining overseas operations that often tends to blur the boundary between education as a social cause when the surplus is reasonable, and as a commercial interest when the providers are driven only by the profit motive.

The term ‘cross-border’ implies an acceptance of national borders; this, in turn, implies recognition of the roles and responsibilities of national governments not only to regulate the entry and operations of foreign

agencies / players within their jurisdictions, but also to take care of the national higher education system. National sovereignty over higher education has been reinforced by the General Agreement on Trade in Services (GATS) of the World Trade Organization. In their proposals, WTO categorises education as a service that has four modes of supply. These include (a) *consumption abroad*, where students travel to another country to study; (b) the *presence of natural persons*, which in academic terms means *visiting scholars or teachers*; (c) *cross-border supply* that is *distance education*; and (d) *commercial presence* which means *the establishment of branch campuses*.

Having said this, it would be useful to look at some facts about student mobility across borders for a proper understanding of the demand-supply gaps in higher education in the developing countries. For the developed countries, it is a source of additional revenue; for the developing countries, overseas education is a compelling need. Regional analyses reveal that “by and large, student mobility has been policy-driven in Europe and demand-driven in the Asia-Pacific region, while North America has mostly been a magnet for foreign students. Largely driven by institutions themselves, the revenue-generating mobility of programmes and institutions has been facilitated by institutional frameworks which grant substantial autonomy to higher education institutions and by the policies adopted by receiving countries. Cross-border education represents an important source of export revenue and is included in the GATS negotiations.” (OECD, 2004).

International student mobility to OECD countries has doubled over the past 20 years. In the mid-1990s, OECD countries received around 85 % of the world’s foreign students. Europe is the largest receiving region, but North America tops the list in terms of openness to other regions. Asian students represent 60 % of its intake of foreign students. Approximately 57 % of foreign students in OECD countries are from outside the OECD area. With 43 % of all international tertiary level students in the OECD area, Asia sends the highest percentage of tertiary-level students abroad, followed by Europe (35 %), Africa (12 %), North America (7 %), South America (3 %) and Oceania (1 %).

China, along with Hong Kong accounting for 10 % of all international students in the OECD area, has the most students abroad, followed by Korea (5 %), and India, Greece and Japan — each with 4 %. About 70% of all Asian students abroad, study in the three leading English-speaking developed countries — US, UK and Australia.

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 do you understand by globalisation of education? (answer in about 30 words).

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- ii) Why many developing countries require trans-national education? (answer in about 50 words).

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3.4 THE ROLE OF UNIVERSITIES

We shall now turn our attention to the changing nature of the role of universities in a globalised world. The world has changed fundamentally during the last few decades; there is now close integration of national economies. As a consequence, people today are pushed much more closely together, both in real and virtual space. People from many nationalities engaged in economic activities work and interact with each other even if they are from different cultures and backgrounds. As we noted earlier, with the emergence of knowledge and innovation as the key drivers of economic growth, the critical question is how can universities help shape the evolving landscape, and indeed, help shape the future?

3.4.1 The Shaping of Global Education

Tan Chorh Chuan (2009) recommends that universities can help shape the future in the following ways:

- By providing transformative global education, with a shift from preparing graduates for “a career-for-life” to preparing them for “*a lifetime of careers*”. This has profound implications for education, which has to become more broad-based, with a shift from narrow, specialized training for a particular industry. There has to be in-depth knowledge in one particular area ‘with sufficient exposure to a range of other disciplines. Critical thinking skills are even more important in this situation.’ Students also must ‘learn how to learn’ for continuing learning throughout their careers, and be able to periodically ‘re-tool’ or ‘re-skill’;
- Provide a balance of “training of the mind” with “developing the whole individual”. For this, universities have to firstly, carefully consider the right balance between “learning in the classroom” with “learning outside the classroom”; and, secondly, create co-curricular opportunities for the students ‘to go out of their comfort zone, to test themselves, to fail and to pick themselves up again’;
- Provide a shift from educating students for “local” settings to preparing them for global settings. The present world has shrunk in size and is much more interconnected. Therefore, to live effectively in this world, it is imperative that students learn to respect and value diversity. To be constructive members and leaders of the society, values, ethics and responsibility are important attributes nurtured in the university setting;
- Create a positive impact through high quality research and its application, and through thought-leadership; and
- Become more global institutions.

The effect of these critical shifts on the development of educational programmes is perceptible at the National University of Singapore. In the views of Tan Chorh Chuan (2009), essentially, the effort is 'to bring the world to students and to bring students to the world'. The undergraduate programmes, at NUS, are broad-based, multi-disciplinary and flexible, and also offer a wide range of options of increasing complexity and rigour. These include *double-major programmes*, *double-degree programmes*, and the University's liberal arts *University Scholars Programme*. The campus environment is diverse, with a large percentage of graduate and undergraduate students and, approximately, fifty percent of the faculty from overseas. About 50 % of the undergraduates will have some overseas educational exposure and about 20 % will get overseas exposure for a semester or more. In addition, there are about 40 joint and double-degree programmes with partner universities overseas, though some are located in the NUS, at Singapore, such as The Duke-NUS Graduate Medical School. Besides, there are also global education programmes.

Universities are no more reflect the common image of isolated ivory towers, they have extended to the world beyond their national horizon. Initially, scholars travelled far and wide in search of a student audience. Now, countless students are internationally mobile, in search of university degrees and cross-cultural experiences. Yet, globalization is a deeper and more profound phenomenon, implying integration into the world economy and extending far beyond economics, to include culture and politics.

The role of the university as an examining body has grown due to various reasons. With expansion, it has been necessary to provide even more competitive sorting mechanisms to control access to high-prestige occupations. The universities are also seen as *meritocratic institutions*, which can be trusted to provide fair and impartial tests to honestly measure accomplishment and, therefore, determine access. When such mechanisms break down, as they did in China during the Cultural Revolution, or in places where they are viewed to be subject to corrupt influences — as in India — the universities are significantly weakened. Entirely new areas of study have developed "where no sorting mechanisms existed, and academic institutions have frequently been called upon to provide not only training, but also examination and certification." (Tan Chorh Chuan, 2009).

Besides providing training, academic institutions test and provide certification for many roles and occupations in contemporary society. These roles have been central to universities from their origins in the medieval period, but, have vastly expanded in recent years. A university degree is a prerequisite for an increasing number of occupations in most societies. Indeed, it is fair to say that academic certification is necessary for most positions of power, authority, and prestige in modern societies. This places immense power in the hands of universities. Tests to gain admission to higher education are rites of passage in many societies and are important determinants of future success. Inter-country competition within the academe varies, but, in most cases an emphasis is also placed on high academic performance and tests in the universities. There are often further examinations to permit entry into specific professions. (International Issues in Higher Education - Expansion: Hallmark of the Postwar Era, Change and Reform: Trends since the 1960s).

Within the UK, there is evidence of policy and curriculum reviews to address global and sustainability concerns (Caruana and Spurling, 2007; UCL 2007; Lamie, 2006; Roberts and Roberts, 2007; Bourn, McKenzie and

Shiel, 2006; Dyer, Selby and Chalker, 2006). There is evidence from universities as diverse as Bournemouth, University College of London, Leeds Metropolitan, *et al* as also from elsewhere in the world, that universities are re-thinking their role in relation to the impact of globalisation and the environmental challenges of the twenty-first century (Abdi, Hannemann and Schultz, 2007; Corcoran and Wals, 2004; Carroll and Ryan, 2005; International Association of Universities, 2005).

The views on broader global responsibilities of higher education from the perspectives of Europe, the Middle East, and North America emphasises that in their efforts to globalize, universities should attempt to be responsible besides being responsive in their globalization efforts. This may be achieved by accepting responsibility for enhancing the development of higher education systems elsewhere, along with a broad commitment to enabling sustainable societies in all their facets — environmental, economic, and political. It also has been emphasized that universities were most effective and constructive when they were focused on their traditional roles of education and scholarship, within academic communities, based upon academic freedom and democratic processes.

These trends cannot be distanced from the recognition — by policy-makers, students, employers and increasingly by higher education institutions themselves — of the increasing impact of globalisation on people's lives. Coupled with the impact of global terrorism, recognition of the value of diversity, the concerns about climate change, and the need to invest in learning to live sustainably, global issues have never been higher on the agendas of policy-makers and practitioners in education. Certain terms like '*preparing students to be global citizens*' are becoming part of the vocabulary of higher educational institutions in the UK as also elsewhere in the world. (UCL, 2007; Richardson, Blades, Kumano, and Karaki, 2003; University of Hong Kong, 2007; Bourn, 2007). Such terms are also being increasingly debated in the discourses around globalisation and citizenship (Apple, Kenway, Singh, 2005; Kenway and Bullen, 2008; Edwards and Usher, 2008; Dower and Williams 2002; Dower 2003; MacIntyre-Mills, 2000; Urry, 2007).

The philosophy, at present, seems to be working with a range of partners to develop global networks that provide higher education with global perspectives, where having students studying on all continents is seen as diversification of perspectives, not of markets. (Paul Luker, 2006,) If the perception of 'internationalisation' or 'globalisation' is viewed within the framework of global perspectives, then the emphasis can be enhanced, based on collaboration and reciprocity. Experience, during the past few decades, proves that staff and student exchanges can help in this aspect.

'Internationalisation' could also be said to be about developing cross-cultural capability (Killick, 2006 b). Similarly, 'respect and tolerance among peoples...commitment to international solidarity, human security' and building a 'climate of global peace' (International Association of Universities, cited in Black, 2004) are identified as aspects of internationalisation that also contribute to the global perspective.

Providing graduates with opportunities to develop appropriate knowledge, skills and values for effectiveness in a globalised world would seem to be a necessary component of being 'world-class'. Graduates with a 'broader world view' will not only be attractive to employers (Archer, 2005) but, when they are empowered to challenge inequity, injustice and unsustainable development, they might also contribute to 'sustainable progress' for the benefit of all.

Developing a global perspective can enhance the learning experience; enrich campus life; and by maximising opportunities for cross-cultural learning, better prepare graduates for global employability (Shiel and Mann, 2005). This in turn, may affect recruitment, where the university is seen as more attractive to applicants. Besides, the benefits of developing a global perspective across all functions of a university are not only financial, but also intellectual and cultural. “*Global communities*’ enable greater reciprocity in learning and open up possibilities to ‘*learn, interact, and collaborate, in new and previously incomprehensible ways.*’ (Pillay, 2006, 1).

Demanding that universities be merely more international in outlook, would not suffice to serve the purpose; besides inter-cultural understanding or making reference to sustainable development, it has to promote debates and frameworks for ensuring a range of perspectives and approaches that are incorporated within courses and institutional activities. The case of the Bournemouth University, Leeds Metropolitan and Leicester may be cited in this context, as institutions that have progressed in this direction, and have been looking at the internationalization area, in the context of making connections to current social and educational needs and not only as a marketing or recruitment tool.

However, while having a more ‘global perspective’ may be supported, securing the endorsement that could lead to *curriculum change* is much more difficult to achieve. Shiel (2006, b) has suggested that whilst ‘the potential to bring about change through the learning experience we provide our students seems obvious,’ they need to be ‘equipped to face this challenge and to make a positive difference to the way the world functions’, and concludes that the ‘immediate challenge is to convince academics that their teaching should provide students with: (a) the knowledge, skills and values to participate in a global society; (b) opportunities to explore values, attitudes and the perspectives of others, (c) the opportunity so that they are empowered to challenge perspectives, enhance the sharing of ideas and perspectives, and (d) scope for the development of collaborative research.

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 is the difference you could observe between globalisation of higher education institutions and globalisation in commerce and business? (answer in about 50 words).

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3.4.2 The Global Curriculum

Curriculum is, perhaps, the most critical aspect of the education system to prepare students for the globalised world, and higher education sector is no exception. Curriculum, according to Knight (2000), is the most important element that defines internationalization of higher education as a process of integrating international perspectives into the teaching/learning, research

and service functions of colleges and universities (Knight, 1997).

Internationalization activities range from conducting international research in different countries to developing an all encompassing internationalization policy for the campus. However, how an international perspective is integrated within a university is dependent on individual interpretations of the term. Apparently, the institution's rationale for getting involved in internationalization, will determine the kind of policy and activities in which it engages, depending on whether internationalization is seen as a fundamental responsibility of the institution to prepare students to be active global citizens, or, whether it is seen simply as an economic venture.

Mestenhauser (1998) notes that universities should re-develop and reform their curricula if students are to have an international education. One of the major roles of institutions of higher learning is *to prepare students for global citizenry, to enable them to have an understanding and appreciation of the interdependence of people across social, political and cultural boundaries*. In the globalised world, the continuous shrinking of national borders means that students have to be trained to live and work within a global context, and the education they receive cannot be concerned only with national interests. An internationalized curriculum would have a strong focus on international approaches to subject matter, and would allow for exploration of the economic, social, cultural and political lives of people and societies within a global framework.

Developing a global perspective is seen essentially as broadening the curricula and incorporating pedagogic approaches that empower students to develop as *critical individuals*, who are able to challenge orthodoxy and bring about change. It involves a *'shift in approach, rather than a radical change of content'* (Shiel and Jones, 2005), and a focus on pedagogy that is more appropriate to the context of diversity (Shiel, 2007). This pedagogic approach aligns well with the internationalisation agenda, for those who perceive 'internationalisation of the curriculum' as more than mere inclusion of some international case studies.

Chris Shiel of Bournemouth University propounds that a global perspective contributes to enhancing the development of such skills, which facilitate students to be:

- *Self Reliant*: global awareness heightens self-awareness, confidence, the ability to respond positively and proactively to personal and professional change in today's globalised world. Increasing a sense of empowerment and ability to bring about change, are developed through a global perspective and relevant approach;
- *Connected*: global citizens work well as part of a team, recognising the value and role of each member, inspiring others and developing cross-cultural capability and sensitivity to others;
- *Well-rounded*: a graduate's range of skills can only be considered as well-rounded when they reflect the global environment in which we all operate;
- *Critical reflectors*: a global perspective requires a student to challenge knowledge, reflect on the economic, social and political contexts that shape experience, and adopt a critical perspective in analysis and decision-making, reflecting on self and others (Shiel, Williams and Mann;2005).

In the context of Bournemouth University, this conscious attempt to make connections between strands on internationalisation and sustainable development, along with the inclination to develop a strategy based on global perspectives, have already resulted in significant progress (Shiel, McKenzie, 2008). For example, curriculum change has been influenced through embedding global perspectives within the Learning and Teaching Strategy, and through the development of guidelines for course development and review. Simultaneously, 'extra-curricular seminars' provide learning about 'global issues', 'global processes' and 'sustainable development' and are particularly beneficial for those subject areas where such concerns are not easily addressed.

3.4.3 Standardisation

Many countries — especially in the developing world — do not as yet, have their own terminology, measurement tool, research methodology which are indispensable in certain areas of study — particularly in the fields of science and technology, and more so in the globalised world. In all fields of study, these aspects must be standardized to ensure effective communication. Globalization has compelled institutions to develop a higher degree of standardization, in the curriculum as also in admission procedures, administration, and the qualifications of the faculty. Transparency has resulted in institutions examining long-standing policies and practices in the light of international standards of equality of opportunity, professionalism and ethics in teaching and research (Narong).

3.4.4 Global Learning

Global learning is a term that is gaining increasing usage in the present day higher education arena. It first emerged in Germany and Austria, and was viewed by social scientists as the key to global learning, within the context of the challenge of globalization and the development of a vision for a 'humanely formed world society' (Scheunpflug, 2008; Hertmeyer, 2008). Similar approaches have recently been taken by some UK-based NGOs, notably the TIDE, in terms of perceiving global learning as 'responding to contemporary events and education visions of the 21st century. These visions were seen to value participation, a learner-based curriculum, and the viewpoint that the next generation will make a difference.'

With reference to sustainable development, it has to promote debates and frameworks for ensuring a range of perspectives and approaches that are incorporated within courses and institutional activities. The cases of Bournemouth University, Leeds Metropolitan and Leicester, may be cited in this context, as institutions that have progressed in this direction, and have been looking at the internationalization area in the context of making connections to current social and educational needs, and not only as a marketing or recruitment tool.

However, while having a more 'global perspective' may be supported, securing the endorsement that could lead to *curriculum change* is much more difficult to achieve. Shiel (2006, b) has suggested that whilst 'the potential to bring about change through the learning experience we provide our students seems obvious', they need to be 'equipped to face this challenge and to make a positive difference to the way the world functions', and concludes that the 'immediate challenge is to convince academics that their teaching should provide students with: (a) the knowledge, skills and values to participate in a global society; (b) opportunities to explore values, attitudes and the perspectives of others, and (c) scope so that students are empowered to challenge perspectives.

3.4.5 The Ranking of Institutions of Higher Education

Market forces, driven by global competition, have reshaped many aspects of higher education. Perhaps the best and clearest evidence of global competition in higher education is the recent popularity of worldwide *ranking of universities*. In general, reference to “rankings,” means both rankings in the American ‘news sense’ of the term, and what are known in Britain and elsewhere as ‘league tables’. The two terms are not interchangeable. Higher education rankings are often controversial and heavily debated in local, national, and, increasingly, international contexts.

Ranking approaches and systems, like higher education institutions, vary extensively and are often tied to the unique higher education context of a given nation. In general, however, each system or approach tends to include a similar logical set of elements. Rankings are increasingly being used as a measure of quality which may be defined in different ways and may be measured by a variety of indicators, depending on the perspective of the creators of ranking. Thus, the goals of ranking systems may differ by region, by the higher education system’s stage of development, and by the entity conducting the ranking. Given the impact on the structure of higher education systems throughout the world, as well as their role as a tool of accountability, it is essential to think about rankings within the context of national goals.

An attempt to understand rankings around the world reveals that both intra-country as also inter-country rankings — that is the traditional national systems that rank colleges within a country against each other, as well as the new variation of rankings that rank colleges across national borders — both compare institutions across a range of indicators, in a manner similar to that used with performance indicators. In the case of league tables, the indicators are then turned into a “score” using a specific weighting scheme.

Current methodologies exhibit various strengths and weaknesses, but, the inherent weaknesses of ranking methodologies often overshadow their strengths. In fact, the major flaw in rankings may be their continual changes in methodology. For instance, although institutions may not actually change in a significant way, ratings can fluctuate over the years, as rankers change the weights assigned to different indicators. Likewise, many ranking systems produce a single number that summarizes the overall ranking of an academic institution. This practice makes it difficult for students to distinguish among institutions based on the characteristics they find most important. Moreover, much of the objective data used in the rankings are self-reported by the institutions. Continuing such a practice without external validation of data, could lead to difficulties for rankings in the future, especially if institutions continue to perceive that rankings influence consumer behaviour (Betty).

Since 2002, global dialogues about higher education rankings have been on, with the involvement of the Institute for Higher Education Policy (IHEP). Subsequently, at the IREG-held third international meeting on rankings, organized by the Centre for Higher Education Development (Centrum für Hochschulentwicklung) in Germany, UNESCO-CEPES, and IHEP), in Berlin, Germany, in May 2006 — IREG participants — including representatives who work on the rankings published by the U.S. News & World Report, the Times Higher Education Supplement in London, Die Zeit in Germany, Asahi Shimbun in Japan, and leading thinkers from Russia, China, the Netherlands, and other nations — met to discuss how

ranking system methodologies might be enhanced in order to provide better and more detailed information to consumers. An important outcome of the Berlin meeting was the development of a framework for the elaboration and dissemination of rankings that ultimately will lead to a system of continuous improvement and refinement of ranking systems. The Berlin Principles for good ranking practices will be useful for the improvement and evaluation of rankings around the world as rankings practitioners continue to refine their methodologies.

Check Your Progress 4

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

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

- i) What steps can be brought in curriculum to provide perspective to it? (answer in about 30 words)

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- ii) How continuous changes in ranking methodology could effect students? (answer in about 30 words)

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3.5 OPEN AND DISTANCE EDUCATION

This is not the place to engage in a detailed discussion on the philosophy of open learning and distance education or its approaches to teaching and learning. As this course is all about distance education, we shall have dealt with these issues extensively elsewhere. We do however make a note of open learning and distance education in this Unit as a major instrument in the globalisation process of education.

From the London University's examination held across the world during the 19th century without any teaching by the university to the modern sophisticated, technology-driven distance education programmes, global education has evolved through the last century and a half to what it is today. In more ways than one, the evolution of global education is the story of distance education and its many forms and models. We shall briefly look at them here.

3.5.1 e-Learning

Geographical limits are being overcome by the most revolutionary and powerful tool in history for online learning, the Internet. The Internet has

widely democratized knowledge, linking people together. Classrooms in various parts of the national or international world can connect together and students can easily interact with their counterparts elsewhere in the world. An example of the use of the Internet in education is the ICONS (International Communication and Negotiation Simulation) programme at the University of Maryland, College Park, USA which enables students in that country to interact with students in other countries, using Web-based software. Students explore a range of global issues, assume the roles of decision-makers from other countries, and enter into online negotiations with groups of students representing other countries (<http://www.icons.umd.edu>). Other universities, likewise, are using technology to facilitate dialogues that help to achieve understanding between students and teachers from different countries in today's world torn apart by conflicts and acts of terrorism.

The *Global Virtual Faculty*, a unique feature of the Farleigh Dickinson University is another example of online learning facility. It is a global group of well-reputed scholars, professionals and experts, working in partnership with on-site faculty, to bring a global dimension to the issues being studied. The primary instructor is a campus-based faculty member, responsible for the syllabus, primary instruction and reading materials, assignments and evaluation. All communication and participation is online, and the GVF member's physical presence, throughout the interaction, is not required at all. For example, GVF participate in threaded discussions on course topics, present relevant narrative material or case studies, share observations on a presented paper, and direct students to useful Web resources. Each course that engages a GVF is a collaborative teaching effort. As an illustration, a philosophy student may examine how basic philosophical concepts like rationalism and empiricism are applied to forensic investigations, with a former head homicide investigator from Scotland Yard; or a student, in an e-mail exchange, discuss, the impact of globalization on Southeast Asia, with an economics professor from Malaysia; or participate in a Nobel Prize-winning literature course taught by an American instructor, with online contributions by an Arabic language and literature instructor from Egypt.

Though virtual online connections are invaluable, it must be borne in mind that they are a supplement to, and not a replacement for, the face-to-face communications and connections, that enrich life and learning. Whether the 'teaching-learning world' can overcome global challenges depends, to a large extent, on the manner in which educators use tools like online learning and how they school the next generation of global citizens.

Futurists expect that all facets of education will change due to the impact of globalisation and the internet. It is likely that, in the near future, increasingly all teaching-learning interactions will take place in an environment of truly interconnected globalization and in virtual classrooms. The production and exchange of knowledge will be affected by this globalization process. In this backdrop, pertinent questions include the extent to which educational institutions are free producers / users of knowledge; the ethical implications of commercially driven e-learning of higher education; the extent to which higher education institutions are free producers / users of knowledge on the web, who defines the quality; and last but of immense importance — will increased globalisation lead to a *homogenisation of available knowledge*?

In the context of globalisation, higher education may, gradually, cease to be considered a social activity. The ideal is replaced by the ideal of an efficient

preparation for jobs. Higher education becomes a ‘*commodity*’ and part of economic life. Consequently, more and more companies will consider higher education as an investment in people to perform better, and to improve the economic productivity in a particular region. (Dr Sylvia van de Bunt-Kokhuis, 2003).

3.5.2 The Mass Product

Instead of *knowledge*, *information* is the great mass product of the current economy and this affects higher education as well. Students have access to various unstructured information sources on the internet, and distinguishing relevant knowledge from unsorted information is becoming a challenge. Exclusive knowledge is growing increasingly scarce, and is likely to be expensive in the future. The current trend in the university libraries to replace the printed editions of journals and books by electronic editions is illustrative of this trend and reading materials on the shelves are becoming scarce.

A discerning student, on the other hand, has access to a variety of sources of information and knowledge. He/she can access what he/she wants, store and retrieve the data, analyse and interpret them and draw his/her conclusions. The new pedagogy of the electronic media has opened up vast possibilities for continuous, lifelong learning. The scale and scope of this learning are indeed massive. In fact, this potential of the media might make enrolment targets and ratios irrelevant in the future.

There could, however, be some adverse impacts too. Knowledge dissemination will increasingly be controlled by powerful developers and providers of ICT applications. In the near future, these developers and providers may obtain a powerful monopoly over knowledge production and knowledge distribution. Some universities may sign up with internet companies to develop free university websites, and the companies get the opportunity to use them for advertising and marketing purposes, through direct mailing to students and staff. Further, the availability of an increased quantity of information does not necessarily mean or guarantee an enhanced quality of information and knowledge. People are, in today’s world, used to getting multi-media information from different channels besides libraries, such as the television, mobile phones, internet, CDs, printed media *et al.* It does not follow that the world today is better educated.

Check Your Progress 5

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

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

- i) According to futurists, what would be the impact of globalisation and internet on education? (answer in about 40 words)

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ii) What do you understand by the mass product? (answer in about 40 words)

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3.5.3 Commercialisation of Education

In the coming years, the spectrum of education on the web might change fundamentally, due to the international trade agreements formulated by supranational organizations. The objective of the World Trade Organization's (WTO) agreement concerning trade in public services like the General Agreement on Trade and Services (GATS), considers public services such as health care and education as economic commodities. With the signing of GATS, and within its framework, higher education or educational curricula, *per se*, content and ideas get to be considered as *economic commodities*.

With the GATS negotiations on liberalisation of education and health care, and the United States, New-Zealand and Australia proposing a further liberalisation of education, increasingly more schools and universities have become privatised with consequent corresponding increase in costs. The available content gradually becomes a selection of commercial 'knowledge brokers'; it is difficult to foresee the extent of academic freedom of Education. Except for the United States, where the corporate-school relationship has a long history, knowledge was considered as a public domain and not an economic unit on sale.

In the past, educational institutions emphasised democratic values rather than corporate values. Education was considered as a social, cultural and ethical process. Only the general costs were calculated. These values, gradually, are being replaced by an educational commodity system, where students are considered '*human capital*'. In the commercial 'commodified' courses, students learn to choose, but, it is not a choice for values important in a society, and to the fulfilment of a human being. Increasingly, it is becoming a choice for an efficient product to acquire an effective career.

3.6 GLOBAL COOPERATION AND COMPETITION

Globalisation has ushered in a new paradigm of higher education in which there are many partners. What was once the exclusive domain of the liberal universities has now become a wider arena in which there are several players; business schools, industry, scientific academies, open universities and technology institutes besides an infinite variety of virtual universities and networks. Together, they have changed the paradigms in education and research, driven and enabled by rapidly evolving technologies like the Internet. The issue is no longer whether the range and variety of providers of higher education would lead to truly global education. The open university paradigm, best illustrated by United Kingdom's Open University, had already achieved a global span through the use of technologies and practices such as lifelong learning, distance education, open source and

educational resources, and peer production. Yet, it is disconcerting that many of the characteristics of global business such as standardization, networked resources and virtual organizations seem incompatible with the fundamental characteristics of contemporary universities, currently based upon highly customized, campus-based, and face to face educational experiences.

3.6.1 Open Educational Resources

We have just mentioned open educational resources. The term was first adopted at the UNESCO's 2002 Forum on the Impact of Open Courseware for Higher Education in the Developing Countries. It all started with a movement initiated by the Massachusetts Institute of Technology (MIT) when it announced in 1999 that its courseware would be available free to anyone who wants to use it. The Open Courseware (OCW) is a publication on MIT's website that makes the content, including video lectures, of all its courses freely available for use to anyone. The first batch of 50 courses was made available in 2001. In ten years, the number of courses available has gone up to 1950. The significance of this movement was that a critical input for higher education, high quality course content, has become freely available. Use of OCW does not mean that one is enrolled in MIT education; it does not grant any degree or certificate; and finally, it does not provide access to MIT faculty.

Open educational resources (OER) are digitised materials that are offered freely and openly to educators, students and self-learners to use and reuse for teaching, learning and research. These resources are extremely important for assisting developing nations to get online programmes up and running easily and quickly and within small budgets that they often work with. The benefits of OER include:

- Low or no cost to users as courseware is free to access and download;
- Shorter development cycles due to collaborative, parallel efforts by developers;
- Adaptability for use in different conditions.

The UKOU launched its own OpenLearn initiative in 2005 when it provided free access to its courseware. It now covers the full range of subjects and all levels of education. The richness of the self-learning materials delivered in a highly interactive, open source learning environment has made UKOU a leader in second generation open education resource provider. The major features of UKOU OpenLearn initiative are:

- Commitment to using open source software and standards to encourage reuse and remix even in remote parts of the world;
- Use of social software to connect learners in peer supported communities;
- Provision of structured study materials and easy-to-use software to help learners get the most from learning.

The OER movement is a shining example of global cooperation in widening access to high quality higher education. But in today's open and integrated world, competition has become central to the higher education sector. We shall now take a close look at the elements of competition in the world of education.

3.6.2 Global Competition in Education

In the foregoing discussion, we have had occasion to look at the features that characterise global education. Competition is surely one among them. In the last decade and a half, a new body of literature has emerged from studies that were undertaken to investigate the competitive elements in global higher education. Among the several outcomes of these studies is the notion of “academic capitalism”.

Academic capitalism has emerged as a compulsory response to sweeping globalisation. The term academic capitalism describes the phenomenon of increasing attention of universities and faculty to market potential as research impetus. Globalisation has efficiently linked prestige to research funding to marketability (Slaughter and Leslie, 1997).

In a paper entitled “Making the invisible hand visible: the case for dialogue about academic capitalism”, Susan Awbrey writes: “Academic capitalism is sweeping higher education. Although some institutions have been partially insulated by unique missions or large endowments, it (academic capitalism) is a growing phenomenon. At the institutional level, rewards now flow to the academic units that build external funding. There is an expansion of sales and service functions from branding and promoting logo emblazoned products to marketing web-based services. Campuses now resemble malls with recognisable private food and book vendors. Admission functions have become enrolment management as the pressure increases to compete for new students. More and more administrative responsibilities are pushed out to academic units. There is a decline in collegial governance with more important decisions being taken at the central level to respond quickly to external constituents. There is growing tension between academics and central administration”.

Susan goes on to say that there is hyper-competition between academic units for scarce resources. Fields close to the market, such as business and engineering, continue to gain more power and influence while those less close, such as the liberal arts, are losing influence. The salary differentials between faculty members in fields that can access external dollars, and those fields that cannot, continue to grow. Fields further from the market are also experiencing increasing teaching loads. The number of part-time faculty is increasing; less and less importance is being placed on the quality of undergraduate and graduate instruction as reward systems shift and the maintenance of external partnerships absorbs increasing amounts of faculty time.

The intensity of this competition is felt everywhere; the domestic markets are no exception. It needs no more research than browsing the newspapers or television screens that are full of advertisements claiming industry-linked curricula, good placement records, collaboration with one or more foreign universities, and so on.

3.6.3 Privatisation of Higher Education

The discussion on recent developments in higher education has unmistakably pointed towards the following trends across the world:

- Higher education is no more an elitist pursuit. It has become mass education, and the demand for wider access continues to rise across the world;

- Public funding of higher education is declining universally. As the search for alternate sources of funding continues, the options that emerge are establishment of private institutions of the 'not-for-profit' or 'for-profit' variety.
- Several countries including Indonesia, Malaysia and the Philippines are now encouraging the private sector to establish higher education institutions. In India too, several state governments have enacted laws to permit the private sector to establish universities though national policies in India do not support the "for-profit" sector in higher education.

In a recent report on private universities UUK, (Universities, UK), the umbrella group for Vice-Chancellors cautioned universities in the UK, and across Western Europe, about the increased competition they might face from the private sector. In its Report called "Private universities and public funding models and business plans", warns that for-profit companies are looking for developing their business in the UK and Western Europe. In some cases, they buy state colleges; in others, they work with them. Their teachers tend to concentrate on teaching undergraduates rather than carrying out research or supervising Ph.D.s. Because these colleges are small, they charge more and they have more tutors, many of whom might be part-timers. According to the Report, Western Europe is the only part of the world where state universities remain relatively unchallenged by private universities. But how the state universities would cope would depend upon how the governments in the UK and Western Europe respond to the challenges of private universities (www.guardian.co.uk/education/2008/sep/04/administration.highereducation).

The authors of the Report argue that with the growing curbs on public expenditure around the world and the rise in student fees and debt, it is natural to expect private higher education, not least the for-profit variety to continue to expand. For-profit companies have fallen foul of regulators for over-aggressive and inappropriate student recruitment and retention practices, symptoms of the pressures that these companies come under. The growth of private sector might change the nature of higher education too, for instance there would be less politics and student activism in the private sector institutions. Student protest are more likely to be confined to 'consumer issues' such as tuition fee rises; they would be concerned mostly with career advancement.

However, privatisation need not necessarily be the cataclysm of higher education that it is made out to be. The growth of private universities would encourage institutions to play to their strengths; and private institutions offered choice, expanded participation and responded to employer needs.

Check Your Progress 6

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

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

What are the serious implications of hyper-competition in globalised era?
(answer in about 40 words)

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3.6.4 Impact of Privatisation on National Policies

Governments that support privatisation will increasingly develop national policies that govern the role of the private sector in education. It is unlikely that this sector would be left entirely to be dominated by the market. There are several aspects of education that go beyond the simple patterns of production, distribution and consumption. For example, one most important outcome from an educational program is the qualification that one obtains and its value in the market both at home and abroad. Generally, an educational qualification serves two purposes: first, it is the basic block on which further education is based; and second, it is one's educational qualification that determines his/her suitability for a variety of jobs and occupations.

It is from this perspective that recognition of educational qualifications obtained from different institutions and from different countries assumes importance. In most countries, the qualifications awarded by the universities are recognised on the basis of reciprocity; each university accepts the qualification awarded by another for the next stage of education if (a) the university that awards the qualification is recognised within the home country, and is functioning according to its laws, and (b) the entry requirements, duration and the broad curricula of the programme that was followed for the qualification in question are comparable. These matters are decided by the universities themselves, and there is generally no external intervention in the determination of equivalence of qualifications.

Recognition for employment however presents several problems. There are too many agencies involved in the process. First, the concerned professional associations like those in law and medicine; then, the governments that determine the eligibility of people for employment in several sectors of the economy; and finally, the large number of industry, trade and professional organisations that employ millions of people at all levels. It is impossible for each of these organisations to establish its own mechanism to determine the equivalence of every qualification awarded by countless number of institutions across the world. In order to meet this problem, governments across the world are setting up what is known as the national qualification frameworks that specify the education and training preparation required of people who wish to be considered for employment in different sectors and at different levels. It is only those qualifications awarded by institutions that conform to the requirements specified in the national qualification frameworks that are accepted by the employing sectors.

That is not all. As we noted, in the global economy, mobility of personnel is all too important. In order to encourage and enable this mobility, acceptance of qualifications across borders is essential. This instrumentality serves two purposes; while it can enable mobility, it can also prevent mobility and migration. If the qualifications are not recognised, migrants will find it difficult to secure employment. In order to encourage mobility of personnel across borders, and to secure the rights of those who return from studies abroad, international organisations like the UNESCO have been trying to develop conventions for the recognition of qualifications among groups of countries. These conventions are negotiated at inter-governmental conferences on a regional basis, and the outcomes are then ratified by individual governments for validation.

How is all this relevant to privatisation, one might ask? The answer lies in the fact that national policies will require private institutions of higher education to conform to these requirements for recognition of their

qualifications. It means that their curricula, content, teaching and learning processes, assessment methods and so on will come within some regulatory system. What in reality happens is that within governments, the nature of regulatory systems might vary from tight control to self-regulation.

3.6.5 Quality Assurance Systems and Accreditation

The emergence of private institutions of higher education also brings into sharp focus questions about the quality of the education they provide. It is true that the issue of quality becomes a serious concern not just because there are many private providers, but because, at the fundamental level, higher education has become a mass enterprise. This is not the place to go over the entire issue of quality of higher education. Nevertheless, it is a significant concern in the context of large scale privatisation of higher education. We shall draw attention to some measures that will most likely figure in national level policies governing private institutions of higher education.

- In most cases, national level statutory mechanisms will be laying down the norms for quality and standards in terms of curricula, course content, teaching-learning strategies, teacher quality, infrastructure, and so on that all private institutions would be required to comply with;
- Policies would be in place that require all institutions to be accredited by agencies authorised by national level mechanisms to assess their facilities and performance of private institutions and accredit them for specified periods, and renew such accreditation at regular intervals after appropriate reviews and inspections;
- As we had occasion to mention earlier in this Unit, private institutions take many forms and are driven by different motives. For instance, there are private institutions driven by public good; there are no-profit institutions, and there are for-profit institutions. The place of each of these categories of institutions will depend upon the place that national governments assign to them in their policies. Generally, it could be expected that governments in most developing countries would not be in favour of for-profit institutions as the demand for places is very high and the chances of exploitation are indeed real.

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.

Why 'Quality' assumes greater concern in higher education? (answer in about 30 words).

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3.7 LET US SUMUP

The globalised world has severely affected higher education in every nation particularly in developing countries. This unit dealt changing perspectives of higher education, increasing competition and pressures of globalisation of knowledge and of the economy. It further discussed the changing nature of The role of Universities in globalised world – global curriculum, global learning, ranking and grading of institutions. The issues like open and distance education, e – learning, mass enterprise of higher education with commercialisation and privatisation and national policies. Privatisation is dealt at length in the unit.

3.8 CHECK YOUR PROGRESS: POSSIBLE ANSWERS

Check Your Progress 1

Knowledge never gets depleted like land and labour. Capital goods like plant and machinery-have a life and undergo, wear and tear, requires repairs and replacement and are used only by the owners of them whereas knowledge once created and made public good, anyone can use it without additional cost, and creators cannot stop usage by others.

Check Your Progress 2

- i) World is becoming a global village facilitating business, commerce, education across the nations. Universities moving out of their own campuses and offering higher education in other countries by opening teaching facilities in those countries and continents – is called as globalisation of education.
- ii) Many developing countries do not have necessary infrastructure for higher education; some are too small to have expensive infrastructure; some others have physical resources but do not... have high quality education programmes. These situations warrant reputed institutions from other countries/continents provide high quality education in the developing countries at reasonable costs. This education is known as trans-national education which is needed in many developing countries.

Check Your Progress 3

Globalisation of higher education has a major goal i.e. networking with various institutions across continents providing higher education with diversified global perceptions and thus preparing students as global citizens. Such students will be more suitable for global employability. Whereas globalisation of markets and commerce has a restricted view i.e. opening up markets to facilitate business and earn profits.

Check Your Progress 4

- i) The steps like the development of guidelines for course development and review; 'extra – curricular seminars' provide learning about 'global issues', 'global processes' and ' sustainable development' can be brought into teaching – learning strategy, to provide global perspectives.
- ii) As rankers keep changing the weights assigned to different indicators; because of this institutions ratings can fluctuate over the years, though

institutions may not actually change significantly. And many ranking systems produce a single number that sum up the overall ranking of an institution. This situation makes it difficult for students to distinguish among institutions based on the characteristics they feel most important.

Check Your Progress 5

- i) Futurists expect that education scene would undergo a change with globalisation and the internet. The major changes will be teaching – learning interaction through virtual classrooms; and posed questions like... Who are producers? Who are users? Who define quality? etc.
- ii) New pedagogy of the electronic media and bundles of information available to students as mass product affects the higher education as well. All printed words are replaced with electronic editions and making students to have access to various sources and retrieve and store as they want. This situation opens up possibilities of continuous and lifelong learning. The scale and potential of the media is massive.

Check Your Progress 6

The neck throat competition in globalisation is affecting higher education to such an extent that salary differentials of the faculty between subjects close to market economy and liberal arts is so glaring and faculty time is spent more on maintenance of partnership than teaching – learning process. Campuses are resembling malls with private food and book vendors rather than temples of learning which used to be in India decades back.

Check Your Progress 7

Quality and relevance is always a serious concern of higher education, it becomes more with emergence of private institutions/providers. The issue of quality gains further significance because higher education is increasingly becoming mass enterprise and large scale privatisation. Many forms of delivery like – conventional, distance, online etc. of higher education is also adding concern to the issue of quality.

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UNIT 4 MANAGEMENT OF HIGHER EDUCATION: SYSTEMIC LEVEL

Structure

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- 4.2 Objectives
- 4.3 Management of Higher Education: System Level
 - 4.3.1 Higher Education and the Government
 - 4.3.2 The Roles and Responsibilities of the Central Government
 - 4.3.3 Policy formulation and Implementation
 - 4.3.4 Legislation by the Central Government
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- 4.4 Apex Bodies in Higher Education
 - 4.4.1 University Grants Commission (UGC)
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 - 4.4.4 Other National Bodies in Higher Education
 - 4.4.5 Association of Indian Universities (AIU)
- 4.5 Structure of Higher Education
- 4.6 Let Us Sum Up
- 4.7 Check Your Progress: Possible Answers

4.1 INTRODUCTION

In the three previous units, we have surveyed the growth and development of higher education across the world. We began with India, and moved on to the developed and developing countries in general, and then looked at the emerging scenario of higher education in a highly globalised world. We have mentioned that in our discussions, the focus will stay on India, even as we try to address the issues in a global context in general, and the developing countries, in particular. In the following presentation, therefore, there will be more about Indian higher education, the instrumentalities and mechanisms for its management at the system level, and the agencies and their functions in the Indian context. We realise that the Indian example is very complicated and complex; not just because of its size, but also because of the variety and diversity of the players involved in the management of the higher education system in India. A broad acquaintance with this complex structure, we hope, will provide you with an insight into the working of large higher education systems in many parts of the world.

4.2 OBJECTIVES

After studying this unit, you should be able to:

- *identify* the roles played by governments at the central and state levels in the promotion and development of higher education;
- *analyse* the functions and responsibilities of different agencies at the national and state levels as well as their inter-relationships;

- *examine* the problems and conflicts that a multiplicity of agencies might cause in the functioning of the institutions of higher education; and
- *discuss* the nature and functions of funding mechanisms appropriate to different environments.

4.3 MANAGEMENT OF HIGHER EDUCATION: SYSTEM LEVEL

Education systems are very large and complex; often they comprise several sub-systems depending on their size and complexity. Structurally, three distinct levels are universal; primary education (also known as basic or elementary education), secondary education and tertiary education (higher education and all forms of further education beyond the secondary stage). Apart from these structural sub-systems, there could be other sub-systems within a specific sector; agricultural education, business studies, engineering education, legal studies, medical education, and so on. With over 430 universities and 20,000 colleges, and special agencies for each of its sub-systems, India presents a very complex picture for those concerned with the management of education. Since we are concerned with the management of higher education, we shall look at the system level management in the following sections.

4.3.1 Higher Education and the Government

In all the three previous units, we have had occasion to touch upon the role played by the governments in the management of higher education in different parts of the world. While the British pattern professes to buffer the universities from direct interventions of the government, the European model manifestly involves the governments in the management of universities. For instance, in France and Germany, universities are government institutions and their administration vests with the governments. The British model, on the other hand, insulates universities from direct interventions of the government. An agency like the University Grants Committee (which has had several incarnations during the last few decades and are presently known as the Higher Education Funding Council) buffers the universities from dealing directly with the British Government. Most of the Commonwealth countries follow the British pattern, and their models of management are shaped by the practices evolved by the British system. In what follows in this unit, we shall focus on the management of the Indian higher education system, and shall attempt to generalise this model in the developing country contexts.

We had mentioned earlier that the newly liberated countries had to face the challenges of building up their own independent education systems along with other economic, political and social systems. Interrelated though the developments in all these spheres were, all these countries realised that education was the key to the sustenance of their independence and sovereignty; they needed people who could guide their destinies, organise and manage their economic and political governance and structures, and engage in new ways of expanding and enlarging their economic and social infrastructure and processes.

As we noted earlier, India decided to be a sovereign Republic with a parliamentary form of democracy, governed by an elaborately laid down constitution that guaranteed freedom and equality for all its people. The country would be a union of states, federal in its character, with the states exercising legislative powers in a number of specified areas. Education was

basically a state responsibility though the union government had certain specified powers with respect to the coordination and maintenance of standards in university education, and in the administration of the universities and institutions established under the laws enacted by Parliament before independence. This dispensation changed some three decades later when education became a joint responsibility of the Centre and the States.

4.3.2 The Roles and Responsibilities of the Central Government

We discussed very briefly, in unit 1 of this Block, the role played by the Government of India in the growth and development of higher education in the country. Under the Indian constitution, the central government was mandated to perform the following functions:

- Coordination and determination of standards in institutions of higher education, research in scientific and technical education;
- Maintenance of institutions established by the central government (universities, libraries, museums and scientific and technical institutions, and
- Establishment and maintenance of institutions of national importance.

The performance of these functions involves the following:

- Policy formulation and implementation;
- Legislation; and
- Funding.

At the operational level, the performance of these roles requires that

- The centre sets the standards and ensures that they are maintained. Since standards of education are functions of several variables like physical infrastructure, content and structure of programmes of education, quality of teachers and teaching methods, criteria and standards of student assessment and so on, the central government has to regulate all these aspects in the field of higher education. And this regulatory role extends to all of the functions of all the universities and other higher education institutions.
- The core issue of coordination involves two major concerns; the first is that certain facilities have to be developed and maintained as national facilities available to all irrespective of the state in which they are located, and also irrespective of the states from which students come (post-graduate education and research in highly specialised fields that cannot be created in all universities, for example), and the second has to do with the content, structure and standards that have a broad measure of compatibility across all institutions so that questions of equivalence, etc. are settled with ease.
- Establishment of new institutions where local facilities are inadequate and the state governments do not have the resources to do so.
- The central government which is responsible for planned development, and therefore is the dispenser of resources, has to ensure adequate funds are allocated to the states for education.
- Finally, as the central government, it has to assume the responsibility for formulation of the national policy, priority for various sectors within education, and the blueprint for action in the future that will guide the states in their efforts in the field of education.

4.3.3 Policy Formulation and Implementation

As we mentioned earlier, education in India is the joint responsibility of the centre and the states. It is therefore essential that national policies in education are formulated with the full participation of all the states and reflect a broad measure of consensus on all issues of concern to all. The landmark of the Indian nation is its pluralism; it is a nation of many religions, languages and cultures. The Indian education system reflects all the diversities that India is home to, and therefore, the widest possible participation in the formulation of its education policies is a vital concern.

Before independence, the British government had established a Central Advisory Board of Education (CABE) that consisted of representatives of the British Government and the many princely states that had acceded to the Empire. After independence, this Board was reconstituted as a body chaired by the Union Minister in charge of education and all Education Ministers of all states. There are in addition several members who represent a broad spectrum of stakeholder interests like universities, professional bodies, chambers of commerce and industry, trade unions, research councils, educationists, and other eminent persons representing various interests. This body meets as often as necessary, and at least once a year. Its major responsibility is to review the developments in education, review progress, propose new reform measures and recommend such other policy initiatives as are necessary from time to time. The recommendations of this Board have a broad measure of acceptability across all interests and therefore policies evolved around those recommendations are generally binding on all sections and interests in the country.

We have discussed some of the major policies evolved since independence in Unit 1 of this Block. We do not wish to repeat them here. In what follows, we shall briefly deal with the implementation of some of the major policy initiatives in higher education.

One of the major initiatives taken soon after India became independent was the establishment of the University Grants Commission (UGC). This body was set up on the model of the UGC in the UK; several other countries of the Commonwealth had set up such bodies as they became independent (Sri Lanka, Pakistan, for example). The primary purpose of this Commission is to coordinate the development of universities, set the standards of education, provide funding to the universities, etc. The UGC in India, since its establishment, has been instrumental in promoting university education, coordinating their development, supporting them in creating new facilities for research, introducing new programmes in emerging areas of studies and research, improving the quality of teaching and research as well as the service conditions of teachers and, not the least, improving the conditions of governance of universities in the country.

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 are the main concerns to be kept in view while formulating education policies in India? (answer in about 40 words)

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4.3.4 Legislation by the Central Government

All legislative powers vest in the governments, and their law-making institutions. In most parliamentary democracies, law-making falls within the sphere of their parliaments. In India, the first major legislation in education was the establishment of the UGC under the UGC Act in 1956. The UGC Act requires that a university, or any other institution, that has the power to award degrees, should be created under an Act of the legislature, the parliament or any other legislative assembly of a state (the UGC Act has a provision to recognise certain institutions as degree-giving institutions even if they have no legislative sanction behind their establishment).

According to the Indian constitution, education was a state subject, and establishment of universities was reserved for the state governments. The central government had no power to set up universities except when legislative assemblies of two or more states asked the central government to do so through resolutions adopted in their legislatures. However, it was open to the central government to establish institutions of national importance through parliamentary enactments. The Indian Institutes of Technology (IITs) and some highly specialised institutions in the fields of medicine were set up under this provision.

The amendment to the constitution in 1977 altered this situation. The union government could establish universities under parliamentary enactments. In the last two and half decades, parliament has adopted laws to establish several universities; beginning with the Indira Gandhi National Open University (IGNOU) in 1985 to the most recent legislation to establish one central university in each state of the country.

There were other important legislative measures too; notable among them are:

- Establishment of the All India Council for Technical Education (AICTE) for the planned and coordinated development of technical and management education. The AICTE has been in existence before independence, but it functioned only in an advisory capacity. Converting it into a statutory body empowered the AICTE to perform its functions with legislative sanction, and also enabled it to assume many regulatory functions like ensuring quality and standards of education, improving the infrastructure, developing faculty, and, more importantly, checking the proliferation of ill-equipped technical education institutions that exploited the ever-increasing demand for professional education.
- Similarly, the National Council for Teacher Education (NCTE) set up in 1993 under an Act of Parliament conferred statutory status to an advisory body with the same name that has been functioning since the early 1970s. As in the case of engineering and management, teacher education too demanded undivided attention with the phenomenal expansion of school education and the constantly rising demand for trained teachers. Mushrooming of sub-standard teacher training institutions needed to be checked; norms and standards for good quality teacher education had to be set; and systems and processes had to be put in place for setting up new institutions and monitoring the performance of the existing ones. The new legislation made it all possible.

- There are a number of statutory bodies in professional fields like law, medicine, nursing, pharmacy, dentistry, etc. The functions of these bodies are primarily regulation of the concerned profession and prescribing the standards for entry in to those professions. For instance, those who wish to practise medicine need to register with the Medical Council of India, and those who want to enter the legal profession as a practising lawyer need to enrol as advocates with the Bar Council of India. Same is the case with other such professions. The requirement for registration, among others, includes completion of a prescribed professional education programme. This means that institutions that wish to offer medical, legal and such other education programmes need to obtain the approval of the concerned statutory body before they can enrol students. Without this approval, students who complete the programmes will not be eligible to become members of the concerned profession.

You will notice that there is a multiplicity of agencies involved in higher education. Any university that offers programmes in all major areas of studies will have to deal with a number of statutory bodies, and often need to spend considerable time and effort in satisfying them that they have the physical infrastructure, qualified and competent faculty and other resources including facilities for practice sessions. This can be quite a time consuming and frustrating experience for many institutions. The creation of a unified authority at the national level to perform all these functions has been under discussion for the last four decades. The 1986 National Policy on Education, in fact, made a call to establish a National Commission for Higher Education and Research as an umbrella body to deal with all higher education including general, technical, legal, medical and other professional areas. Twenty-five years after this policy was announced, some definite move was made recently to enact a law to create the proposed National Commission for Higher Education and Research. However, it has still to come before Parliament as there is no unanimity among all the central agencies dealing with these subjects on a unified authority. The Ministries of Education, Health and Law are still waging a determined battle to protect and preserve their territories; the primary reason why such legislation did not become a reality.

The complexities do not end there. Under the Indian constitution, agriculture is a state subject. There are several agricultural universities in the country, all established by the concerned state governments. Many of them are doing excellent work. But, there is no central statutory agency to oversee their coordinated development. The central government cannot legislate in the field of agriculture. There is, however, an Indian Council of Agricultural Research (ICAR) that coordinates research in agriculture and supports agricultural universities in their research efforts. The agricultural universities, including those other institutions engaged in agricultural education and research, are in some ways functioning under the guidance and standard-setting norms of the ICAR.

It would be appropriate to mention a few other legislative proposals that are currently under serious consideration. We have made a brief mention of these proposals in unit 1 while discussing the problems and prospects in higher education in India. All these have their origin in the 1986 National Policy on Education. These are:

- The Education Tribunal Bill
- The National Accreditation Regulatory Authority for Higher Educational Institutions Bill

- The Foreign Educational Institutions (Regulation of Entry and Operations) Bill
- The Prevention of Unfair Practices in Technical Educational, Medical Educational and Universities Bill

We mentioned these legislative proposals in Unit 1 (see section 1.5.4).

Check Your Progress 2

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

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

Why central agencies don't accept on unified authority for higher education including – general, legal, technical, medical etc.? (answer in about 40 words)

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4.3.5 Legislation by the State Governments

Till 1977, all legislations in the field of education except those concerning university standards and coordination as well as those relating to central institutions was the exclusive responsibility of the state governments. The 1977 amendment did not materially alter the situation except that state laws could not be in contravention of any central legislation. In other words, the state governments continue to enact laws in education, and since all universities have to be established by law, university legislation continues to be the primary responsibility of the state governments.

Till about the 1970s, there was a separate Act that governed each university. As the number of universities increased, and the issues involved in university governance grew in complexity, several state governments enacted consolidated laws that governed a number of universities. This consolidation helped in ensuring uniformity in the more general aspects of university governance and administration; it also helped in easing the time-consuming processes associated with legislative processes involved in making even minor amendments to any existing legislation.

Apart from those relating to the establishment of universities, there are several enactments at the state level that are significant in the area of higher education. Briefly, these are:

- Regulation of Private Colleges. As we mentioned elsewhere, there are a very large number of private colleges in the country. Though they do not award degrees or prescribe courses, they are primarily the vehicles through which higher education programmes are delivered. The number of government colleges is very small, and they are all administered in the manner in which government business is transacted, private colleges enjoy a degree of freedom in such crucial areas as admission of students, charging of fees, appointment of teachers and other staff and payment of their salaries. A very large

number of the private colleges get state grants for their maintenance. The general pattern followed in providing government grants is “cover the deficit”. That is, the gap between the total expenditure and income is met by the government grants.

As these grants, in the aggregate, involved a huge outgo from the state exchequer, the governments had to ensure that they were utilised fairly and properly. The state governments had to ensure that teachers’ salaries were settled at a uniform rate and paid in full, qualifications for recruitment and other conditions were the same for all teachers and other staff, student admission practices were consistent with state policies, and fees levied were just and fair. In order to ensure that these concerns are adequately met, most states have enacted laws covering all these aspects through one or more legislations. It would be worth mentioning here that framing of these laws and their enforcements had often resulted in major tensions in the relationships between the governments and the managements of private colleges, and quite expectedly, in protracted litigations between managements of private institutions and governments.

- We mentioned earlier that, in the last two decades or so, a new pattern of private higher education provision has evolved in India. This pattern is reflected in the emergence of what is generally known as the system of “self-financing colleges”. In theory, it meant that these colleges did not depend on any financial support from governments. They functioned on the principle of full recovery of cost from the beneficiaries. The cost of higher education in India was very nominal for the students; the recovery of cost was never more than a single-digit percentage of the full cost. Suddenly, the self-financing colleges began to ask for 10-20 times more than the average fees that students were paying. But the demand for seats in professional education colleges (engineering, education, medicine) was rising so fast that students and parents were prepared to pay any fees if only they were assured of admission. It was not just those in India alone; there were many from other countries as well including the children of Indians settled abroad. The cost was not a big concern for them. Private investors found a new avenue for making profits; allegations of malpractices and charging of capitation fees followed. Governments had to step in and enforce a semblance of justice and fairness. New laws were legislated by several state governments for the prevention of what was called “unfair practices”. A new central law that is being considered by the central government will now deal with these issues.
- In more recent times, there has also been a trend in the creation of private universities. Since universities have to be created by law, there has to be legislative backing for every university. A private university therefore is strictly ‘oxymoron’. Nevertheless, corporate and individuals have come forward to establish universities and run them without state finances, if only they get the legal backing. Several state governments responded with the enactment of enabling laws under which two or more separate universities can be established by private agencies within their states without any financial support from the government (in most cases, they expect the governments to provide them the required land at no cost or at a nominal price). The umbrella legislation, of course, sets out the regulatory framework for their operations including governance, accountability and adherence to the statutory regulations on academic standards, quality of the education provision and academic audit of performance.

- Following the 1986 National Policy for Education that called for the establishment of a state level mechanism for the coordinated and planned development of higher education within each state, many state governments have set up State Councils of Higher Education. The primary responsibilities of these Councils include preparation of state level development plans for higher education, allocation of development outlays among all universities and colleges, determination of maintenance grants to all state universities and colleges within the state, coordination of development work with the central agencies like the UGC, AICTE, etc. and performing the general supervisory role of the state governments in higher education. All these Councils have been established as statutory bodies through state legislation.

4.3.6 Funding of Higher Education

The finances for higher education come from a number of sources. Government grants are the major sources of education finances in India. Let us take a look at some of the facts.

A Committee of the Central Advisory Board of Education (CABE) on Financing Higher and Technical Education, in a report submitted in June 2005 noted that there have been grave deficiencies in the investments in higher and technical education in India. According to the Committee, the overall expenditure on all education was just about 4% of the GDP; of which the share of higher education was just 0.5% (about Rs.12,500 crores). Since 1966, education policy makers have been demanding that the public expenditure on education should be at least 6% of the GDP. This demand was first made by the Education Commission (1966) and was reiterated in the National Policy on Education in 1986. But as the CABE Committee says this goal is still a distant dream.

What was the impact of this shrinking investment in education? According to the CABE Committee, the spending on higher education per student declined by about 30% between 1990-91 and 2002-03. The results were obvious: faculty deficiencies, infrastructure inadequacies, poor support for research and declining student support through scholarships. One must also remember that all this while enrolments were going up, new institutions were being established and new areas of studies were being added. The Committee's recommendation, predictably, was to step up public outlay on education to 6% of the GDP and to ensure that the allocation for higher education goes up to 1.5% of the GDP (about Rs.38,000 crores).

There are several major ideological and policy issues involved in addressing this concern. Obviously, the resources at the disposal of the government are not unlimited; there are limitations to raising revenue through increased taxation. The choice, therefore, is to look for alternate sources of funding; enhanced recovery of costs and more private funding. Both have ideological underpinnings. Can the government, committed as it is to equity and justice, afford to be guided entirely by market forces? Can it leave education entirely to the whims of the market? Let us look at some of the issues involved.

- The percentage of poor people in India is estimated variously between 30 and 40 per cent. These are the people below the poverty line, living on less than two dollars a day. An equal number of people, though they can manage their subsistence, have no means to send their children to universities and colleges without financial support. Therefore, increasing fees for higher education (reasonable recovery of cost) is not

an easy option. The argument that it is the responsibility of the government to provide for their education continues to prevail.

- Private participation is encouraged; but profit is not. There can be no private investments unless reasonable returns are available. The government, however, is strongly against commercialisation of education. It hopes that philanthropy should be the guiding factor behind private investments; a hope that is perhaps too unrealistic.
- It is not as though there are no private players in Indian higher education. They are prepared to make investments provided that they have some stake in those investments. Those areas of education that have significant demand from the public like engineering or medicine, for example, do attract private investors. The CAGE Report (2005) mentions that currently about 85% of all engineering colleges in India are privately run self-financing institutions (functioning without state finances). Similarly, the proportion of medical colleges is also large though not as high as engineering colleges (medical colleges require hospitals for clinical practice for students). Though they are prohibited from making any profit, such professional education institutions continue to attract private investments; Business Studies is a new entrant to this category of private educational institutions. A recent Supreme Court judgement has explicitly banned profit; but has permitted generation of surplus provided it is ploughed back in to the institution for its development.
- There are the impacts of state policies as well. As a means to curb profiteering, several state governments have assumed, through legislation, to regulate the levels of fees charged by private institutions. The fees cannot go beyond the levels prescribed by the governments; there are different levels of fees for different categories of students. For instance, students from the state in which a private college is located pay the same fees that public-funded institutions in that state charge their students; students from outside the states pay a higher level of fees and students from outside the country pay a still higher level of fees. Beyond fees, there are other constraints as well; state governments require that the private colleges fall in line with state policies on quotas for admissions and appointments as well.
- In spite of this none-too-friendly environment for private investments, higher technical education is still a fertile market for private investors. They often resort to unfair practices like raising money by selling seats, collecting capitation fees in the garb of donations, and acquiring precious land that they use for non-educational purposes as well. The result is that the government is caught between the devil and the deep sea; it supports private investment, but cannot permit legitimate returns on those investments.

4.3.7 The Mechanism of Funding

Having looked at the larger issues of funding higher education, we shall now turn our attention to the ways in which the central and state governments fund the higher education institutions. As we noted earlier, all universities are government creations and therefore, they owe it to themselves to ensure that they perform their functions. The governments therefore make the funds available to them to meet their expenditure on an annual basis. Salaries are the largest single component of the annual expenditure of any educational institution; it goes as high as 95% of its total

revenue expenditure. Other teaching costs vary from institution to institution; the trend is to contain these costs to the extent possible to manage the annual budget. This effort often results in poor maintenance of the infrastructure, inadequate library and laboratory facilities, non-availability of student scholarships, and so on. The annual expenditure in any year is assessed in terms of the levels of expenditure reached in the previous year with an incremental cost (often very nominal) to set the budgetary ceiling for that year. The funds so settled for each institution are then released in appropriate instalments. This annual funding is known as the maintenance grants.

The central institutions established by the Government of India are all fully funded by the Government. The funding comprises both maintenance and development grants. Maintenance grants are the annual recurring grants from which expenditure on salaries and other revenue expenditure is met. The grants are determined generally on the basis of “cover-the-deficit” method, that is, by meeting the full expenditure after adjusting all income (fees and other miscellaneous receipts). Development grants, on the other hand, are those required by institutions to undertake new activities like launching of new courses and programmes, expansion of enrolments, creation of additional infrastructure (classrooms, libraries, laboratories, appointment of additional teachers and staff, etc.). The additional expenditure involved on these efforts are initially approved in advance and the expenditure provided separately in the budget and then made over to the institutions. After a period of five years (this period is reckoned on the basis of the termination of the relevant five-year development plan), this addition becomes part of the maintenance grant.

The Government of India does not directly disburse the grants to central universities. These grants are routed through the UGC. The UGC is represented on the Finance Committees of the central universities, and through this mechanism, it maintains a close watch on the financial state of the universities. In the case of certain institutions of national importance like the IITs, for example, the grants are directly disbursed by the central governments.

By and large, this pattern is also followed by all state governments. However, since the institutions are much more in numbers, and include both universities and colleges, the administration of grants is very complex. Generally, each state has both Directorates of Higher Education and Technical Education/Medical Education. Some have Councils of Higher Education also. Councils of Higher Education generally deal with the universities while the Directorate of Higher Education concerns itself with colleges. Their representatives sit on the Finance Committees and monitor the expenditure. Once grants are determined, the disbursements are made by the Council or the Directorate concerned. Since the number of institutions is very large, the volume of grants disbursed by all the state governments together adds up to a much larger amount than those paid by the central government to its institutions.

State universities and colleges also get development grants from the UGC. These grants are determined during each plan period on the basis of the development proposals made by the state universities and colleges and approved by the UGC. The grants approved by the UGC for development are paid for a period of five years from the commencement of each project, and thereafter it is added to the maintenance expenditure met by the state government concerned. Before sanctioning any development grant, the UGC

requires each university/college to provide an undertaking from the concerned state government that the additional expenditure flowing from those projects would be assumed by them as part of the maintenance grant.

It would be useful to draw attention to an important aspect of funding research at this stage. Though universities are the principal agencies for teaching and research, funding of research in universities has never been adequate. The reasons are many; soon after independence, the Central Government decided to constitute a Council of Scientific and Industrial Research (CSIR) in the country. The intention was to focus intensely on scientific research as the universities were too preoccupied with their teaching responsibilities. A chain of 45 of science and technology laboratories were set up across the country; they focused on areas that were relevant to the country's development. The emphasis was on applied research as against pure research that universities were generally engage with. As the objective of this initiative was very crucial to the development of the country, it also attracted liberal funding. These research centres grew up very fast and established high standards of research in applied areas. But they unwittingly drained the universities of their precious resource- competent research faculty. In some ways, the nation's gain was at the expense of the universities, at least in terms of research strength and output. It needs to be added here that these research establishments work in close cooperation with the universities and are training a large number of graduates for their Ph.D. programmes offered by the universities.

Similarly, in the area of social science research too, a chain of research centres emerged at the beginning of the 1970s when the Indian Council of Social Science Research (ICSSR) was established as a funding mechanism to strengthen research in the humanities and social sciences. Some 30 Research Institutions emerged in different parts of the country, many with the researchers drawn from the university system. Research did get the expected boost, but not the universities.

Check Your Progress 3

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

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

- i) What is the main reason for poor maintenance of infrastructure and other support services to students? (answer in about 40 words)

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- ii) What do you understand by development grants to universities? (answer in about 40 words)

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4.4 APEX BODIES IN HIGHER EDUCATION

While discussing the roles of the central and state governments in the previous section, we mentioned that they have set up several bodies for the performance of one or more functions that fall within the broad framework of the government's supervisory role in the area of higher education. In what follows, we shall make a brief overview of how they are constituted, what they do in higher education.

4.4.1 University Grants Commission (UGC)

The establishment of the University Grants Commission in India, on the pattern of the British UGC was recommended by the University Education Commission in 1949. The need for establishing the UGC was expressed by the Commission in the following terms:

- A commission for allocating grants to universities from the Central Government is fundamental to the improvement and development of universities in the country;
- Such a body should consist of experts and representatives of government. The political decision on policy and resource allocation require, for their execution, experts who have the knowledge and the experience;
- It should be the responsibility of such a body to create and develop facilities for advanced research in the universities;
- There is need for coordination of facilities, in special fields, since it may not be possible all facilities in all universities;
- There should be constant liaison between universities and national research laboratories;
- Such a body would be able to recommend policies to be adopted by the central government from time to time;
- It should be the responsibility of such a body to ensure the minimum standards of efficient administration in the universities.

These recommendations were accepted by the government and a University Grants Commission was established in 1956 under an Act of Parliament. The Commission consists of a full-time Chairman and a full-time Vice-Chairman, and ten other members. These ten members include two officers of the government, university teachers, members of the learned professions, and Vice-Chancellors, all appointed by the Central Government. The major functions of the Commission are:

- Promotion and coordination of university education;
- Determination and maintenance of standards of teaching, examination and research;
- Allocation and disbursement of grants to the universities from the funds given to it by the central government;
- Advising universities on measures for improving university education;
- Advising central and state governments on matters relating to university education.

During a period of more than half a century of its establishment, the university system in India expanded phenomenally. We gave you a broad overview of this expansion in unit 1. We also drew attention to the many problems and challenges arising from this growth and expansion. We shall now turn to the ways in which the higher education management system in India addressed these problems and met those challenges. This is not the place to go into an exhaustive survey of all the major developments across half a century; we shall confine ourselves to the major issues that could be identified with particular phases of development.

The most significant among these were the issues posed by expansion. In the first two decades after independence, there was a major expansion. But it became evident that the economy could not absorb all the manpower coming out from the universities; there were other national problems too – food shortages, problems of challenges to the country's security, and so on. There were not enough resources to meet all these challenges. The expansion of higher education had to be contained. The UGC, with the approval of the Central Government decided to regulate the establishment of more universities by insisting, through regulations that no central assistance would be available to universities that were set up with no previous sanction of the UGC. While this policy continued through the 1970s and 1980s, the UGC focused attention on improving the quality of education provided by universities and colleges by strengthening their infrastructure and supporting the growth of centres of excellence in education and research.

This pause in unplanned growth gave rise to a new phase of development in which attention focused on enduring measures for improving the quality of the higher education provision. Significant among them are:

- The UGC Act was amended in early 1980s to make a provision that empowered the Commission to create common facilities and services that universities across the country could draw from. These included a common facility for research in nuclear science, an Inter-university Centre for Advanced Studies and Research in Astronomy and Astrophysics, Inter-university Consortium of Atomic Energy facilities, a Consortium of Educational Communications providing electronic media support for higher education, and an Information and Library Network.
- Over 30 selected universities were designated as Curriculum Development Centres for continuous review and renewal of the content of academic programmes in most disciplines. Similarly, some 48 designated university departments were developed as Academic Staff Colleges for training university and college faculty on a continuing basis.
- The last three decades marked a revival of expansion. With the national economy registering high growth and the expansion of employment opportunities, the demand for higher education rose rapidly. The segment that witnessed the highest rate of expansion was professional and technical education in which universities played the major role (we have looked at this phase elsewhere in this unit). The establishment of a National Assessment and Accreditation Council (NAAC) by the UGC to assess and accredit universities and colleges, though on a voluntary basis, was a major breakthrough during this phase.
- The UGC itself expanded considerably. It set up five Regional Offices to maintain close liaison with the growing number of universities and colleges in all the states. The Regional Offices became contact points for

collection, compilation and dissemination of information, monitoring the progress of projects funded by the UGC, and instruments for improving the efficiency in the functioning of the UGC.

Management of Higher
Education: Systemic Level

4.4.2 All India Council for Technical Education (AICTE)

The All India Council for Technical Education was set up in the late 1940s as an advisory body for guiding the development of technical education facilities in India (these areas cover engineering, technology, management, architecture and other related fields). The AICTE is chaired by the Union Minister in charge of technical education, all state Ministers dealing with technical education, a number of educationists and experts in the relevant fields and representatives of business and industry are members.

The AICTE was instrumental in ensuring the planned development of technical education in India. The central government, on the recommendations of the AICTE, provided financial assistance to states for establishing new technical institutions, especially engineering colleges and polytechnics, and also to upgrade and modernise the physical infrastructure of many existing institutions.

During the 1970s, the Council took some major initiatives in launching Quality Improvement Programmes in technical education which included curriculum development and faculty improvement for both degree and diploma level programmes.

As we noted earlier, the 1980s saw a rapid rise in the demand for professional education programmes, especially at the degree level in engineering and technology as well as medicine (medical education was within the purview of the Ministry of Health, and we are not discussing it here). It was this rising demand that led to many private agencies venturing into the field of technical education with the establishment of what came to be known as the self-financing colleges (institutions that do not seek any support from public funds). Governments encouraged them because they invested very large resources that the states were not able to find. Though this private initiative was a welcome development, it had also consequences that were not entirely beneficial. This profit-driven initiative saw many ways in which the investors made profits; the state had to step in with several regulatory initiatives. Capitation fees were outlawed; donations were banned; limits for fees were prescribed; admission rigours were imposed; and certain degree of accountability was enforced. As all these responsibilities fell on the AICTE, it was converted into a statutory body in 1987 with adequate powers and authority to frame and enforce a regulatory regime.

The new AICTE established under an Act of Parliament had its composition, functions and powers similar to those of the UGC except that it had no jurisdiction over universities that were in the domain of the UGC. The AICTE concerned itself largely with engineering colleges, management institutes and polytechnics, and functioned in close cooperation with the UGC. The UGC would refer all technical education proposals received from universities to the AICTE for scrutiny and recommendations, and generally would accept and implement them. The AICTE functions through four Regional Committees which maintain close coordination with the state governments in their respective regions.

A significant development of the regulatory regime initiated by the AICTE was the establishment of a National Accreditation Board for technical

education institutions under its statutory powers. Though accreditation was voluntary, the process initiated by the AICTE became a significant landmark in the launching of quality assurance mechanisms in technical education. It established the detailed processes and procedures and made it possible to launch a mandatory accreditation mechanism years later.

Check Your Progress 4

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

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

What made the AICTE to be converted from advisory body into a statutory body? (answer in about 40 words)

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4.4.3 National Council for Teacher Education (NCTE)

A much later entrant in to the system level management structures in Indian higher education, the NCTE has many things in common with the AICTE. It deals primarily with teacher education colleges in India. Though there were a number of teacher training colleges, there was no planned and coordinated development of teacher education, nor was there any major attempt at improving the quality of teacher training. As the demand for trained teachers continued to rise, several institutions mushroomed across the country, and many of them turned into purely commercial ventures. Though an advisory body was set up to advise the central and state governments on measures to be taken to ensure the growth and development of an acceptable quality of teacher education, this initiative did not prove effective. As in the case of AICTE, the Government of India had to go in for legislation to establish a National Council for Teacher Education vested with statutory powers for the inspection of teacher education colleges, ensure the quality of the training provision, and where necessary, to derecognise the institutions through a declaration that their output would not be eligible for recruitment as qualified teachers.

4.4.4 Other National Bodies in Higher Education

Throughout our discussion on Indian higher education, we have had occasions to mention the existence of multiple agencies that perform one or more functions in the growth and development of higher education in one field or another. We have mentioned in passing that many among them owe their existence to the need to perform a function arising from the special need that created that agency in the first place. Thus, the **Medical Council of India** was established as a statutory body to regulate the profession of medical practice by requiring the registration of those intending to practice the medical profession. It became necessary to prescribe the qualifications for such registration that included not just the educational requirement, but the details of the curricula, content, teaching and practical training, qualifications of teachers, physical infrastructure required for teaching and training (hospital facilities), etc. In other words, all these covered exactly the

full extent of educational standards and norms in medical education. It was only natural that the Medical Council soon turned out to be the regulator for medical education as well. Their recommendations became binding on the universities.

Other such bodies include the **Dental Council, Nursing Council, Pharmacy Council, Council of Architects, the Bar Council**, etc. We have mentioned the existence of the **Indian Council of Agricultural Research** as a national level mechanism for the promotion of education and research in agriculture. The ICAR is not a statutory body, but it provides substantial support to state agricultural universities; it has also established a chain of research institutions across the country to strengthen the development of agriculture in India through research and training in such areas as Veterinary and Animal Science, Dairy Development, Fisheries and Marine Research as well as research in various crops including wheat, rice, and a variety of cash crops.

There are two other Research Councils; we have mentioned them in the previous section. They are the Council for Scientific and Industrial Research (CSIR) and the Indian Council for Social Science Research (ICSSR).

Another national level agency for promotion and coordination in higher education is the **Distance Education Council (DEC)**. We shall discuss the roles and functions of this body in great detail in the Block 4 of this course.

We have noticed in our discussions on the organisation of the higher education system at several places in this course that several professional bodies influence, and even regulate, programmes of higher education in one way or another even if all of them are not, in fact, components of the higher education system. The primary responsibility of these professional bodies is the growth and development of the concerned profession; some of them, as we noticed in the previous section, have statutory responsibilities as well. Besides these statutory bodies, there are professional associations in several fields like engineering, electronics and telecommunications, management, accountancy, and so on. Many of them have close association with universities and other institutions of higher education. Some of them, in fact, offer education and training programmes as well. For instance, the Institution of Engineers holds an examination for its membership (Associate Membership of the Institution of Engineers – AMIE, for short) that is accepted as equivalent to a Bachelor's degree in engineering, both for employment as well as for further education.

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.

List the bodies which are not statutory but contribute to the development of respective subject/professional area as through research, education and training? (answer in about 40 words)

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4.4.5 Association of Indian Universities (AIU)

During the British period, when there were only 15 universities in 1925 across the Indian sub-continent that then included India (Pakistan and Bangla Desh were then parts of India), Ceylon (now Sri Lanka) and Burma (now Myanmar), a Conference of Vice-Chancellors expressed the need for an inter-university organisation to facilitate the coordination of university work and to act as a Bureau of Information covering the entire sub-continent. Accordingly, the Inter-University Board of India, Burma and Ceylon was set up in 1925. Universities in Burma and Ceylon continued to be members of this Board even after they became independent nations. They withdrew only in the early 1960s.

The main functions of the Board were:

- To act as an inter-university organisation and Bureau of Information;
- To serve as an authorised channel of communication and facilitate coordination among universities in matters of common interest;
- To assist Indian universities in obtaining recognition for their degrees, diplomas and examinations by other universities;
- To establish and maintain a sports organisation for promoting sports in Indian universities.

In 1973, the Board was renamed as Association of Indian Universities (AIU). It continues to perform all the functions listed above and has, in addition, taken up several new initiatives. The most important among them are:

- It functions as a link between the universities and the Government/UGC on matters affecting the functioning and governance of universities;
- It has taken up major research programmes in such areas as examination reforms, economics of education, quality of provision, accreditation, etc.
- It has a major publication programme consisting of a 'University News', besides several Handbooks and research publications;
- The membership of the AIU presently covers all statutory universities, institutions of national importance and institutions deemed to be universities;
- Under the aegis of the AIU, the Vice-Chancellors of the member institutions (there are over 430 in 2009) have been holding regular discussions on matters of common interest in various committees and conferences, particularly at the annual meetings of the Association.

Such associations of universities have made significant contributions, nationally and internationally, to the development of the university system in general. Prominent among such international associations are the Association of the Commonwealth Universities (ACU) and the Association of African Universities (AAU).

4.5 STRUCTURE OF HIGHER EDUCATION

So far, we have focused on the organisation of the higher education system in India. Before we close this discussion, it would be useful to take a look at the structure of the system as well. In India, higher education begins on completion of 12 years of schooling, (ten years of elementary and secondary

education followed by two years of higher secondary education). The first degree, the bachelor's degree, takes three years of study in arts, commerce and science, and four years in the case of most professional degree programmes (four and half years in the case of medicine and five/six in the case of law). The Master's degree programme is usually of two years and research degrees (M.Phil and Ph.D) take variable durations depending upon the field of investigation and the pace of the student (see Fig.1)

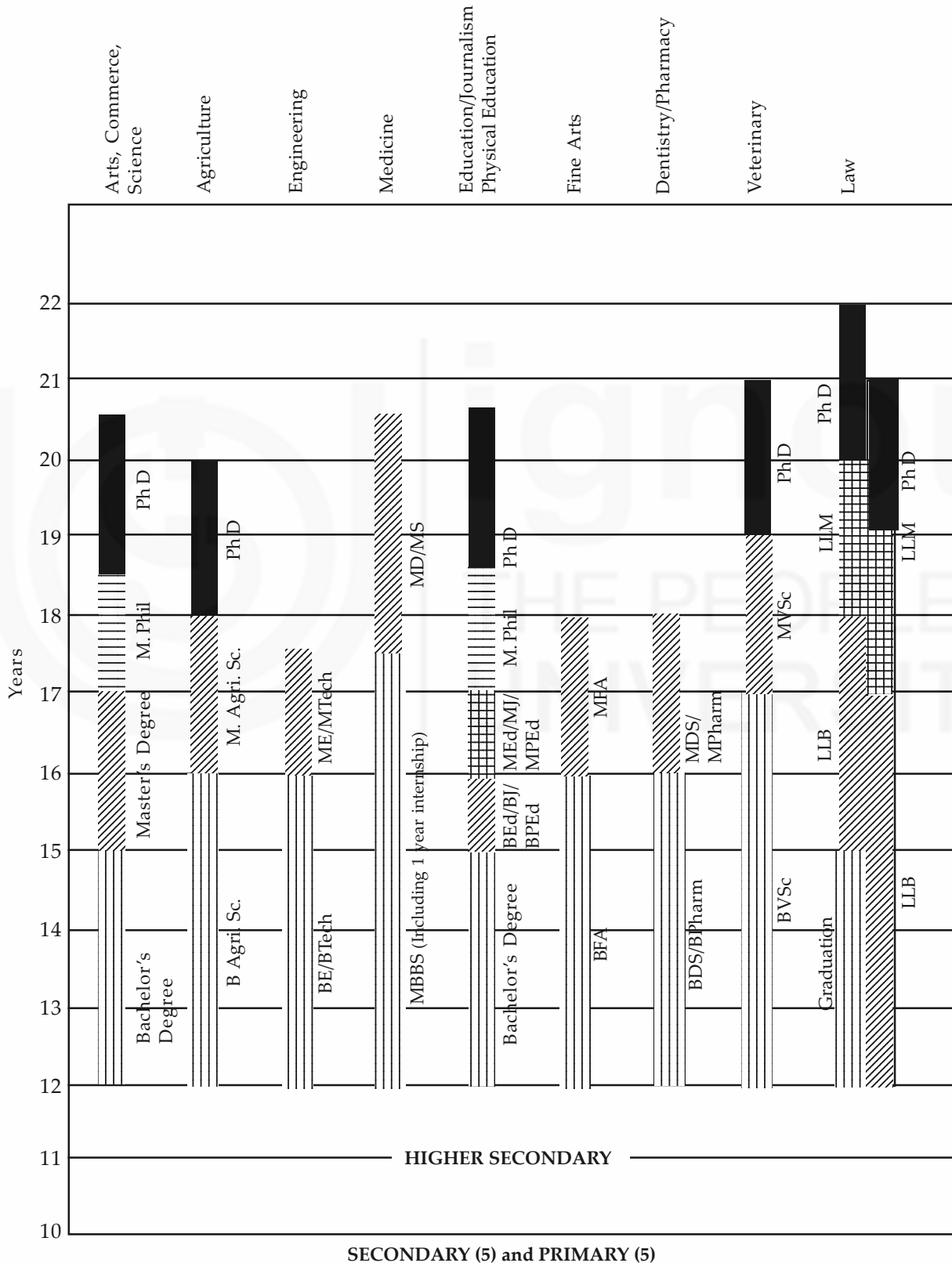


Fig. 1: Duration required for various programmes at Higher Education Level
(Source: Powar, K.B. 1997)

The post-graduate degree programmes (except in engineering) take two years of study after the first degree. The M.Tech. programme can be completed in three semesters while MD, MS and MDS (medical education programmes) take two years after MBBS/BDS.

The M.Phil programme is of one and half years; it is a preparatory programme for doctoral level work and consists of course work in subject areas as well as research methodologies. The Ph.D programme is research study that could take two or more years after M. Phil (direct registration for Ph.D. is also possible, in which case, it takes three years or more), while D.Sc. and D.Litt. are awarded by some universities after Ph.D. for original contributions.

Besides the degree courses, a number of diploma and certificate courses are also available in universities. The range is wide and they cover everything from poetry to pottery and from communication to computing. Some of them are undergraduate diploma courses while some are post-graduate programmes. The duration varies from programme to programme.

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.

Which body led to the formation of AIU? (answer in about 30 words)

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4.6 LET US SUM UP

We have presented in this unit an overview of the structures and processes involved in the management of higher education in India at the top of the system. We thought a better understanding of these structures and their roles and responsibilities will help you appreciate the problems and prospects as well as the issues and challenges that a large system of higher education can face in the process of its growth and development. These issues of macro-management will provide you with some insights into the issues of micro-management of higher education at the institutional level. We understand that this unit will probably leave you with a feeling, and very rightly too, that Indian universities are 'managed' too much from the outside with a multiplicity of agencies and their regulatory interventions. A serious concern that is often expressed by universities in India is that there is very little coordination among these agencies, and that they are pulling the universities in different directions.

4.7 CHECK YOUR PROGRESS: POSSIBLE ANSWERS

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Check Your Progress 1

Considering the pluralistic nature of the country and education being the joint responsibility of the states and the centre – all major policies have to be formulated with full participation of all groups/committees/states to reflect a broad measure of concerns thus binding on all sections to accept and implement those policies.

Check Your Progress 2

Recently a definite move was made to create NCHER bringing all professional bodies under one roof is resisted by respective ministries because to protect and preserve their territories and powers.

Check Your Progress 3

- i) Maintenance grants are the annual recurring grants from which expenditure on salaries and other reserve expenditure is met. Out of the maintenance grants 95% goes to salaries alone and remaining 5% is used in maintenance of infrastructure, library and laboratory facilities, student scholarships etc; this leads to poor and inadequate maintenance.
- ii) Development grants are those required by institutions to undertake new activities like launching of new courses and programmes, expansion of enrolment, creation of additional infrastructure etc. State universities and colleges also get development grants from UGC.

Check Your Progress 4

The AICTE was established as an advisory body in late 1940s, since then huge expansion in technical education had taken place including the entry of private initiatives in the form of self-financing colleges. To regulate these private initiatives and maintain the quality in technical education, the body was converted into a statutory body in 1987 with adequate powers and authority to frame and enforce a regulatory regime.

Check Your Progress 5

The bodies which are not statutory but work in respective subject areas such as ICAR, CSIR, ICSSR, Institution of Engineers through their contribution in research education and training.

Check Your Progress 6

The Inter University Board of India, Burma and Ceylon setup in 1925 was renamed as Association of Indian Universities (AIU) in 1973 to perform all those functions the Board used to do.

UNIT 5 MANAGEMENT OF HIGHER EDUCATION: INSTITUTIONAL LEVEL

Structure

- 5.1 Introduction
- 5.2 Objectives
- 5.3 Universities: The Organisational Framework
 - 5.3.1 Structure of universities
 - 5.3.2 Universities according to roles/functions
- 5.4 Governance of universities
 - 5.4.1 Constitution of universities
 - 5.4.2 The Executive council
 - 5.4.3 The Academic Council
 - 5.4.4 Faculty/Schools
 - 5.4.5 The Court (Senate)
 - 5.4.6 Finance Committee
 - 5.4.7 Other Models of Governance
- 5.5 The People Who Manage the Universities
 - 5.5.1 The Visitor/Chancellor
 - 5.5.2 The Chancellor
 - 5.5.3 The Vice-Chancellor
 - 5.5.4 The Pro-Vice-Chancellor/Rector
 - 5.5.5 The Deans
 - 5.5.6 The Registrar
 - 5.5.7 The Finance Officer
- 5.6 The Management of Colleges
 - 5.6.1 Types of Colleges
 - 5.6.2 Colleges and the Universities
 - 5.6.3 Autonomous Colleges
 - 5.6.4 Management of Colleges
- 5.7 Let Us Sum Up
- 5.8 Check Your Progress: Possible Answers
- 5.9 References and Suggested Readings

5.1 INTRODUCTION

In the previous units of this Block, we discussed the growth and development of higher education in India in the context of the emerging global trends as well as the issues confronting higher education in terms of access, equity, relevance and quality. From this perspective, we also took a close look at the prospects that higher education will face in the near future in the Indian context. From this perspective, we looked at the efforts that Indian higher education system has been making in recent years to cope with the emerging problems and challenges – the need for expansion in an environment of shrinking resources, the imperative of widening access without compromising quality and the challenges arising from global competition as well as the increasing trends of commercialisation of higher education.

er focus in this discussion so far has been on the system and its structures and processes. We shall now turn our attention to the micro-management issues in higher education at the institutional level.

5.2 OBJECTIVES

On completion of this unit, you should be able to:

- describe the broad organisational framework within which Indian universities are structured;
- identify types of universities according to their functions;
- analyse the roles and functions of various decision-making bodies and functionaries in universities; and
- explain various issues related to planning and management of universities and colleges in India.

5.3 UNIVERSITIES: THE ORGANISATIONAL FRAMEWORK

You will recall that in unit 1, we discussed the birth of the modern university in India in 1857. For almost half a century, the main functions that universities performed were to grant affiliation to colleges, to hold examinations and to award degrees. It was only in 1904 that Indian universities (there were only four of them) were given the power to establish departments of teaching, appoint teachers and provide for the instruction of students directly enrolled by them. It meant that the number of new colleges seeking affiliation came down; it also paved the way for the establishment of new teaching universities. Some of the new universities at Dhaka (now in Bangladesh), Aligarh, Benaras, Rangoon (now in Myanmar), Patna and Nagpur were established as teaching and residential universities. This was soon followed by similar universities set up by several princely states that comprised British India before independence.

Around the same period, a number of institutions, founded primarily to promote a nationalist system of higher education (as against the modern university modelled on the British pattern) also came up in several parts of the country. These institutions functioned outside the formal structure of the university system during the British period, and were co-opted into the formal system after independence.

The constitutional dispensation that we outlined briefly in the previous unit, did not permit the central government to establish universities till it was revised in 1977. Nevertheless, it was inevitable that certain special institutions that could provide facilities for teaching and research of the highest quality at an all India level, were required to be set up by the central government, and a chain of institutions called “Institutions of National Importance” were soon set up. The Indian Institutes of Technology (IITs), the All India Institute of Medical Sciences (AIIMS), etc. came in this category, adding to the variations in structures.

In this unit, we shall examine the management issues associated with Indian universities.

5.3.1 Structure of Universities

India has central and state universities, unitary, federal and affiliating universities, institutions of national importance, institutions deemed to be universities and open universities. The common typology, however, is that of a state university with its finances for maintenance provided by a state government, and its development programmes funded jointly by the state government and the central government through the University Grants Commission (UGC) and the All India Council for Technical Education (AICTE).

On a functional basis, institutions of higher education consist of multi-faculty general universities that are engaged in teaching and research in nearly all traditional disciplines, those devoted to teaching and research in clusters of disciplines like agriculture, medicine, law, languages and technology. The broad pattern and structure of governance of most of these universities are similar; the management responsibility vesting with an Executive Council (also known as Syndicate or Board of Management) and the academic responsibility vesting with the Academic Council (also known as Senate).

We shall now take a close look at the different types of universities functioning in India on the basis of their structural patterns

Affiliating Universities

The affiliating type of universities has a number of colleges affiliated to it. In this pattern the bulk of the teaching takes place in the colleges which admit students and impart instruction to them. The majority of Indian universities are of the affiliating type. You will recall that we have mentioned elsewhere in this block that there are about 20,000 colleges in India. Each of these is affiliated to one of the 400 or more universities. It should be noted here that colleges do not have the option to choose the university to which they should get affiliated. Each university has a clearly defined geographical jurisdiction, and colleges located in those territories must necessarily be affiliated to it.

In the affiliating system, the university concerned prescribes the courses of study, holds the examinations and awards the degrees while all the teaching is done by the colleges. The university has little to do with the appointment of teachers, admission of students and the day-to-day academic functioning of the colleges. However, the university concerned does insist that teachers appointed by the colleges should possess the qualifications prescribed by it and that they should conform to the criteria laid down for the selection of students for admission.

Universities generally prescribe a set of criteria under its statutory powers to grant affiliation to colleges. These criteria, among others, include the provision of infrastructure (classrooms, laboratories and libraries, administrative buildings, hostels and residences, books and equipment), number of teachers required for courses to be offered, the qualifications required of the teachers, funding arrangements, management structures and the approval of the state government concerned, where necessary. In the case of colleges offering professional programmes like those in engineering, law, medicine, etc., the approval of the concerned statutory authority is necessary before students are admitted and teaching is started. Once affiliation is granted, and the colleges start functioning, the university sends teams of experts at specified intervals to inspect the facilities provided and to ensure

that all the criteria for affiliation are followed. Any breach of the criteria could lead to the withdrawal of affiliation.

It is the primary responsibility of the university to prescribe the courses of study and to conduct the examinations. College teachers have very little to do in the design of courses or the development of their content. Their role is just to teach according to the syllabi handed over to them. The examinations are set by the universities and college teachers may have the responsibility to assess the answer sheets sent to them by the university though these would not be of their own students. In other words, a college teacher has no role in determining what to teach and how, or in assessing the performance of his/her students. A major criticism of this model is that college teaching is a lifeless process; there is very little interaction between the academic communities in the university and its colleges; and there is no opportunity or incentive for any innovations in teaching.

Though the modern Indian university was born as a purely affiliating and examining body, this model has changed very soon. There are no universities today that are purely affiliating with no teaching of its own. All universities are teaching universities with many among them also affiliating. In other words, there are quite a few universities that only teach with no colleges affiliated to them. We shall now turn our attention to this model.

Unitary Universities

These are of relatively recent origin in India; they are modelled after the European universities or their more contemporary counterparts in the United States. They are essentially teaching campuses where generally post-graduate studies and research programmes are offered; in many cases, they also offer undergraduate programmes. They control all aspects of curriculum transaction, including curriculum planning, teaching and examinations. A typical unitary university comprises several schools or faculties, each of which in turn comprises several departments. The school, faculty and departments are not loose administrative units. They are more academic than administrative organs.

All the teachers are appointed by the university; and they have greater representation on the university bodies and serve much greater roles in shaping the academic decisions of the university. It is much easier in such universities to introduce innovative changes in terms of courses and other curricular and examination practices. It must, however, be admitted that although these universities have contributed significantly to the goal of attaining excellence, their response to the demand for access from a larger number of students has not been as impressive, often leading to the criticism that they tend to be elite institutions.

Federal universities

These universities do not affiliate colleges; instead, they have constituent colleges, whose administrative as well as academic functions are clearly the responsibility of the university. The university controls the design of courses, selection of teachers, and conduct of examinations in the constituent colleges. Teachers in the constituent colleges have greater representation on the university bodies in comparison with those in affiliated colleges. With the pressure of the number of colleges, this model has over a period time become ineffective. For example, Delhi University used to be a federal university, but now it has a more complicated structure with both constituent as well as affiliated colleges in addition to its post-graduate campuses.

Check Your Progress 1

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 difference between Affiliating and Unitary University?
(answer in about 40 words)

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ii) How do you categorize the Delhi University? (answer in about 40 words)

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5.3.2 Universities According to Roles/Functions

We shall now move from the structural patterns to the specialised/functional types among the universities in India.

Agricultural universities

Soon after independence, Indian policy makers recognised the need for modernisation of the agricultural sector. This essentially meant creating an infrastructure for preparation of trained professionals in the field and for generating new and vital technologies related to agriculture through research and development and for making this know-how accessible to farmers. Creation of agricultural universities was primarily to institutionalise the response to the demands on Indian higher education.

There are 27 Agricultural universities in India. Initially, the intention was to set up one Agricultural university in each major state. Later, some of the bigger states set up two or more such universities. Smaller states have now an Agricultural university set up by the central government for their common benefit. All these universities provide undergraduate, post-graduate and research programmes in agriculture and animal sciences. A significant contribution made by these universities is to take the outcomes of their research to the farms through large scale extension work. For example, research findings on new farm practices, high-yielding crop varieties, better seeds and plant protection systems, storage and preservation of crops, better marketing of farm products, etc. are immediately transferred to the farming communities through systematic training programmes. Most agricultural universities are single-campus institutions (some may have more than one campus), and most of them have large experimental farms for trials and testing of new crops and practices. In fact, a large part of the credit for transforming India from a food-deficit country to a food-exporting economy should go to these universities.

Technological/Medical universities

Universities teaching only engineering and technology subjects or medicine and allied professional areas are not new or peculiar to India. Such universities are found across Europe and the Americas. In India too, there are such universities in several states. But some of them are unique in that they have been established primarily to oversee the functioning of a number of affiliated colleges in engineering or medicine. With the establishment of such universities, all existing colleges offering education programmes in the concerned disciplines stand disaffiliated from their parent university, and affiliated to the newly set up technological or medical university.

The main reason for this initiative was the feeling that professional colleges often did not get the attention they deserved in dealing with serious issues of academic significance concerning curricular reforms, modernisation of laboratories, theory-practice integration in teaching, and improvements in the quality of the provision. Burdened as they were with the problems of a large number of colleges teaching arts, science and commerce, many among them very old with their teachers dominating the governing councils and academic bodies, the professional institutions felt neglected. The remedy was to detach them from their existing universities and bring them under the supervision of new universities that could address their concerns swiftly and without being overwhelmed by age-old theories and practices of conventional teaching. In several cases, the new professional universities were authorised by law to affiliate colleges located anywhere in the state in which the new university was established, irrespective of the fact that another university in the state had jurisdiction over those colleges by virtue of its territorial jurisdiction. Andhra Pradesh, Tamil Nadu, Karnataka in the South pioneered this experiment.

Deemed universities

While discussing the evolution of modern university education in India during the 19th century, we mentioned that there were some institutions of higher education in India engaged in teaching and research in indigenous knowledge systems and practices. We had also occasion to mention that during the national freedom movement, a set of new institutions came up in several parts of the country to promote a national system of education as opposed to the colonial system that was transplanted from Britain. After India became independent, it became imperative that these institutions that did not form part of the university system till then were co-opted into the formal Indian higher education system. Since there was no legislative sanction for their establishment, a mechanism had to be devised to incorporate them into the formal structures of Indian higher education. So, when the University Grants Commission (UGC) was established in 1956 under an Act of Parliament, a provision was made in the legislation that empowered the Central Government to notify, on the recommendation of the UGC, any existing institution for higher education that was not a university established by law, as an institution deemed to be a university with all the privileges and benefits that formally established universities enjoy. The institutions notified under this provision (Section 3 of the UGC Act) came to be known as 'deemed universities'.

The UGC had prescribed rigorous conditions that an institution should fulfil to be notified as a deemed university. The claims of an institution are closely scrutinised by a Committee of experts to satisfy that the institution has made significant contributions to higher education and that it richly

deserved the status of a university and such a status, if conferred, would enrich the university system in the country. During the first two decades after this provision was made, just about 18 institutions were conferred this status. Among this category of institutions in India are the Indian Institute of Science (IISc), Bangalore, the Birla Institute of Technology and Science (BITS), Pilani and the Tata Institute of Social Sciences (TISS), Mumbai, all of which are centres of excellence in their fields of study and research.

In the last two decades, the situation changed dramatically. Several colleges, especially those established as self-financing institutions in professional fields, wanted to break away from the conventional university regime. Under pressure, the UGC and the Central Government liberalised the procedures and a very large number of colleges and other institutions were conferred the 'deemed to be university' status. The number of this category of institutions rose to 130 by 2009. Many among them that were privately managed exploited their status and indulged in malpractices of one kind or another. Many of them that promised excellent infrastructure and high quality faculty failed to deliver on their promises; some of them collected heavy donations/capitation fees to build infrastructure but failed to make the necessary investments; and some were there merely on the basis of their clout with the political establishment. A recent assessment found that as many as 44 such deemed universities did not deserve to be universities and were told that their status would be withdrawn. These institutions have approached the Court and their case is still under adjudication (2010). The lesson that one has to learn from this experience is that political pressure and patronage can play havoc with well entrenched systems and destroy reputations painstakingly built over decades unless adequate checks and balances are built in as correctives within systems.

Institutions of National Importance

You will recall that while discussing the role of the central government in the previous unit, we have drawn your attention to the constitutional dispensation in education that divided the roles and responsibilities between the central and state governments. We had mentioned that except to a limited but potentially significant extent, the primary responsibility for education was that of the states. Only the states could establish universities; the centre did not have the power to do so (this dispensation changed in 1977 after a constitutional amendment). However, the centre had the explicit responsibility under the constitution to establish and maintain institutions and facilities that were of national importance.

It was under this provision that the central government established under an Act of Parliament in the early 1950s the Institutes of Technology (IITs) as centres of excellence in engineering and technology education. To begin with, there were only five of them, all established in the 1950s and 1960s. Since the 1990s, several new IITs were established in different parts of the country and presently (2009), there are 16 Institutes of Technology. These institutions have established a global reputation and their graduates have found leading positions in high-value markets in the developed world. Admission to these institutions is through a national level common admission test in which over 150,000 aspirants take part for about 3000 places. They also offer Masters and Ph.D programmes.

Similar institutions were established in medical education and research; the All India Institute of Medical Science in Delhi and the Post-Graduate Institute of Medical Education and Research in Chandigarh. Another major

institution in this category is the Indian Statistical Institute, Kolkata. More such institutions were added in this category in later years; presently, there are 12 of them. Parliament must legislate to create an institution of national importance and, therefore, there is no possibility of this type of institutions proliferating under any pressure. Such institutions when set up are assured of full financial support from the central government and they always maintain high quality in education and research.

Other Institutions

This discussion will not be complete without the mention of a unique category of institutions that do not fall in any of the types mentioned in the previous sections. They are the Indian Institutes of Management (IIMs), the initial two of which were set up in the early 1960s. This was a joint initiative of the central government and the industry. The Ford Foundation provided the initial support to secure collaboration with well established management schools in the USA. These institutes were set up in Ahmedabad and Kolkata as registered societies to offer education and training in the professional field of management. These institutes do not award degrees; in fact, they have no legislative sanction to do so. Their programmes are known as the post-graduate Diploma in Management (recognised as equivalent to MBA) and the Fellowship of the Institute of Management (equivalent to Ph.D). Two more institutes were established later, one in Bangalore in 1972 and another in Lucknow some twelve years later. More recently, three more IIMs were set up in Kozhikode (Kerala), Indore (Madhya Pradesh) and Shillong (Meghalaya). Seven more are in the pipeline.

From its inception, these institutes have gained tremendous popularity and their graduates are in great demand not just in India but across the world. Multinational companies visit their campuses in the third semester of their four-semester programmes and offer them attractive remuneration packages. Presently, some 150,000 students sit in a common admission test for about 2000 or so places that these institutions offer. Most of them, except the new ones are self-supporting, and the levels of their fees are indeed very high. Students who cannot afford the high fees are provided student loans by banks and other financial institutions and repayments begin soon after the graduates find placement. The experience of these institutions testifies to the fact that degree giving powers are not a necessary precondition for success of a higher education institution; what matters is the relevance of the programmes and their quality.

Check Your Progress 2

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

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

What did you understand by the major issues related to Deemed Universities at this point of time? (answer in about 40 words)

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5.4 GOVERNANCE OF UNIVERSITIES

The experience of universities in India varies from university to university. The more important variables are their types, the length of time they have been in existence, and the governments that fund them. One thing that is common to all of them is that all of them have been set up under legislation, central or state, and that they are all intended to function as autonomous institutions. The institutions deemed to be universities do not have a uniform pattern and their governance structure varies from institution to institution.

Briefly stated, autonomy of a university is its freedom to organise and administer its affairs as a corporate body in accordance with the law by which it is established. The autonomous character of the university is reflected in its internal management, the freedom with which it can decide its policies and programmes, appoint its personnel, determine their relationship with one another and facilitate their smooth functioning with a view to realising their objectives. You will recall that we had occasion to discuss the issues concerning university autonomy in general in the previous block (unit 2), and noted how, and in what circumstances, this notion of autonomy is often compromised under one pretext or another. We shall not repeat them here.

A university exists primarily for its students and scholars and, through their work, for the society at large. It provides them learning opportunities in a variety of ways through teachers in the classrooms, books in the libraries and experimental facilities in the field or in the laboratories, opportunities for interaction with other students in seminars, tutorials, group projects or in numerous other forums and activities based in hostels, clubs and associations. An important source of learning is actual experience of social and environmental realities first hand, investigation of phenomena and situations and actual participation in activities of a creative and developmental nature. The universities should have facilities, structures, management, and above all, programmes available in sufficient variety so that each student can learn according to his/her inclination, aptitude and need. It is only then that the student can get the best out of the university and the nation its strength to sustain itself.

The concept of education and hence of educational institutions has undergone significant changes in recent years. Education is no longer just creation and dissemination of knowledge; it is also about social concerns and grappling with the problems of contemporary life outside the classrooms. Students and institutions have to get involved in study, work and services related to national development that have come to be known as the third dimension of education (apart from teaching and research). A classic example of this involvement in development initiatives is the extension activities carried by the agricultural universities in India that we mentioned earlier in this unit. Research and creative activities provide a deeply enriching learning experience that turns students into responsible citizens endowed with firm commitment, determination and the will to address the problems of the society of which they are a part. It is through this involvement that the university community pays back to the society handsome dividends on the investments that society makes in human development.

5.4.1 Constitution of Universities

Since the university is a creation of the legislature and legislation is generally the preserve of the government of the day, it is for the government to decide what all should go into the legislation when establishing a university. It is these provisions in the legislation that will ultimately determine the nature and extent of autonomy that a university will enjoy.

It needs to be emphasised again that autonomy is not a legal or constitutional concept; it is, as a Committee on Governance of Universities in India said in 1971, “an ethical and an academic concept”. This concept does not question the sovereignty of the legislature to make laws or to discuss and determine the nature and structure of universities, as well as their rights and obligations. University autonomy does not suggest that universities are a state within a state, and a law unto themselves. The university cannot claim autonomy as a privilege, but as a condition necessary for it to discharge its duties and obligations. Two conditions on which university autonomy are predicated are; (i) autonomy within the university, and (ii) autonomy in relation to agencies and authorities external to it, particularly, the government.

Much will depend on how the decision-making bodies of the university are constituted, and what their composition is. At this point, it is important to remember a major, and perhaps, a unique feature of the functions associated with the management of universities. You will recall that in block 1, while discussing the functions and processes involved in the management of universities, we had drawn attention to a number of components. If you take a close look at those components, you will see that they fall into two categories, namely, (i) functions and processes associated with the administration of the institution, and (ii) the teaching-learning functions and their processes. While the first category of functions (which include the management and administration of personnel, finance, infrastructure), the second category is all in the realm of academic management (curriculum design, instructional system, teaching, student assessment). This latter category of functions does not always lend itself to conventional styles and methods of management.

These two distinctive types of management functions are reflected in the governance structure of universities. Every university has two important decision-making bodies. The Executive Council (Board of Management or Syndicate) is the principal executive body dealing with all the functions of the first category, and the Academic Council (in some cases called the Senate) is the principal academic body, taking all the decisions in areas falling within the second category. This duality in the decision-making processes is the unique feature of university management.

It does not follow that the broad areas of concern assigned to these two bodies are mutually exclusive, and that there are no overlaps between them. Further, the decisions taken by one body may have implications for the other. For instance, if the Academic Council were to decide to launch an entirely new programme, the Executive Council will have to take decisions on the creation of new teaching positions, and provision of other infrastructure. On the other hand, if the Executive Council finds that due to shortage of resources, some of the current programmes need to be reviewed, the Academic Council will have to look at the issues. In other words, it is necessary for the health of the university that the two bodies function organically, with mutual respect and coordination though, in

practice, it is not unusual to see conflicts arising between the two. It is inherent in the nature of functions of the universities that there is always some tension between the academics and the administrators, sometimes also institutionalised in terms of the conflicts between Executive and Academic Councils. Normally, while prescribing the composition and functions of these two bodies, the legislation also takes care to specify the matters on which, and the manner in which, either body consults the other. However, since the execution of any decision requiring funds, people and facilities is in the domain of the Executive Council, this body is perceived to have an edge over the Academic Council in terms of power and authority.

With this understanding of a significant complexity in the structure and pattern of governance of universities, we shall now proceed to take a close look at the constitution of these bodies, the functions they perform and the powers they exercise.

5.4.2 The Executive Council

The Executive Council (also called the Board of Management or the Syndicate) is the authority that takes all executive decisions and implement them. All administrative and financial powers are exercised by this body. Generally the Executive Council consists of the Vice-Chancellor as its Chairman, a Pro-Vice-Chancellor, two Deans, three or four representatives of teachers, two or three representatives (generally Heads) of colleges or institutions affiliated to the university, three or four nominees of the government, and two or three members of the Senate who are external members. There could be minor variations in this broad pattern of composition from university to university. The significant point is that it has the majority of its members from within the university, and an adequate representation of interests from outside. The internal and external representation is generally in the ratio of 3:2 with the total membership ranging between 15 and 20.

The important functions of the Executive Council are:

- Making statutes and ordinances which govern and regulate the functioning of all sub-systems of the university;
- Control of the finances and properties;
- Management of personnel (recruitment, promotion, conditions of service, welfare);
- Supervision over the management of institutions/colleges affiliated to the university;
- Redressal of grievances of teachers, staff and students.

It should be noted however that the power of legislation (rule-making) in all academic matters can be exercised only after consulting the Academic Council and its views are obtained.

5.4.3 The Academic Council

The Academic Council is the principal academic authority of the university. All decisions on programmes, courses, teaching methods, student assessment systems, academic standards, creation of new departments, etc are within the purview of the Academic Council. However, as we have said in the previous section, the scheme of university management envisages a sharing of powers and authority between the Executive Council and the Academic Council, with the former enjoying a slight edge over the latter.

The Academic council is essentially a body comprising the academics of the university. It is chaired by the Vice-Chancellor and consists of the Pro-Vice-Chancellor(s), all Deans, all Heads of Departments, representatives of the Heads of affiliated institutions and colleges, and representatives of all categories of teachers both from the Departments as well as affiliated institutions, and in several cases, also of representatives of students. Depending upon the size and nature of the university, the Academic Council can be a body of 50-150 or more members. Where the number of teachers is large, representation is provided normally through the method of election, and where the number of teachers is small, a system of nomination or rotation is followed.

The important functions of the Academic Council are:

- Laying down the academic policies of the university;
- Supervision over the implementation of the academic policy and giving directions on methods of instruction, evaluation of research and improvements in academic standards;
- Inter-faculty coordination for joint projects, programmes, etc;
- Recommending statutes/ordinances concerning academic matters like establishment of departments, laboratories, research centres, committees for admission and examinations, qualification of teachers, award of degrees, diplomas and other qualifications, conduct of examinations, institution of scholarships, student fees, etc.

Generally, the universities will also have a set of academic regulations that provide for procedures to be followed in various matters like admission, examination, declaration of results, etc. These regulations are also framed by the Academic Council. To the extent that statutes, ordinances and regulations are internal legislations, they require the approval of the Executive Council.

5.4.4 Faculty/Schools

As knowledge expands, and the number of disciplines and specialisations within them multiply, it becomes difficult for large bodies like the Academic Council to usefully devote attention to all the academic problems and concerns of all the disciplines. As a measure of decentralisation of the academic decision-making processes, most universities have constituted faculties or schools to take care of these problems leaving the Academic Council with the larger issue of broad supervision. Faculties/Schools generally comprise related or cognate departments and subjects, and function with a broad measure of autonomy.

Usually, a Faculty/School consists of the disciplines or subjects assigned to it by the Academic Council and consists of the Dean, all Professors in the Faculty, all Heads of Departments, representatives of different categories of teachers (Associate Professors and Assistant Professors), representatives of teachers from other faculties, and a small number of external experts.

The major functions of the Faculty/School are:

- Coordination of teaching and research in the departments assigned to the Faculty;
- Promotion of inter-disciplinary teaching and research;

- Prescribing courses of study and their syllabi;
- Appointment of Boards of Studies and Committees for undertaking research projects;
- Recommending the scheme of examinations and the methods of assessment of student performance.

The Faculties consisting of the members mentioned above generally function as the Boards of Studies in the concerned disciplines. Wherever new programmes and courses are proposed, the recommendations of the Faculty/School go to the Academic Council for approval/ratification. In that sense, the Faculty/School should be considered as a sub-system of the Academic Council with no independent authority or power of its own.

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 conflicts do you visualize in the functioning of the Executive Council and Academic Council? (answer in about 40 words)

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5.4.5 The Court (Senate)

The structure of governance described above is the pattern that has emerged in the last four decades or so in India. Prior to that, most universities had a Court (for Central Universities) and Senate (for State universities). This body was the supreme authority of a university. It worked in the older days, but with the growing complexity in the functioning of universities, there was a review and reformulation of the composition, powers and functions of this body.

Traditionally, the Court/Senate consisted of a cross section of the academic community (teachers, administrators and students) and representatives of different sections of the society outside the university (legislators, civil society, representatives of business/industry, the learned professions, former students, and so on). All decisions taken by various organs of the university were subject to ratification by this body; it could also disapprove their decisions that could cause considerable tension within the university community. Over a period of time, this practice became difficult to follow as Court's ratification of all decisions could not be taken for granted. Where the Courts disapproved the decisions, friction followed and the smooth functioning of the university became impossible.

Nevertheless, the significance of such a body, consisting as it does of a cross section of the larger society and members of the university community, was not lost sight of. After all, a university existed for the society, and the needs, requirements and aspirations of that society should find fulfilment from the activities of the university. A body like the Court (Senate) did precisely that: on the one hand, it reflected the society's expectations through the members representing the larger society, and, on the other, it provided a window of opportunity to the university community to inform the general

society about its policies, programmes and problems. This function of building bridges, of reviewing programmes and policies on the basis of informed views and making them responsive to social needs was considered a vital for the management of the university.

In recognition of this role, the Court (Senate) in later legislations was designated as a 'deliberative' body reviewing policies and programmes, making suggestions for improvements and development, and to express views on the overall performance of the university on the basis of its annual performance reports. With this major change in its powers and functions, the Court (Senate) continues to be a body provided in the Acts of most universities in India. Their composition, as indicated above, also remains more or less unchanged.

With this change in the functions and powers of the Court (Senate), it is no more saddled with the burden of having to over-rule decisions of the university. For that reason, some of the more recent legislations have altogether dispensed with the provisions to constitute a Court (Senate) for universities established under them.

5.4.6 Finance Committee

All universities have Finance Committees which prepare the budget, set the ceilings of expenditure and manage the university finances. It decides on investments of funds that may not be required for immediate expenditure, considers and recommends purchase of equipment and stores, construction of buildings, considers and makes recommendations on annual accounts, and so on. The Finance committee of a university is not an independent decision-making body; its primary role is to advise and make recommendations on all financial matters for consideration by the Executive Council which alone can make decisions on them. Some Acts provide that certain matters that involve continuing financial commitments like creation of new positions and revision of pay scales should not be considered by the Executive Council unless the Finance Committee has considered them in the first place, and made its recommendations.

The Finance Committee is chaired by the Vice-Chancellor. But its most important members are the nominees (mostly officers) of the government that provides the finances. There are, in addition, one or two members of the Executive Council and one or two external members on the Finance Committee. In actual practice, however, the nominees of the funding agencies play a dominant role in the proceedings of the Finance Committee.

5.4.7 Other Models of Governance

What we have discussed so far is the pattern of governance that prevails in Indian universities at present. This pattern could be said to belong to the liberal tradition that marked the governance of British universities. However, there are variations to this pattern, specially in respect of the professional universities as well as the Institutions of National Importance. For example, the pattern of governance of the Indian Institutes of Technology (IITs) which are Institutions of National Importance is as follows:

- The Board of Governors is responsible for the general superintendence, direction and control of the affairs of each IIT. It consists of:
- The Chairman to be nominated by the Visitor;

- The Director ex-officio;
- One person from among technologists or industrialists of repute to be nominated by the government of each of the states comprising the zone in which the institute is located;
- Four persons having special knowledge or practical experience in engineering or science education to be nominated by the Council of IITs;
- Two Professors of the Institute, to be nominated by the Senate (Academic Council).

A Council of IITs, chaired by the Union Minister in charge of higher technical education, and consisting of the Chairmen and Directors of all IITs and a few experts in science and technology education decides the general policies concerning the procedures for admission of students, recruitment of teachers and their service conditions and similar other common concerns.

Interestingly, the Chief Executive (Director) is not the Chairman of the managing body as in the universities where the Vice-Chancellor is also the Chairman of the Executive Council.

Another significant feature of the composition of the Board of Governors is that unlike in universities, it does not have members of political parties and bureaucrats representing the government. In the absence of power brokers within the Board discussions can and do take place in an objective and professional manner.

Further, in the university system, an aggrieved person has practically no court of appeal; the Vice-Chancellor who has made a decision is unlikely to let the issue be discussed freely in a meeting that he/she chairs. In the IIT system, the Board acts as an effective channel to get any grievance against the Director discussed.

One of the administrative innovations in the IIT system is the creation of the posts of functional deans such as Dean of Academic Affairs, Research and Development, Student Affairs, etc. in contrast to faculty-based deanships prevalent in the universities. It has helped to promote interdisciplinary efforts and effective management through better coordination.

The agricultural universities in India also have a somewhat different structure. They have Boards of Management and no Courts (Senates). They are involved in major extension activities and therefore have significantly larger association with the local communities in their work and management.

Check Your Progress 4

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 differences you have observed in the governance of IITs to that of the Universities? (answer in about 40 words)

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5.5 THE PEOPLE WHO MANAGE THE UNIVERSITIES

In the previous sections, we have looked at the corporate structure of the university, and the powers and functions of its decision-making bodies. By their very nature, these bodies cannot be expected to run the day-to-day working of the university and to remain responsible and accountable for all that they do. This responsibility vests with the officers of the university. We shall now consider who these people are, how they are appointed and what functions they perform in the management of the university.

5.5.1 The Visitor/Chancellor

We have seen in the previous unit that the state performs a broad supervisory function over the universities it has set up. However, in the exercise of this supervisory function, an effort is made to distance the political executive from the university management. This objective is achieved by vesting the supervisory function with the Head of State, President of India in the case of Central Universities and Governors of States in the case of state universities. The university legislations make these provisions.

The Visitor/Chancellor performs the following functions:

- Appointment of the Vice-Chancellor;
- Nomination of the specified number of members on the Executive Council/Syndicate;
- Approval/disapproval of statutes and ordinances, including amendments to them;
- Institution of inquiries into mismanagement, if any;
- Adjudication of appeals against the decision of the university which are perceived to be in violation of the university law.

These functions are vested in an authority outside the university to ensure objectivity and fairness in their performance. Distancing the political executive from the processes associated with the performance of these functions strengthens this view. Nevertheless, the fact that, according to the Indian constitution, the Head of State has to perform his/her functions on the advice of the Council of Ministers, makes this distance more symbolic than real. At any rate, the Visitor - Chancellor cannot be conceived as officers of the university in the sense that they belong to the category of people who manage the universities. Then, who are the real managers? We shall now turn to them.

5.5.2 The Chancellor

The Central universities have a statutory office of Chancellor who is the Head of the University. An eminent person in public life is appointed to this office by the Visitor on the recommendation of the Executive Council. He/she presides over the meetings of the Court and the convocations of the university, and does not perform any other functions or exercise any power.

The state universities do not have a corresponding statutory office. The Governor, who is the Chancellor, also performs these roles. To that extent, he/she is deemed to be an officer of the university. This duality in the role of the Chancellor's office in state universities has often caused considerable ambiguity and confusion.

5.5.3 The Vice-Chancellor

The Vice-Chancellor is the principal administrative and academic head (Chief Executive Officer) of the university. He/she is normally a scholar-administrator, and is the keeper of the university's conscience, and committed to the university's pursuit of scholarship and of truth. He/she has a crucial role to play in the successful functioning of the university. The success with which a university is able to function effectively and efficiently in the fulfilment of its mission depends largely on him/her. The term of appointment of a Vice-Chancellor of a central university is five years; in state universities, it is generally three years, and in some cases, four years. It is seldom that a Vice-Chancellor gets a second term. The main functions of a Vice-Chancellor are the following:

- The Vice-Chancellor is ex-officio the Chairman of the Executive Council (Syndicate or Board of Management) and the Academic Council as well as the Finance Committee and other statutory bodies like the Planning Board and Selection Committees;
- As the Chief Executive, he/she is responsible for ensuring that the university functions in accordance with the provisions of the Acts, statutes, ordinances and regulations;
- He/she is responsible for ensuring discipline among teachers, staff and students;
- In an emergency, he/she can exercise any power of any authority and report the matter to the authority concerned for ratification of the action/decision;
- He/she can delegate his/her powers to other officers.

The Vice-Chancellors of Indian universities are appointed by the Visitor/Chancellor from a panel of names recommended by a committee of eminent persons specially constituted for the purpose. These committees normally have three members – two nominated by the Executive Council, and one by the Visitor/Chancellor. The committee recommends a panel of three or more persons from whom the Visitor/Chancellor selects one. Generally, the person to be appointed is recommended by the Government to the Visitor/Chancellor.

5.5.4 The Pro-Vice-Chancellor/Rector

The Pro-Vice-Chancellor/Rector is the second level executive officer in a university, who is appointed by the Executive council on the recommendation of the Vice-Chancellor. In most cases, he/she is selected from among the senior Professors of the university though appointments from outside is also possible. He/she exercises the powers and performs the duties that are prescribed by the university or are delegated by the Vice-Chancellor.

The term of office of the PVC/Rector is generally laid down by the statutes; it is normally three or five years, and, in any case, is co-terminus with the office of the Vice-Chancellor.

The PVC/Rector is expected to share the responsibilities of the Vice-Chancellor in the areas assigned to him/her. He/she also officiates for the Vice-Chancellor when the latter is away from the headquarters on official business or on leave. Hence, the prime function of the PVC/Rector is a kind of partnership with the Vice-Chancellor to ensure the effective functioning of the university.

5.5.5 The Deans

Dean of the faculty is the Head of a faculty and is responsible to the Vice-Chancellor for the organisation of the teaching and research programmes as well as maintenance of the standards of teaching, research and extension functions in the faculty that comprises several Departments. A Dean is normally appointed from among the Professors in the Departments that comprise the faculty for a period of 2-3 years through a system of rotation according to seniority or any other means.

5.5.6 The Registrar

The position of Registrar who is the head of the administrative wing of the university is a key position. He/she leads the university's civil service, is the custodian of all university records, and represents the university in all its dealings with the outside world. He/she is ex-officio the Secretary of all statutory bodies of the university, issues notices for their meetings, prepares the agenda and also the minutes of their meetings. These key functions of the Registrar enable him/her to occupy a position of pre-eminence in the university management. He/she is privy to all decisions taken at the meetings of various bodies, and has easy and quick access to all records which together make him/her the most knowledgeable person as far as the university management is concerned. For that reason, he/she is in a position to render useful advice to the Vice-Chancellor and members of various authorities.

The Registrar is normally appointed by the Executive Council (Syndicate) on the recommendation of a Selection Committee presided over by the Vice-Chancellor. Once appointed, he/she holds office till retirement. However, in recent times, appointment to this office is also being made for short tenures of 5 years at a time. Although this method of appointment continues to be in vogue in several universities, the state governments, in some cases, have taken over the responsibility for appointment of Registrar. Where, in a state, there are several universities, a system of transfer of Registrars from one university to another is also in vogue.

5.5.7 The Finance Officer

The Finance Officer is the manager of the university's fund and properties. The finance management practices in the universities in India were traditionally confined to judiciously managing the expenditure since the largest single source of income was the grants given by the governments (almost 90-95% of the total income). This required proper preparation of the budget, setting the ceiling for every item of expenditure, and ensuring that the expenditure did not go beyond the ceilings so set. The pre-occupation of university finance departments was more with accounting and monitoring the observance of the procedures than with mobilising resources and managing the finances.

Since the Finance Officer is a key functionary in university management, and is responsible mainly for managing government funds, an officer from the government used to be appointed on deputation to this position by the universities. It also helped universities maintain close liaison with the government departments in securing timely release of funds, and at times, getting a more sympathetic ear to the demands of the universities for more funds. In recent times, some state governments take it upon themselves to appoint the Finance Officer. The finance officers so appointed are not

employees of the university, and are outside its disciplinary jurisdiction, thus creating new power centres within universities. Though this practice amounted to the university's loss of freedom to choose its Finance Officer, given the dependence on the state for funds, it has to go by the wishes of the governments.

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.

Why distancing the political executive from university management is more symbolic than real? (answer in about 40 words)

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5.6 THE MANAGEMENT OF COLLEGES

While discussing the Indian higher education system, we have repeatedly made references to “colleges”, which constitute over 98% of the system in terms of the number of institutions, and over 80% in terms of enrolment. Any discussion on the management of higher education will not be complete unless one looks also at the management of these colleges.

College education started in the middle ages when the then Muslim rulers set up “Madrasas” for the study of history, philosophy, Arabic and Persian. Towards the end of the 17th century, the British rulers set up more such institutions for the study of English language, grammar, law, geometry, arithmetic and also Sanskrit language. By the middle of the 18th century, many more institutions came up for teaching western education, especially European literature and science. Through the 18th and 19th centuries, several Christian missions founded a number of institutions, mainly to train teachers to begin with, and later to teach European literature, philosophy and science. By the mid-19th century, as we have noted, there were a number of colleges in India offering education in a variety of disciplines and subjects associated with western education along with a number of what was then known as the “oriental colleges”.

One of the major issues that prompted the establishment of universities in India was the need to encourage a regular and liberal course of education by conferring academic degrees as evidence of attainment in different branches of science and arts. The universities were established on the London University model, conferring degrees upon persons coming from any affiliated institution, has pursued a regular course of study for a given time and has passed the prescribed examination. This was the original affiliating university model in which all teaching was conducted at colleges. We have already discussed the working of this model and therefore we shall move straightaway to look at the management of these colleges.

5.6.1 Types of Colleges

In the previous unit, we have had a brief discussion on the relationship between the state governments and the colleges. We had mentioned then that colleges were mainly established by the governments or private trusts or societies. We shall now elaborate on these types.

A government college is one directly established and run by a state government. It functions like any other government department. The expenditure of the college is met directly by the government, through appropriations voted by the legislature; all the teachers and staff are government employees. All their terms and conditions of service are the same as are applicable to the civil service (recruitment, promotion, retirement and staff benefits). Perhaps, one major departure from the conditions of service of civil servants is that teachers in government colleges have vacations.

A private college is established by a Trust or Society registered under the relevant laws of the country. This registration is essential to give the college a legal status. The management of the college then vests in the Trustees, or in the governing body of the society. The Trust Deed or the Memorandum of Association of the Society would provide for the composition of the Board of Trustees or the Governing Body, and the manner of administering the college and its properties. The promoters of the Trust or Society make the initial investments on land, buildings, equipment and staff. In the early stages of expansion of higher education in India, many among these colleges sought and secured financial support from state governments for their maintenance. State governments framed grant-in-aid codes or made legislations to regulate the regime of grants as in many cases, the states' share of expenditure on many of these private colleges went as high as 80-90% of the total revenue expenditure.

As we noted earlier, there has been a significant change in this pattern of financing private colleges. As the demand for higher education places, especially in professional education programmes (engineering, medical and education), rose rapidly and the states found that they could not respond fully to meet these demands, a new category of private institutions were permitted. These are the self-financing colleges that function with no state support and meeting their expenditure from full cost recoveries. It should, however, be noted that these colleges are not allowed to make any profits as education in India is not considered a commercial activity. We have discussed the implications of this approach elsewhere and shall not repeat it here.

There is another category of colleges called the university colleges. These are established and maintained by the universities themselves either on their own campuses or elsewhere in their jurisdiction. Generally, universities do not, on their own, establish colleges; when a new university is established, the state governments transfer the management of certain colleges maintained by them in its jurisdiction to the university. Such an arrangement ensures that a new university has well established infrastructure and teaching programmes from the very beginning and that fresh investments can be minimised on creating new facilities. With the transfer of the management to the university, the colleges become integral parts of the university concerned and all their funding comes from the university. Such an arrangement helps some well known colleges to maintain their identity. In some cases, they are also known as constituent colleges.

5.6.2 Colleges and the Universities

More than a century and a half back, the British said that the purpose of establishing universities in India was to encourage education in European languages and science by conferring degrees on those who have shown evidence of having pursued a course of study in an affiliated institution and has passed the prescribed examination. It is unfortunate that this notion of passing an examination and securing a degree continues to dominate the psyche of many Indian students who enrol in colleges. It is this relationship between the university and the college that is known as 'affiliation'.

What are the main features of this affiliation? Most Indian universities require the fulfilment of the following conditions:

- The college should have a legal status (the management should be by a government or a registered Trust or Society);
- It should be providing instruction for courses of study prescribed by the university;
- It should have the infrastructure and staff to organise and conduct teaching according to the standards prescribed by the university;
- Teachers should have qualifications laid down by the university;
- The management should undertake to meet all the expenditure required for the maintenance of the college.

There could be a long list of these conditions going into minute details of several requirements. It is the fulfilment of these requirements that earns for the college the status of affiliation. And once affiliated, all that the college has to do is to teach the courses prescribed by the university according to the syllabi set by it. After completing the courses prescribed by the university, the college can present the students at the university-held examinations, and those who qualify will get the degree.

We have already said that in this scheme, teachers in colleges have no initiative left to them to decide what to teach and how. This situation often leads to lack of enthusiasm in teaching and indifferent teacher-student interaction. These in turn have serious consequences for the quality of education.

5.6.3 Autonomous Colleges

In order to remedy some of the inadequacies of the affiliating system that we just mentioned, a proposal to convert several colleges into autonomous institutions was seriously canvassed in the National Policy on Education 1986. The substance of this proposal was a transformation of the existing university-college relationship in which colleges could take up a lot more initiative while maintaining their affiliated status. The proposal involved:

- The university concerned declares selected colleges as autonomous colleges after satisfying itself about the record of its performance, its commitment to quality, teachers' qualifications and attainments, the quality of management and its capacity to raise resources.
- On such declaration, the college would be free to prescribe its own courses of study, design the curricula, determine the teaching methods and practices, hold its own examinations and decide its own student assessment systems.
- The university concerned will award the degrees.

The response to this scheme was less than enthusiastic. Though it was envisaged that about 500 colleges would become autonomous during the period up to 1990 (there were over 5700 colleges then), the figure has reached the 150 mark only at the end of 1999 (the total number of colleges had gone up to nearly 10,000 by then). In the next ten years another 100 colleges became autonomous but the total number of colleges had gone up to over 20,000. It is interesting to observe that of the 250 autonomous colleges in the country, about one-third are in a single state, namely, Tamil Nadu. What are the reasons for this tardy progress? There are several reasons:

- College teachers see the proposal as a device to break their collective strength by separating the managements of several colleges from the existing unified management structure of the affiliating university;
- Teachers and employees feel that the management of colleges (government and private) will become arbitrary as they will go out of the governing discipline of the university;
- Teachers apprehend an increase in their workload with no corresponding benefits;
- Students fear that their load will increase and they will have more to learn;
- Innovative assessment systems introduced by the autonomous colleges could be more demanding for the students as against the prevailing year-end examinations;
- Some universities are reluctant to lose their more prestigious institutions from their hold.

Whatever the reasons, the fact remains that a necessary and innovative reform which would have brought the college teachers centre stage in higher education is languishing for want of support from those for whom it was designed and developed.

5.6.4 Management of Colleges

We will conclude this discussion with a brief mention of the system of management of colleges in India. We mentioned earlier that colleges are established by governments, universities or private Trusts or Societies. We also noted that each college has to be a distinct legal entity. While the government and university colleges are managed by the parent governments or universities, it is the management of the private colleges that we shall focus on.

The UGC has prescribed guidelines for universities for granting affiliation to colleges. These guidelines require that each college should satisfy a range of requirements varying from the provision of adequate infrastructure (land, buildings, teachers and staff, books and equipment, and so on) to its management structure. The pattern of management of colleges other than those managed by governments and universities suggested in the guidelines is:

- It should be managed by a Society or Trust registered under the Societies Act or the Trust Act;
- It should have a managing body with its composition, powers and functions specified in the Memorandum of Association or Trust Deed;

- It should have the powers to raise resources, own properties, engage people and should remain accountable to the university that grants affiliation.

While the Society or Trust and the managing body created by it are the legal owners of the institution, its day-to-day management will be in the hands of people who run the college. They are;

- A Principal who is the head of the college. The method of his appointment, the qualifications required of a person to be appointed as Principal, the broad terms and conditions of his appointment, etc have to be specified with the approval of the university. Generally, the appointment is made on the recommendation of a selection committee constituted in accordance with the pattern prescribed by the university, and with its approval.
- There could be one or more Vice-Principals to assist the Principal appointed from among the senior teachers of the college.
- An administrative officer who would be the administrative head of the university and personnel required for the college administration and maintenance of accounts, etc

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 key functions of an autonomous college which distinguishes to that of a college affiliated to a university? (answer in about 40 words)

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5.7 LET US SUM UP

This unit dealt with, in some detail, the micro-management of higher education at the institutional level. We have considered the organisational structure of universities and colleges in India, their governing patterns and management structures and also the relationships among various constituents of the large structures. These discussions have been presented to provide with a deeper understanding of the institutional structures on the one hand, and the people who manage the institutions, on the other. We hope that this presentation would have given you a better appreciation of the principles and values that constitute the culture of higher education management. The last two units of this block would have provided you some insights into the making of that culture which distinguish the management of education from the profession of managing business and industry.

5.8 CHECK YOUR PROGRESS: POSSIBLE ANSWERS

Check Your Progress 1

- i) To start with affiliating university issues was only examining body, without teaching of its own. Very soon affiliating universities started teaching on the campuses along with affiliating colleges in their jurisdiction. Unitary universities do not affiliate colleges, rather they teach PG concern and offer research programme on campuses.
- ii) The University of Delhi is basically a Federal University with PG campuses and constituent colleges in large number. Over a period of time the structure got complicated with affiliated colleges in addition to constituent colleges.

Check Your Progress 2

The UGC had prescribed rigorous criteria and process for declaring any institution as a deemed university. This was followed for initial two decades of the provision was made. However the situation changed in the last two decades, with emergence of self-financing professional institutions, led to the dilution of criteria and process by UGC and the GOI. The number of deemed universities rose to 130 by 2009; whose number was 18 in the initial two decades of the scheme; itself speaks the quality of the deemed universities and recent controversies surrounded by them.

Check Your Progress 3

Though the administrative and financial decisions with the Executive Council (E.C.), when it comes to Academic matters the E.C. has to consult before taking any major decisions. If E.C. doesn't do then that may lead to conflict between the two learning making authorities which is not good for university's functioning.

Check Your Progress 4

The first major difference is the Vice-Chancellor is the Chair of Executive Council, whereas Board of Governors of IIT is Chaired by a person nominated by the Visitor of the IIT. The other main differences unlike in the Universities Board of Governors of IIT doesn't have member of political parties and bureaucrats representing the government, which provides scope for discussion in an objective manner.

Check Your Progress 5

Visitor/Chancellors functions from outside the University brings in objectivity and fairness, and thus distancing the political executive from University manages it. However, according to the Constitution Visitor/Chancellor has to function on the advice of the Council of Ministers makes the distancing political executive is more.

Check Your Progress 6

The important functions of an autonomous college is – prescribe its own courses of study, design the curricula, decide the teaching methods and practices and decide its own student assessment systems and conduct its own examinations. These functions distinguish autonomous college to that of a general college.

5.9 REFERENCES AND SUGGESTED READINGS

(Given below are the titles which have been used to prepare this Block. It is NOT suggested that you should go looking for these books to study them in original. If you can manage, you may look for a few titles, but they are not obligatory for completing the course successfully.)

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